Promoting farmer entrepreneurship through producer organizations in Central and Eastern Europe

On 1 May 2004, after a 14-year transitional period from central planning to market economics, eight Central and Eastern European (CEE) countries (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia) became members of the European Union (EU). Bulgaria and Romania are preparing for accession and are expected to join in 2007. Croatia submitted its application for membership in 2002 and Macedonia in 2004.

Voluntary member-owned, financed and controlled producer groups and farmer cooperatives are believed to provide good enterprise models that could play a central role in enabling their members, and the wider rural community, to play an active part in their own development across the CEE countries. Yet, very few have a major share in supplying inputs, providing farm or rural services or marketing production and even fewer influence national policy or decision-making. It seems that their role still cannot be entirely divorced from wider historical, political and socio-economic considerations and the generally negative experiences of “cooperation” gained throughout the region.

Part 1 of this paper presents an overall analysis of the situation and development of producer groups and farmer cooperatives across the CEE countries, including the new EU members, the applicant countries and the Balkan states alike. Part 2 provides a case study of FAO’s experiences and lessons learned with technical assistance programmes and projects in the subregion. The example presents a number of practical suggestions as to how development organizations, governments, donors and advisers might be best able to facilitate the formulation and implementation of policies and strategies that promote the further development of more autonomous and financially sustainable producers’ organizations and cooperatives in CEE countries.
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Prepared by
John Millns

Edited by
Janos Juhasz

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The Institutions for Rural Development Series includes four categories of documents (Conceptual Notes, Guidelines, Case Studies, Working Papers) aiming at supporting efforts by countries and their development partners to improve institutions, be they public, private, centralized or decentralized.

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Foreword

Rural Organizations are essential mechanisms for promoting rural development and sustainable rural livelihoods. A major component of FAO’s rural development strategy therefore aims at building and strengthening the organizational and business capacities of small farmer/rural producer organizations, including informal groups, associations and registered agricultural co-operatives.

Voluntary member-owned, financed and controlled producer groups formed to provide maximum benefits to their members have played a major role in helping farmers compete effectively in market-based economies. The expectation has been that these groups would also be able to provide answers to many of the agricultural and rural problems faced by the transitional economies of Central and Eastern Europe. However, because of wider economic, historical, political and social considerations and after the negative experience with large-scale collective farms, agricultural producers remained suspicious of once again pooling their assets in co-operatives. Although the growth in the number of new producer groups based on bottom-up initiatives that have been registered in recent years is quite promising, only a small proportion operate with any real commercial effect and they account for a very small share of all marketed produce.

During the last decade, various aspects of co-operative and other farmer/producer organization development in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) have been analysed, discussed and published. FAO, through the Rural Institutions and Participation Service (SDAR) of its Rural Development Division, its Regional Office for Europe (REU) and its Subregional Office for Central and Eastern Europe (SEUR) have actively participated in this review process through a series of workshops, conferences, seminars and case studies. The Organisation has also gained important experience through the provision of technical assistance to cooperative and farmer group development in various countries, such as Albania, Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro. FAO consultants have also been involved in a number of other projects in Moldova and in Bulgaria.

The experience in cooperative developments in CEE countries encouraged the FAO Rural Development Division to commission a synthesis analysis that assessed the present status, problems and technical assistance needs of co-operatives and other farmer/producer organizations in the eight EU accession countries of the sub-region. The outcome was published in the study “Developing Producer Groups and Rural Organizations in Central and Eastern Europe – Issues and Challenges” and web-published by FAO in 2002. It was followed by a FAO workshop in 2003 where the same author, John Millns, prepared an overview entitled “Participatory Farmer Group Development - Experiences from the Balkans”. This paper covers agricultural cooperative field programme development in the Balkan countries and was complemented by a detailed case study from Serbia that presented a practical field example of issues and experiences of farmer group development that have been gained through the implementation of FAO technical assistance projects.
This paper summarizes the most important findings, experiences and lessons learned. It is hoped that it will prove useful in assisting development organizations, governments, donors, advisers, producers and rural communities to carry out their own situation analysis, helping them to develop and implement policies, strategies and technical assistance programmes and projects aimed at promoting more autonomous and financially sustainable producers’ organizations and farmer cooperatives in the countries across the entire CEE subregion.

Parviz Koohafkan
Director, FAO Rural Development Division

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Summary

On May 1st, 2004 and after a 14-year transition from central planning to market economics, eight Central and East European (CEE) countries (Poland, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania) became members of the European Union (EU). Bulgaria and Romania are preparing for accession and are expected to join in 2007. Croatia submitted its application for membership in 2002 and Macedonia in 2004.

However, the degree of cultural and economic variation between countries in CEE is quite wide. Even greater gaps have become visible between the “old” EU-15, the 8 new member countries, as well as Balkan and other European countries still not within the EU, particularly as regards infrastructure. There are lesser or variable differences in rural resources and the productive sector. On the whole, agriculture in CEE has a more important influence on the economy and employs a greater proportion of the labour force less efficiently.

In theory at least, voluntary member-owned, financed and controlled producer groups and farmer cooperatives should have a central role to play in enabling their members, and the wider rural community, to take an active part in their own development across CEE. Yet, very few have a major share in supplying inputs, providing farm or rural services or marketing production and even fewer influence national policy or decision-making. In reality it seems that their role still cannot be entirely divorced from wider historical, political and socio-economic considerations and the generally negative experiences of “co-operation” gained throughout the region.

Production co-operation has declined significantly across CEE and although most formerly state-managed post harvest and processing co-operatives now largely operate independently, they are often burdened with excess debt, inappropriate and management systems, reduced membership as well as increasing national and international competition. Commercial and social objectives and obligations are often confused. Conflicts of interest often arise between their diverse owners and this neither enables them to raise sufficient capital nor provide clearly measurable benefits to their members.

However, few producers are individually large enough to compete effectively in national or global markets and almost paradoxically informal co-operation is on the increase. Ultimately its success will depend upon local initiatives, individual motivations, consensus and voluntary participation. To survive and grow many new groups will also have to be dynamic, creative, flexible, responsive to change and probably somewhat optimistic. However most importantly they will need to be well structured and managed, continuously aim to improve their activities, identify competitive and added value market opportunities, focus on quality and service, and most essentially, maintain a committed and active membership.

Few newly established producer or other rural groups have adequate access to information, advice, training or technical assistance that enables them to carry out a situation analysis on their own terms, trace their own path or generate innovations without being over burdened with inappropriate models or dogma. Yet producers and rural communities do need time and technical assistance to mobilise their resources in order to respond to the pressures of competitive markets.
The main challenge now for technical advisers in CEE is to help in developing competitive agricultural and rural based business enterprises and to provide support services that are arranged to fit the complexities of new realities. The demand for proper project feasibility studies, planning, marketing and development of added value activity is still not totally addressed and advice on group development is often inconsistent, contradictory or confused. Much advice has focused simply on registering a group and preparing a statute. Advisers can play a more proactive role by facilitating and not dictating planning meetings for group directors and encouraging cross fertilisation of ideas between groups. Advisers may also help producers and groups to reflect on long standing problems and consider their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats, short and long term objectives, activities, membership agreements and operational procedures. Specially trained organisers living in project areas might also encourage producers and rural communities to further develop group decision-making and self-reliance skills.

Part 1 of this paper presents an overall analysis of the situation and development of producer groups and farmer cooperatives across CEE, including the new EU members, the applicant countries and Balkan states alike. Part 2 provides a case study of FAO experiences and lessons learned with technical assistance programmes and projects in the subregion. The example presents a number of practical suggestions as to how development organizations, governments, donors and advisers might be best able to facilitate the formulation and implementation of policies and strategies that promote the further development of more autonomous and financially sustainable producers organizations and cooperatives in CEE countries.
1. A background to farmer entrepreneur and agricultural cooperation in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE)

1.1 The restructuring of agriculture

Between 1991 and 2000 dramatic and almost unprecedented restructuring of agriculture took place in all countries across CEE. The initial phase of transition from a centrally planned to a market orientated economy led to a significant decline in gross domestic product (GDP). This decline was later followed by stabilisation and growth. In most countries economic stabilisation occurred at around 70% of pre-reform levels but as low as 40% in the Baltic States. GDP decline was most dramatic in rural areas and the rural sector still continues to lag behind in both recovery and employment generation. It is estimated that the standard of living in the countryside is generally lower than in towns, by an average of 30%.

Almost 30% of people in the new accession countries and 40% in the Balkans live in rural areas, of which about half are economically active in agriculture, although up to 90% of all families living in the countryside are linked to agriculture in some way. Yet between 1990 and 1996 the share of the GDP contributed by agriculture fell by an average of 6% per year, a decline much greater than the rest of the economy. This largely resulted from a drop in demand from domestic markets, a collapse in traditional export markets, declining input use, deteriorating machinery stocks and a lower level of subsidisation.

Nevertheless, progress made on reforms in just over a decade has also been enormous and for 8 countries the reforms were further accelerated by the possibility of EU membership. In all CEE countries, the basic elements of the reform process in agriculture focused on the liberalisation of prices and markets, the privatisation of land, the de-monopolisation and privatisation of food processing, trade in agricultural produce and capital goods, the creation of a functioning rural banking system and the establishment of added value markets, affordable credit, they most often lack farm management experience. During the 1990s Bulgaria also underwent significant economic restructuring and social upheaval with large-scale privatisation and restitution of agricultural and forest lands. This initial phase of transition from a centrally planned to a market orientated economy led to a significant decline in gross domestic product (GDP) that was later followed by stabilisation and growth, but the agricultural sector has experienced uneven development since 1997 marked by both downturns and periods of growth. The agricultural gross value added contribution increased by only 1% between 1998 – 2002. Agricultural subsidies were reduced significantly and initially this led to significant reductions in yield for most crops.

Examples include Moldova, where current levels of GDP are still only half those of 1989 and falling incomes have led to serious poverty in many rural areas. Albania also suffered a severe decline in the production of field crops, grain and tobacco, but at the same time, there were significant increases in the production of vegetables, livestock and fodder crops and a diversity of production on increasingly small land plots. The country also experienced a significant change in the trade deficit, with an increasing dependence on food imports. The Albanian Government estimated that more than 20% of the agricultural population produced solely for their own subsistence, a further 65% had surplus amounts for sale each year and only 15% could be classified as “commercial” farmers. For most rural based citizens the land quota still remains their only revenue source or social security. Many have only limited access to farm machinery and other inputs (seeds, fertilizers, pesticides), added value markets, affordable credit, they most often lack farm management experience.
of an institutional structure and system of state administration required by market economies. At the same time international trade and globalisation continued apace. Today producers and rural communities face unprecedented opportunities and risks. The challenge was to make the necessary adjustments to livelihood strategies and management practices based on decentralised decision making. By 2000 most CEE countries had entered a post transition phase that required the consideration of an even wider range of agricultural and rural development issues, including the role of co-operatives and co-operation.

Prior to 1990, private farmers across CEE cultivated only 4% of private farmland, and for most countries, except in Poland, Slovenia and parts of Romania where this type of farm structure was dominant even before the transition period, the main policy aim was to transform large scale collective agriculture into more efficient and privately owned farming units. Countries applied different procedures to achieve this objective, including restitution of state owned land to former owners or their descendents (Lithuania), shares or leasing options (Romania), or compensation and land auctions (Hungary). Generally the main policy was to distribute land as physical plots to individuals as instead of distributing land shares in the form of paper certificates of entitlement.

De-collectivisation was largely seen as the way to reintegrate agriculture into mainstream western market development and as a result the organization of farming changed substantially. However, the privatisation of land and the development of land markets were not always implemented in a well-designed or systematic manner. Redistribution and land titling caused enormous administrative work and governments frequently introduced changes and conflicting amendments to legal provisions regarding land transactions. Possibly this showed a lack of experience of market economics, the uniqueness of the process or even an incapacity of some governments to conceive the implications of their political decisions. But whatever the case, in almost all CEE countries the privatisation of land has largely been completed and agriculture is now firmly dominated by individual ownership of both farm assets and land.

Overall individual farming has resulted in lower transaction costs, due to the more effective monitoring of labour, reduced inefficiencies and better control of resources. Family workers tend to be cheaper, more efficient and more flexible. But the transition process in agriculture had been far more complex than originally envisaged and now much of CEE comprises fragmented land plots of less than 5 hectares in size, with many owned by individuals who were involved in production in the past and are now primarily providing food for their own families. Today most farmers and rural communities in CEE face unprecedented opportunities and risks.

In many CEE countries more than half of the land is cultivated on a leasehold basis and the land market is still developing. Transaction costs tend to be relatively small and are still largely affected by an oversupply from the liquidation of state and collective farms. Price differentials between regions are considerable and the highest prices typically reflect non-agricultural considerations, such as proximity to cities or particularly attractive locations. Most importantly the great majority of people seemingly do not want to sell or buy agricultural land. The main reason for selling tends to be old age or a lack of money and, for buying, to give land to dependants or to obtain higher incomes.

In Albania and Moldova land was almost completely privatized. In Albania more than 460,000 farming families received 612,000 ha of agricultural land for the first time. This is an average of 1.3 hectares per family, ranging from 0.6 hectares in mountainous areas to 1.87 hectares in coastal areas and lowlands. Many land holdings were further divided into as many as 10 parcels (an average of 3.3 parcels per farm), reflecting the large number (average 6) of family members on each farm. Collective farms were entirely disbanded. The Moldovan land privatisation plan was one of the most radical of the former Soviet Union. Some 500,000 former workers on collective or state farms received an average of about 1.6 hectares of land each. By the end of 2000, more than 150 large-scale Kolhoz farms had been dismantled and land titles provided to their new private owners.
In some countries the reform process has still not been totally completed and this has led to uncertain property rights. In others the necessary legislation has still not been adopted or enforced and the process is overly dominated by administrative decisions, restrictions and rules rather than market principles and mechanisms. Even so, a solid base for a dynamic land market has now been created and more active selling and leasing markets should eventually lead to an increase in farm size.

Rural transformation across CEE also required a fundamental change to many institutions, including political and organizational frameworks and the informal and formal rules regulating the relations between citizens, organizations and government. Increased social problems and alarming signs of poverty also added new and unexpected dimensions to the transition process, particularly as the rural economy struggled to adjust to new economic realities. There is no denying that very small farms only offer limited incomes to rural residents and although agriculture still remains the single most important source of income in rural areas and an important secondary source for those whose primary activity is non-farm business, part time farming and non-agricultural activities appear to have grown in importance across CEE.

Many rural households throughout CEE are now increasingly dependent on non-farm sources for 30-35% of their income (Davis 2002). Although 60% of rural inhabitants in rural areas are connected to a farm, only 20% count farming as their main occupation (Swinnen et al 2000). However, most enterprises still tend to have close links with the agricultural sector and the share of the population involved in non-farm activities varies widely throughout the region, ranging from around 7% in Poland to 65% in Slovenia. The share of households with supplementary activities is highest in areas with large-scale farms while family labour on small private farms has mostly stayed in agriculture.

The development of the non-agricultural segment of the rural economy may also be important to the recovery of agriculture itself as well as for the productive absorption of rural labour and the avoidance of poverty. In countries most advanced by reform it has been the upswing of the rural...
economy surrounding agriculture that has made possible a substantial reduction in the numbers of people employed in agriculture and at the same time improved the efficiency and competitiveness of agriculture itself.

Non-farming rural enterprises have given individuals and households more options to improve their livelihood security and living standards. Diverse income portfolios include opportunities in manufacturing and the service sector (trade, tourism, education and various support functions) and pensions as well as remittances from family and friends who live and work outside the area. Access to non-farming incomes is also often of great importance to small private farmers in gaining access to rural finance in CEE. Banks often prefer to lend to producers with diversified incomes as they consider them to be less of a risk. It is estimated that the existence of off-farm sources of income increases the probability of obtaining credit by 2.7 times (Davis and Pearce 2000).

Seemingly non-farm rural enterprise is dependent on household composition, education and skills levels, access to finance, infrastructure and social capital. But such interrelationships are complex and there are also strong correlations between their growth, government policies, income levels and the performance of agriculture itself. One can envisage the essential complementary role that rural development will have in providing alternative employment as inevitable restructuring and rationalisation take place. However, diversification is often easiest for the more progressive, better off farmers than for more marginal ones, reflecting both access to necessary resources as well as the human resources in terms of skills, attitudes and motivation. Younger people also seem to be more likely to engage in riskier and entrepreneurial activities.

A large proportion of the non-farm activities are also livelihood orientated and although they sometimes provide insignificant economic returns they play a key role as diversified income sources within the livelihood strategies of rural households. This role has become increasingly important in the context of a declining rural sector and the inability of the state to provide similar levels of social security support that were provided in the pre-transition period. In countries with scattered rural structures, the demand for additional employment is highest but opportunities are often less numerous and there is a greater level of unawareness of the potential of the role of non-farm rural enterprises in promoting economic development.

The role of rural groups and self-help organizations in the development of non-farm rural enterprises is not clear. A few small co-operative projects are operational (such as in traditional dress making, wool products and other handicrafts) and, although they are small, they have provided useful income to some rural areas. In reality, of these initiatives have made major impacts on regional or national economic development and most are unlikely to do so until a strong base of economically sustainable small and medium sized enterprises is established in rural areas or clear benefits from economic co-operation emerge, particularly for the supply of agricultural inputs or the marketing of outputs.
1.2 The challenge: Acquis Communautaire and the EU Common Agricultural Policy (CAP)

The expansion from 15 to 25 countries added about 100 million new consumers to the EU market and doubled the number of farm employees governed by the CAP, while increasing total gross domestic product (GDP) by less than 5%. The agricultural integration of the new member states into the EU was always expected to be particularly challenging due to drastic differences in agricultural policies, structures, and development. New members not only did not have the same means to support their farmers or insulate their markets, but also farming efficiency and incomes were far lower than those in member states of the former EU-15.

The average per capita GDP of producers in accession countries was barely half of that of the EU’s poorest members (Greece and Portugal). On the whole, agriculture in CEE has a more important influence on the economy and employs a greater proportion of the labour force less efficiently. However, there are very substantial deviations from country to country and large differences in the performance of individual farms. It worth noting that stated differences with the EU are also not always as large as might be expected. In 2005 more than 50% of EU farms were also below 5 ha in size1. These too have low labour productivity and incomes and are more often dependent on subsidies.

The EU is the world’s largest regional trade bloc. It has a single market with no internal agricultural trade barriers and a CAP. The CAP provides high levels of support to farmers through price supports, import protections, and direct payments, but it is costly to maintain and uses over 50% of the EU’s budget. By adopting the CAP, new member countries expected to benefit from unrestricted access to EU markets, generally higher prices, and increased financial support for farmers. However, in the years leading up to enlargement, EU policymakers became increasingly worried about the cost of providing current levels of CAP support to millions of new farmers. This concern also led to the Copenhagen compromise of December 2002, in which the new member governments were forced to accept a 10-year phase-in of direct payments for farmers.

Pessimists warned that it could end in political and economic disaster. But although new and old members still face substantial challenges, the emerging trends are very positive. For the 10 new members in economic terms, the gains are clear, accession boosted trade imports and exports. The European Commission’s Eurostat agency estimated that average farm incomes in the 10 new member states rose by more than 50% in 2004.

For most other countries in CEE not members of the European Union the Acquis Communautaire have now become the basis and direction for agricultural policy. However EU agricultural policy follows a multi-sectoral perspective of which agriculture is only one part and tries to reconcile improving both the competitiveness of European food production while supporting a growing move towards more coherent, integrated and sustainable rural development programmes. It is a complicated task to develop a more sustainable balance between farming and other forms of rural

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1 More than 75% in Italy, Greece and Portugal
development, while at the same time reducing the negative environmental impacts of agriculture, conserving natural resources and expanding the role that farmers can play in the preservation of rural landscapes. Over the past decade the European Commission has doubled the funds made available to support this and has particularly targeted poorer countries and regions. Between 1984 and 1994 such structural funds grew from 12 to 26% of the community budget.

CEE accession countries were given a mandate by the EU to establish agricultural and rural development policies and to prepare a suitable institutional infrastructure for their implementation. Governments needed to further develop a coherent set of policies that promoted local private activities, both upstream and downstream of agriculture. This required preparing an adequate macro-environment and institutional support in terms of credit, training, advisory services, information technologies and more simplification of administrative and bureaucratic procedures.

Since 1994 the EU has been fairly explicit in stating the preconditions for applicants wanting to join the EU. In relation to agriculture these may be broadly outlined as:

- Establishing a coherent structural and rural development policy
- Adopting implementing regulations for enforcing veterinary and phytosanitary requirements, particularly with regard to inspection and control arrangements at EU external borders
- Upgrading and restructuring food processing establishments, testing and diagnostic facilities, improving veterinary and phytosanitary hygiene and promoting animal welfare
- Reinforcing administrative structures to enable the necessary resources for the implementation of the Common Agricultural Policy
- Considering in detail the environmental aspects of agriculture

But across CEE farming suffered from a lack of investment, inputs, access to information and consistent, reliable production. There was (and still is) a need to further develop the rural institutional infrastructure for post harvest technologies and marketing, the financial infrastructure (banking, mortgage and micro credit systems), enterprises for employment diversification and the rural infrastructure (roads, telecommunications etc).

In 1999 the EU introduced four accession countries assistance programmes for agriculture and rural development and including the Special Accession Programme for Agriculture and Rural Development (SAPARD) and Pre-Accession Structural Instrument (ISPA). The SAPARD programme is aimed at assisting accession countries to upgrade agricultural production and markets to EU standards and to provide them with grant aid for the preparation of 7-year agriculture and rural development plans acceptable to the EU and the establishment of a national institution capable of administering, disbursing and controlling funds according to EU standards. Under these support programmes a wide range of measures are eligible to receive assistance including agricultural holdings, marketing and processing of agricultural products, producer groups, non-farm rural enterprises, land development, vocational training, rural infrastructure and agri-environmental measures. The relative focus depends on the strategic priorities defined by
the Government. Co-financing rules require 25% of project funds to be provided by the applicant country and the remainder is obtained from the EU up to an agreed budget figure.

In general the definition of rural development in CEE is gradually evolving with that of the EU, forcing governments to think more systematically about rural development policies and greater integration between agriculture, agro-industry, environment and rural development. Although it has increased in recent years, the level of indirect and direct support for agriculture throughout CEE remains below the EU average and key issues are often fundamentally different from those in the west. Though not to the same degree of intensity, there are a number of rural issues that CEECs share in common. In particular:

■ Relatively low rural incomes, economic and educational opportunities in rural areas. Unemployment (or underemployment) is high and often of a structural nature. The population structure, in some regions, was worsened during transition, caused largely by an out-migration of young and skilled people
■ A rural infrastructure that was historically given a low level of priority and is generally poor, including roads, communications, health and social services
■ Very few processing facilities meeting EU regulations. An overcapacity of companies in the agri-food chain as a whole required a consolidation of the sector. Too many fragmented plants were working at sub-optimal capacity and were strongly concentrated into certain regions often using outdated equipment and technology and with low levels of investment
■ Inappropriate support in terms of information or mutual organization and insufficient capital investment for start up firms
■ Environmental protection standards that were not adequately enforced
■ A large percentage of small-scale farms, not really viable as full time units

Economic growth increasingly causes the commercialisation of agricultural production and from a CEE perspective key issues for development tend to focus on:

■ Reducing the disparity of living standards between producers and other professional groups, and between rural and urban areas
■ Achieving additional incomes for agricultural producers through various forms of non-agricultural activities.
■ Agreeing the degree of support to be given to the agricultural sector through budgetary and non-budgetary transfers

Voluntary member-owned, financed and controlled producer groups and farmer cooperatives should have a central role to play in enabling their members and the wider rural community to take an active part in their own development. Yet across CEE few have had any direct or indirect involvement in accession negotiations and most lack information on, or knowledge of, EU assistance programmes and related issues. The following summarises the reasons for this and presents recommendations for their further development

2. Agricultural and rural cooperation

2.1 Subsidiarity and local activism

Throughout CEE, government policies towards producer groups and rural organizations are often inadequate, inconsistent or even absent and during the early years of transition, most governments were generally hostile to most forms of co-operation. This often resulted in low levels of rural community participation in regional and national decision-making.

Successful rural development is nearly always a local phenomenon and ultimately successful development depends upon local initiatives, individual motivations, consensus and voluntary
participation. It is now generally accepted that bottom-up approaches help in bringing dynamism to local development by stimulating new thinking, promoting the exchange of ideas and harnessing the available resources and efforts of numbers of people. To move marginalized members of society from oppressive dependency structures, active participation by all potential beneficiaries in the change process is desirable. Throughout CEE there is still a need to further decentralise decision-making, adopt participative development approaches, empower local and regional communities and respect the principles of subsidiarity. This means that responsibility is delegated to the lowest possible level while government focuses on its own unique role rather than getting involved in areas where private markets should operate.

The challenge is to make the necessary adjustments to livelihood strategies and management practices that are based on decentralised decision-making. Essentially the development of producer groups and other rural organisations needs to be led by producers and rural communities and not artificially stimulated by advisers and policy makers or used to justify project activity or penetration.

Sometimes it is just simply too convenient to promote rural co-operation as a way of solving a wide range of rural development issues. Rather than being the panacea for solving all rural development problems, most commercially successful producer groups seem to be formed, from the outset, with very simple, clear, predictable and measurable business and market objectives. Groups that have relatively homogeneous memberships and have developed trusting, ongoing and long-term relationships with buyers or suppliers are generally better able to get involved in technology than more political counterparts.

Producer groups and other rural organizations can also be effective channels for bringing concerns to the government, for stimulating rural development or for providing social services. For most producers and rural entrepreneurs, joining a group is a simple commercial choice. It has to be an effective mechanism for developing their own farm business by reducing their own costs, increasing their total income by enabling access to profitable markets or for minimising risk.

Yet throughout CEE there already exists immense confusion over the interpretation of the word, and concepts, of producer groups, organizations, co-operatives, collectives and associations. Commercial farms have distinct structures and forms and should not be confused with Ministry intervention, state marketing boards, investor-led businesses, trade or political representational bodies, though in CEE they often are. Increased independence and private land ownership after more than 50 years of forced cooperation has had a strong psychological impact on the farming population. Most farmers are sceptical of cooperatives and attitude studies across the region in the mid 1990s showed that almost 60% of farmers saw voluntary cooperation as an unnecessary variant of former socialist structures. Only 15% considered them as possible economic solutions (but with the additional note they felt it was still too early to consider developing them) and more than 90% agreed that they knew very little, if anything, about how they should be managed.

Throughout CEE producer groups, citizens’ associations and informal networks still need to receive more attention. Effort will be needed to strengthen commercial group development, to develop rural self-help schemes and to ensure a better participation of farmer representative organizations at national and EU levels. Rural communities need to be encouraged to develop and exploit indigenous and unique resources in a sustainable way and to ensure that effective use is made of the existing financial assistance and services of relevant state agencies. This requires the meaningful involvement of a range of representatives covering the main sectors of economic and...
social activity in rural areas. Stimulating voluntary efforts by local people to promote economic and social development in their own areas requires close contact between development associations, business people, state agencies, local authorities and politicians. Across most of CEE this has required developing new institutions able to represent rural society and help deal with conflicts, promote consensus and foster interrelationships between sectors and groups.

Adopting such an approach in CEE has required a shift from a model of direct service provision, through such mechanisms as chambers of commerce and state-run business centres, to more innovative models of service provision in partnership with trading companies, NGOs, civil and entrepreneur associations. The challenge has been to link and further strengthen institutions that innovate and invest in agricultural knowledge-based technologies, support diverse livelihoods as well as improve rural business management and market oriented agriculture.

2.2 From production cooperatives to producer cooperation

Before transition, cooperatives played an important role in the political system of a centrally planned economy. Communist style co-operatives were largely instruments in the hands of the government and ruling party and rural co-operatives were often treated more as instruments of social policy than as autonomous self help organizations geared towards the achievement of farmer identified goals. In reality they fulfilled a number of functions, including transforming privately owned means of production into a special form of collective property.

Co-operatives enjoyed a convenient monopoly status for supplying raw materials to producers and for selling their products in markets protected by the government. They implemented centrally made plans and, where necessary, adjusted them to local conditions. They educated members in the communist way of life, offered vocational training and fulfilled social functions by providing services to members, their families and other persons living in the area they covered.

*Apricot grower group promoting local production*
Healthy co-operative business development and direct political interference seldom go
together and after 1991 most countries took radical measures to extricate the State from the
co-operative movement. Today throughout CEE the public administration is largely prevented
from interfering in the internal affairs of a co-operative. But efforts to restructure and
"de-politicize" cooperative unions, federations and apex organizations proved to be difficult as
many had been tied to each other for decades. Some countries entirely dissolved all “politicized”
unions and federations of co-operatives and started again. Others developed “planned
transition” alternatives.

Most CEE Governments favoured the transformation of collectives into companies and
co-operatives. In most countries laws were introduced that enabled co-operative assets to be
divided amongst existing members as well as former members and their successors. This
permitted members to leave their cooperative and allowed them to withdraw assets equivalent
to their respective share and so begin independent farming. The management of production
cooperatives became increasingly difficult. A number soon
became bankrupt and were liquidated. Assets were allocated
amongst members or sold to develop new and independent
farming units or corporate farms. Those that did remain
were often subject to serious restrictions, such as heavy
taxes, bureaucratic management and administrative
procedures and a shortage of leaders with experience of
managing an autonomous, market-oriented co-operative.
They were commonly burdened with excessive labour,
inherited debt and historical social security obligations.
Their unpopularity and low profitability are further
reasons why most continued to struggle.

Although production cooperatives still exist throughout
Central and Eastern Europe and they still cultivate a
significant proportion of total land area, their numbers
decreased by more than 70% between 1993 and 2004.
They manage partly owned and partly rented land from
individual landowners of between 500- 6000 ha. Land is
leased from their own members as well as from other local
landowners or town residents. Payment is often made in
kind and transformed into cash after the sale of products. The rent quota paid ranges from
between 25-30% of the gross profit and is normally distributed after all obligations including
rent have been paid (Florian et al 1999). Most are located in the same regions as under the
socialist period. Although no conclusive evidence exists that family farms are more efficient than
collectives, cooperatives and corporate farms are clearly not outperforming newly created
individual farms.\footnote{2}{Hungary and the Czech Republic statistics clearly reflect a higher efficiency in the individual farming units. In Hungary the estimated technical efficiency of private corporate farms was 16\% less than individual plots and cooperatives were 32\% less. In the Czech Republic the technical efficiency of the combined cooperative and corporate farming sector was 9\% less than for private plots (Csaki et al 1999).}

The overall level of profitability of production co-operatives is generally low and their
restructuring is still ongoing. Despite relatively high investments, assets are often insecure, there is
a lack of capital for investment and agricultural implements and many larger farming members
have left their group. Many producers in CEE still remain suspicious of pooling their assets in
local and often unaccountable co-operatives, particularly after their experience with communist
collectives. In order for most to develop, or even survive, they will need to achieve additional
results in terms of quantity and quality compared to individual farming practice. This will require
improving the transparency of the system, recognising personal and group interests, developing

In Moldova the remnants of production
co-operation continues to decline and, although
most former state-managed post harvest and
processing co-operatives now largely operate
independently, they are often burdened with
excessive debt, inappropriate management and
management systems, reduced membership
numbers as well as increasing national and
international competition. Commercial and
social objectives and obligations are often
confused. Conflicts of interest also arise between
diverse owners that neither enables them
to raise sufficient capital nor provide clearly
measurable benefits to farmer members.

2 Hungary and the Czech Republic statistics clearly reflect a higher efficiency in the individual farming units. In Hungary the estimated technical efficiency of private corporate farms was 16\% less than individual plots and cooperatives were 32\% less. In the Czech Republic the technical efficiency of the combined cooperative and corporate farming sector was 9\% less than for private plots (Csaki et al 1999).
business activities according to market opportunities and effectively connecting large-scale extensive and small-scale local production.

The privatisation of the co-operative processing sector in CEE has largely been completed. Dairy co-operatives have survived the best and they still process and market the major share of farmer production\(^3\), but in other similar enterprises investments for modernisation are often missing and many work at less than 30% of capacity. Sometimes both workers and producers have been allocated share capital in facilities that are often run down and require considerable investment and new management approaches focused on serving emerging markets and meeting EU standards. At the same time, throughout CEE there are a number of small, fully private, modern and competitive enterprises have been established, particularly in countries where liberalisation has proceeded the fastest. Therefore, perhaps unsurprisingly, newly formed processing co-operatives are almost totally absent in CEE. National and international competition, combined with high entry costs and capital needs are also likely to be huge obstacles for the further development of these groups in the short term.

Yet even large CEE producers are still individually too small to make significant impacts on major national and global markets. In the “western” members of the European Union, producer co-operatives have gained recognition as an important economic and social force. More than 50% of inputs supplied to farmers and production marketed from farms is sold through organizations that farmers jointly own (COPA/COGECA 2000). Most of these co-operatives started from modest beginnings and over more than 50 years many have developed into large-scale, professionally managed businesses, in full competition with other commercial firms and producer groups\(^4\). The special nature of agricultural co-operatives is even recognized within the Treaty of Rome\(^5\).

Farm incomes may be increased by increasing productivity, reducing production costs or through better management. In the long term it is achieved by adjusting activities according to the needs of new technologies and new market opportunities. In response, most Western groups have been formed where there is clear business opportunity and measurable benefits to members and are dependent on their use of group services or facilities rather than on investment. They are private enterprises, voluntarily established, owned and controlled by their individual producer members and managed for their benefit. In most cases these benefits are measured by the increased financial rewards obtained, either from a reduction in costs from larger purchases, the more efficient use of resources or the increased prices from being able to access higher value markets. According to their business objectives, commercial producer groups can be broadly grouped into three types:

- **Input supply groups.** These are established to reduce overall costs either through sharing resources, such as machinery, or jointly purchasing inputs. They may be highly diversified in terms of crops and commodities
- **Service groups.** These are mainly established to enable producers to better access, finance, risk insurance, technical, advisory or representational support
- **Marketing groups.** These are mainly established to improve the prices received by members either through improving the consistency and quality of a product or by providing a continuity of supply to buyers. They also help in establishing better methods for growing, grading, storing and delivering produce, in developing new product lines and in promotion. Marketing groups often specialise in a single commodity and opt for value-added products and target expanding markets

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\(^3\) Especially in Estonia, Poland and Slovenia.

\(^4\) During the past 40 years, the number of primary cooperatives has been drastically reduced by mergers, although the number of members has increased. The economic efficiency and competitiveness of cooperative enterprises have thus been greatly enhanced. Meanwhile the distance between individual members and their cooperatives has often grown.

\(^5\) The founding treaty of the European Community (now the European Union).
Informal co-operation is widespread across the Balkans and the World Bank agricultural report noted in 2003 “In contrast to the decline of old-style cooperatives, hundreds of embryonic farmer organizations and cooperatives have been established in recent years. The farmers, or their elected representatives, in these new-style cooperatives are clearly in charge and cooperative management and employees work according to the agenda set by farmer members. These initiatives usually start with rudimentary group activities such as the joint purchase of inputs or a joint preparation of produce for market. Younger, better educated, and more commercially oriented farmers typically join these new groups. Many such groups have potential to develop into agricultural business organizations like cooperatives or limited liability companies’.

In CEE governments, advisers and farmers are increasingly aware of the issues involved in linking producers to markets and to suppliers and more often they are promoting the concept of producer groups (not being termed as co-operatives) as a universal answer to difficult problems. However the differences between, a producer group that is built on a single product line and with homogenous membership, and a multipurpose co-operative involved in a number of sectors and with a variety of diverse owners is still not totally appreciated.

Even so across CEE many new and commercially effective producer groups based on bottom-up initiatives of farmers are forming, growing in numbers and trading, particularly in the dairy, horticulture, fruit, grain and livestock sectors. Their growth largely reflects inefficiencies in supply chain organization, particularly for perishable products. Usually these groups are engaged in very basic activities for supplies of inputs or marketing and most have very little contact with traditional co-operatives. They differ significantly from ‘transformed’ old co-operatives with regard to their internal membership arrangements and business strategies.

However, only a small proportion of these groups are operating with any real commercial affect and they are generally small in terms of the total amount of produce for sale or inputs purchased. They probably account for less than 2% of all produce marketed from the region. Much larger levels are really required to improve the prices obtained or reduce costs significantly. However, although they are often still small and weak at least they seem to have a proper basis for future development.

Many of these groups are not registered and informal co-operation is common throughout the region. Informal groups do not provide long-term stability or confidence amongst members, customers, suppliers or financial institutions. Few serious buyers or suppliers are willing (or able) to enter into proper commercial negotiations or contracts with such groups. Only formal registration enables producers to further promote their own economic interests and to establish the framework of effective cooperation for the procurement of inputs as well as for the marketing of products. However the acceptance by farmers of legally registered cooperative arrangements will depend on the degree of their understanding of the role and potential of farmer cooperation.

Initially a major obstacle to the establishment of new producer groups was the simple fact that there were insufficient private farmers and individual entrepreneurs to constitute a membership after decades of collectivization. Nowadays by operating successfully, producer groups should be able to increase farm revenues and accelerate the development of farms of all sizes. Their further growth and development will depend on the extent to which new groups are seen by other producers to provide real financial benefits to their members.

Recent FAO studies from Albania show that farmer interest in alternative forms of cooperation has grown in recent years. More than 80% of farmers surveyed would join a farmer group if it could be proved it would reduce the overall costs of inputs, 50% if it would increase the prices they receive for their production and almost 30% would share productive assets, such as machinery or storage facilities or jointly produce, but only if a common management formula could be found. Psychological opposition is slowly being pushed aside by economic reality. However more than 50% still say that they would only cooperate with other family members.
With domestic and export market opportunities in abundance and a primarily private farming sector, the foundation for market focused producer group development in CEE has been established. The success rate of these groups will be determined by their capacity to arrange for major investments, a continuous flow of raw materials and to build effective long-term relationships with buyers and suppliers. If producers are to capitalise on the positive aspects of change they must be dynamic, creative, flexible, somewhat optimistic and develop structures, norms and procedures over time and in response to changes in the environment.

3. Major areas of technical assistance needs

FAO has identified primary issues that are constraining group development in CEE as being:

- Inadequate group management, leadership and education
- A general unwillingness by farmers to collaborate and unclear benefits derived from cooperation
- Insufficient start-up capital
- A lack of innovation, value added activity and entrepreneurial spirit
- Generally small farm sizes and sometimes unclear land ownership
- Unclear cooperative legislation and inappropriate taxation policies
- Ineffective marketing and market access

Some of these issues are discussed in more detail below and from a technical assistance perspective.

3.1 Group management and leadership

Although there are other adverse factors hindering group development in CEE, the most significant problem preventing them from responding successfully to new and deregulated markets is often a failure to develop a professional group based on entrepreneurship and good management. These factors are often prerequisites of success because an enterprise integrates into its environment through innovation as well as by creating opportunities and taking calculated risks. Producer groups and rural organizations need to be managed professionally and like all other enterprises they require clear objectives, proper finance, planning, market conditions, economic and environmental analyses, good third party relationships as well as well-trained, motivated and visionary management.

Over the past decade management and supervisory board members in many existing CEE groups have either remained unchanged or still influence decision-making. The presence of such old style, authoritative and job dependent cooperative managers rarely facilitates solutions and their professional skills are largely inadequate after decades of working towards the implementation of state plans. The incentive problems of former collective and state farms were obvious to even the most conservative policy makers. Centralised structures can implicitly undermine the skills and creativity of leaders and group members.

There is a need for competent and convincing management of both enterprise and member related

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**Bulgaria** has a programme under SAPARD aimed at encouraging the development of producers co-operatives and associations. Inspite of this, by the end of 2005 only two had been approved and both covering tobacco production. Few applications have been received and those that are have were largely descriptive rather than analytical and with weak strategy components and unclear priorities for development. Even so, the process has forced farmers to rethink their strategies and priorities, including the role of co-operatives and co-operation. Many farmers have made considerable progress but most still lack the management skills and experience needed to operate efficiently and profitably. Eighty-four percent of farm managers have no agriculture education, but only practical experience. Ten percent have graduated specialised secondary education and only 6% higher agriculture education.
aspects of a group so that groups can show they are financially independent, accountable and have broad based support. Without a strong elected leadership and a core base of like-minded producer members working to ensure its success, groups are likely to fail. Members need to be committed to using the facilities and services of their group and control needs to be in their hands of those that are most committed. This may be expressed by the amount of product supplied to a group of a defined quality, the amount of product purchased through the group or the total use of services. Investments in a group, the benefits received and voting rights need to be related to these commitments otherwise an irrelevant and inefficient group system is likely to develop.

Groups need to constantly readjust and adapt their structures, management and operations in line with competitive challenges and develop long-term objectives in response to changing circumstances. Group leaders need to identify and assess problems and opportunities and see whether they can be solved within their existing resources. They need to take positive measures to solve problems, exploit opportunities and develop initiatives. It is a challenging and demanding task to conceive, design, build and nurture this type of producer group. The responsibility for examining potential opportunities, preparing a business proposition, devising methods of operation, raising finance and ensuring legal obligations will often rest with a small group of visionary, motivated and committed members.

Group members can expect to receive regular and timely information on market requirements as well as on prices, charges and payments. Meetings need to be conducted professionally, decisions recorded and a monthly report prepared on progress and finance. Establishing a group also requires proper administrative and financial reporting procedures and proper business plans to be prepared, monitored, updated and amended as required. Work tasks will need to be divided and delegated and this takes time and organization.

Many groups are faced with a lack of management skills, particularly during their early years of development. This is a period when they are rarely able to cover the costs of a professional manager and farmer directors may be expected to work largely on a voluntary basis. Consequently many active and innovative producers feel they have insufficient time, incentive or motivation to devote to the development of group activity. Too often considerable effort is spent on discussing the details of legal structure, member organization and financial contributions to register a group that subsequently can only stagnate and does not prove viable.

It is common for membership of new groups in CEE to be comprised almost entirely of family members, relations or persons who know each other well. It is also not uncommon for ownership and control to be invested in both producers and non-producers, including representatives from commercial suppliers, advisory agencies, employees, pensioners, government and financial institutions. Under a limited liability structure this is possible, but such heterogeneous interests introduce conflicts of interest and unclear commercial objectives particularly between the expected financial returns on the invested capital of non-farmers and the benefits expected by those committing produce or buying inputs. These conflicts of interest lead to lack of commitment by producers to their group and inefficient operations. Non-farming members or management frequently dominate decision-making and since 1991 membership size in newly independent co-operatives has declined sharply across CEE and many
viable producers have left. If these issues are not properly addressed and more appropriate internal structures designed, the performance of these groups will continue to suffer. There is a need to single out only one category of membership.

Business strategy is an important factor in determining whether such conflicts of interest occur. If activities are complex and differentiated across different markets they become far removed from the farmers’ realm of experience and this leads to a loss of control. Capital needs are higher and to retain commitment properly organised incentive structures become important. This requires a closer consideration of individualised rather than collectivised member relationships, differentiated rather than uniform pricing, individualised capital rather than collectivised reserves and closer consideration of member voting procedures so that are in proportion to their transactions through the group. Moving away from collectivised organizational forms will also help to restore trust and ensures that member contribution and gains are more in balance.

3.2 Agricultural inputs and markets

During the 1990s all CEE countries removed the monopolistic positions of former state-controlled suppliers of farm inputs and the agencies responsible for domestic and export marketing. Domestic and international competition was encouraged and many agricultural subsidies withdrawn. Privatisation created farmer dependency on a competitive private sector. Their co-operatives became a part of the sector.

Yet for many CEE producers a common concern remained access to affordable credits, chemicals, seeds, fertilisers, machinery and other inputs. This was particularly the case in regions where local monopolies were created for supplies of inputs and largely resulting from ineffective privatisation of non-land assets (machinery, buildings) of former state and co-operative farms.

Some of these problems can be partly resolved by better co-operation and many CEE producers began their new group activities as input supply organizations. These groups are relatively easy to establish and cheap to administer. As the relative price of inputs increased compared to outputs the benefits of reduced prices for bulk purchases became clearly measurable and many village level input supply groups were formed with the encouragement of input suppliers offering incentives, such as discounts on larger purchases or interest free and extended seasonal credit.

Machinery groups also developed but often out of necessity rather than intent and despite the expense almost all CEE farmers still prefer to buy, lease or contract individually. Small private family farmers frequently cultivate land with obsolete second hand machinery needing excessive or frequent repairs, obtained from former state co-operatives or at

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6 Although there are huge differences between one country and another. For example there are areas where hardly any fertilisers are used at all, while there is an excess of fertilisers in others.
auctions. Throughout CEE there is a need for investment and modernisation of machinery and clearly the costs would be more affordable if it was shared.

However, in CEE access to labour, land, machinery and other inputs seems to be considerably less of a problem than access to markets. Yet across CEE it is common for producers to consider joint marketing some time after they have developed confidence in trading together and initially often through an input supply group. However marketing groups are far more difficult to establish and maintain primarily because they aim to obtain better prices and deal with buyers rather than sellers. This requires much higher levels of persuasive negotiation techniques.

While it is relatively tempting to think that rural areas are almost self-sufficient, this is far from the case. Indeed, they are highly dependent upon trade because they produce a relatively small proportion of the goods and services that they consume and they are highly dependent upon stable trade flows. Effective functioning markets provide signals that encourage investment and specialisation in areas of comparative advantage. They also help in promoting the development of the private farm and non-farm sectors and encourage efficient and realistic allocation of financial resources.

Marketing constraints include low profitability caused by low producer prices, problems selling products, payment delays and an absence of institutions linking the upstream and downstream sectors. Even in years with good climatic conditions many producers cannot be entirely certain that they will manage to sell their produce or receive timely payment. Yet during the 1990s the numbers of buyers across CEE more than tripled, exports recovered and foreign direct investments (FDI) surged. Those producing a surplus for sale began working within a more complex, increasingly competitive and changing environment in which opportunities clearly exist for the innovative to exploit.

CEE prices and systems of regulations became more open to world market influences and the obligations accompanying WTO and EU membership had a growing effect. Although sales within the region continued to be of great importance, for most countries there was a considerable change in the composition of agricultural trading partners and the EU became the dominant trading partner. Initially, it was a more important source of imports than an export destination. EU consumers focused on the quality and variety of fresh and processed food and could afford to be concerned with wider sustainability issues and the environmental effects of food production systems. Also national buyers are also increasingly demanding better quality fresh and processed products, delivered to defined specifications and supported by regular and reliable deliveries.

While most buyers prefer to source produce locally, few restrict themselves to purchasing produce from their immediate area or even from their own country. Most are not adverse to the development of producer groups and in reality treat them just the same as any other supplier. Most buyers are focused on trying to simplify management organizations that will create a value chain that integrates farms, food processing plants and distribution networks.

Buyers consistently try to source new products and locate new suppliers but only producers of consistent quality, visually attractive, competitive products are likely to benefit in the long term. Producers need to be active in working with buyers to develop integrated and traceable systems of supply that enable continuity through production and marketing and in order to diversify sales options away from a sole reliance on traditional or regional buyers and exploit innovative sales opportunities, such as commodity exchange or internet trading.

Individual producers, of whatever size, are unlikely to be able to supply world, or even domestic markets that require a large quantity or consistent supply of product. To obtain higher incomes

7 Three quarters of all foreign direct investments have come from European countries.
8 Such as the development of an integrated cool chain system for the distribution of eggs, fruits or vegetables.
CEE producers have to identify and serve those buyers prepared to pay higher prices for agreed standards of produce quality, quantity and delivery reliability. They need to both upgrade farming and also turn the regions abundant produce into something more valuable. Commercial producers marketing organizations need to focus on added value activities, both for post harvest activities (drying, storing, grading, packing, cleaning etc.) and for trade and also identify those buyers that are prepared to delegate responsibility for collecting, transporting, packing, grading and cleaning produce.

Contracting with upstream processors can also have a positive and significant effect on technical efficiency. Many will give advice on feeding or growing programmes and measurement techniques. Prompt payments help to relieve cash flow constraints. Secure buyer contracts reduce uncertainty, facilitate entrepreneurship and improve access to credit. Solutions for these problems can be sought in the emergence of innovative buyer-farmer linkages that help to facilitate the adoption of technology and access input supplies and markets. Such innovations have already been quite successful in the most advanced transitional economies and farmer groups potentially have an important role to play.

However, many CEE producers still mistrust buyers and few groups have been able to develop confident, long term or secure relationships. It is common for an individual farmer or entrepreneur to identify a buyer opportunity and organise the production of other farmers in the region or purchase production directly from the field. Marketing agency agreements need to be better formulated and by specifying the production parameters and consequences for both sides in case of default it should be possible for longer-term contracts and extended credit to be negotiated, thereby reducing the range of price differences throughout the year.

Producers often have difficulties in accessing markets simply because they lack information on where, or to whom, they should market their produce. Exchange of information between producers can assist in stimulating change and innovation. Market information improves the negotiating position of producers and allows them to decide whether to sell products or not. Producers also use annual price series data to make decisions about what and when to plant. Such information encourages crop diversification and off-season production.

But although CEE producers regularly discuss market opportunities between each other, they often lack regular, impartial and well-informed sources of information on prices, buyers, supplies and contracts for particular crops or are able to make gross margin comparisons. Few producers in CEE would know the main EU directives for the production and marketing of agriculture and food products.

Several “independent” market information systems have been unable to continue a comprehensive service once donor funds have dried up and although most CEE countries have developed market information systems\(^9\), primarily operating within the Ministry of Agriculture, most have not been particularly successful in meeting farmer needs and have tended to focus on economic rather than

In Western Europe, by placing an element of local identity at the core of territorial strategy, it has been possible for unused, neglected and even forgotten resources to regain their value and to give rise to unique products resulting from unusual combinations of different elements and sectors. Formerly anonymous areas have sometimes formed a strong and often unique identity, such as the Antico Frigano area in Emilia Romagna (Italy), the Pays Cathare area in Languedoc-Roussillon (France), the Terras do Cante area in Alentejo (Portugal) or the RaJupuSu region (Finland). In other cases, the launch of an image or slogan associated with one of the areas has made it possible to bring scattered products together and to create new product ranges, such as; the Village du Pain (Village of bread) chosen as a theme by the inhabitants of Bovenistier (Belgium) to revive their social and cultural life.

\(^9\) Often with support from the European Union, the World Bank or a bilateral donor
3.3 Quality assurance, specifications and membership agreements

Globalisation of agri-trade has increased the need for standardisation for many products. Standardisation enables a product to be described and gives an indication of its market value without requiring physical presentation. This necessitates buyers requesting minimum facilities, production areas, quantities and specifications as a requirement of purchase. The result is a particular demand (and often shortages) of good quality produce of defined specifications and approved varieties. EU phytosanitary standards and compliance are also becoming more important for both buyers and producers who wish to ensure their own acceptance as a EU licensed supplier and protect their legal rights. It is becoming increasingly difficult to sell products at the Council of Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA) level standards.

Very few buyers are able to cope with a wide range of product specifications. Yet many producer groups aim to sell a wide range of members produce, as well as to supply other services, such as machinery, chemicals or credit. These groups have considerable difficulty in ensuring a consistent quality of marketed produce or a clear brand image. In Western Europe producers have normally formed new groups that are specialised in particular commodities that are targeted at specific markets. Producer members are then contracted to supply 100% of a particular crop to the group according to a defined specification. In CEE assurance of quality produce and supplies would significantly strengthen the negotiating position of producers but few will commit 100% of their production to a group or sign membership agreements.

These agreements are important because they specify which types, qualities and quantities of produce will be marketed or bought through the group and which will not. They ensure that members are committed to using their group facilities or services for a minimum period, provide a continuity of supply to customers and ensure the protection of members in their relationship with the group and between each other. It is the responsibility of the producer members to ensure that membership agreements are enforced. Failure by a member to sign this renewable agreement normally excludes them from membership of the group and enables committed members to retain control. Enforced agreements provide much greater confidence between members in the group and also in negotiations with third parties.

It is difficult to convince buyers to sign contractual agreements with a producer group when the group members do not sign enforceable agreements between themselves. A lack of clear product commitment to a defined standard also creates a potential risk of competition between the group

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10 Normally by signing a membership agreement each year to commit their produce.
and its members. To ensure supply many groups in CEE now tend to allow a high percentage of non-member trade. This undermines both the negotiating position of the group and the value of membership.

In CEE, lower grade production remains the largest percentage of produce traded through groups and buyer negotiations are often limited to commodity spot prices rather than added value supplies based around long term contractual agreements. Clearly defined operational procedures for quality control and agreed product specifications and standards are rare and products are often difficult to trace to individual producers. Further consideration needs to be given to using independent advisers and laboratories for product testing and the development of quality programmes, particularly in relation to EU standards and programmes such as HACCP.11

Systems need to be developed that will allow member payments to be based on clearly defined qualitative and quantitative differences, rather than on average prices. New progressive pricing mechanisms might also be considered that offer a base price, plus a premium price for agreed quality standards, rather than on average prices. This enables quality improvements to be made. A focus on continuous quality improvements and the development of operational and quality control procedures, crop specifications and standards should allow a group to develop a regional and brand identity underwritten by audited standards and inspections of production, distribution and marketing processes and member farms and either tested by the group or by using independent facilities.

This also requires varieties to be further standardised. Some groups are already beginning to specialise by limiting the numbers of crop or livestock varieties with which they trade and to differentiate themselves from their competitors. Successful groups will need to further focus on added value activity, target specific market niches and develop unique selling points and production based around local or regional varieties and brands.

3.4 Group finance and investment

Although there are considerable regional differences, it is perhaps not surprising that, as a rule, low-density rural areas, especially poorer ones, are inherently unattractive places to make investments. Even so a commercial farm requires a higher capitalisation strategy than a subsistence enterprise and needs to be relatively sophisticated and well funded to become involved in agricultural technology development and transfer. Across CEE the off-farm costs of post harvest facilities, marketing and promotional activities are increasingly likely to become important factors in determining whether or not producers maintain viable production businesses. This will mean that producers will increasingly be faced with additional costs over and above those of basic production.

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11 Hazard Analysis Critical Control Points.
An important measure of the competitiveness of holdings will be shown by the degree of investment into the modernisation of buildings and equipment and the extent of diversification into added value activities. Added value post harvest activity\textsuperscript{12} will enable producers to have a closer involvement in marketing activities, but raising such finance will be difficult for most individual producers to realise.

Although it has improved considerably in recent years, the financing of agricultural and rural enterprises is still a concern in many transition economies. Capital for productive assets requires time to accumulate. Land prices are generally low and as such agricultural mortgage banks still do not work well. Long-term credit is often lacking and public and semi public loan guarantees have become popular. New financial institutions are often managerially weak financially vulnerable and they provide less support to enterprise development in rural compared to urban areas.

Problems in accessing credit and finance constrain productivity and although countries such as Hungary and Poland are comparatively well advanced, for most transition economies the problem of ensuring long-term inward investments into rural areas\textsuperscript{13} has still not been entirely solved. Banks and other external investors are generally reluctant to provide funding where little security is available or to new producer groups with little track record and experience.\textsuperscript{14} In an attempt to solve these problems, the World Bank and other donors have gradually shifted their lines of credit away from banks and more towards the creation of interim but sustainable non-bank intermediaries such as finance companies, savings and credit associations and other NGOs.\textsuperscript{15}

Even so, a large percentage of the capital needed to fund rural enterprises will still need to come from within the rural community. Producer groups and rural organizations could play an important role in facilitating this, but in the past most have relied on their privileged access to markets and to external sources of funds and state guarantees to finance their operations. In the long term only economically viable groups can guarantee adequate support to their members and producers and rural communities in CEE will need to learn not only how to manage and control their groups effectively, but also how to finance them.

A close positive relationship exists between the degree of financial and product commitment by members to their organization and the level and quality of member participation in decision-making and improved business performance. Well-managed and economically viable groups that provide valued member services, usually have little problem in mobilising investment funds. Yet across CEE, a major problem is a lack of confidence amongst producers and group members that any investments into their group will benefit them. There is a need to focus on the principle of user benefits that show that capital contributions clearly outweigh the costs. This will require changes in corporate governance, including considerations regarding transparency, accountability, customer orientation, automation of information systems, competitive recruitment and business training of management and members.

When considering how to fund their activities groups will also need to comply with the particular requirements of their legal status. Normally members contribute finance through an initial capital contribution (joining fees, shares or other capital contributions), loans, maintaining an account balance, savings deposits, or retained surplus earnings (reserves). Initial funding has to be sufficient to cover the costs of establishing the group and to finance capital expenditure. Subsequent running costs (staff wages, telephones, electricity, consumables etc.) normally form the basis of member charges.\textsuperscript{16} Charges have to be set realistically to ensure all costs are covered

Charges can be set out annually in advance and allocated to individual members against the sales value of a product, (or as a cost per tonne or other unit of measurement) sold on their behalf and

\textsuperscript{12} Such as, cereal storage and drying facilities, processing, sorting, storage or chilling of fruits and vegetables, livestock or milk collection and transport.
\textsuperscript{13} Nowadays in the region credit interest subsidies are the only facility generally institutionalised and at state budget expense
\textsuperscript{14} Particularly where there are no binding agreements on members to supply production to the group and there are no forward contracts with buyers.
\textsuperscript{15} Depending on the regulatory framework in each country.
\textsuperscript{16} Plus a contingency factor and provision for potential bad debts.
through the group. In some cases the group may never actually buy the product from the member or the supplier. Produce is sold, or inputs purchased, on behalf of producer members and the full sales price is returned to, or paid by, members, less the agreed charges for the services provided. Charges can be based on sales projections but they do have to be set at a realistic level in order to cover all costs. Charges can always be adjusted at the end of the financial year to reflect the actual costs of providing the service and refunds can be made. It is far better to be able to return extra cash to members at the end of the year rather than to request higher payments.

This approach provides full transparency of all transactions through the group because members are informed about how much has been deducted from their payments to finance activities and investments. The group is obliged to maintain records of the cumulative capital contributions of each member and to provide them with some sort of share certificate acknowledging this contribution.

The most pressing constraints on farm, and non-farm, business activities in rural areas are liquidity and access to short and medium term capital. In market economies, this is usually provided through forward contracts or informal lending but in CEE delayed payments are generally more widespread and working capital has to be more often secured through bank overdrafts. Solutions for these problems need to be sought in the emergence of institutional innovations, such as contracting between suppliers and processors, that help to facilitate the adoption of technology and access to credits and leasing, not only of land but also equipment and machinery. These institutional innovations have already been quite successful in the most advanced CEE countries and groups have an important role to play.

Although different types of groups will require different types of finance, producers in CEE will also become increasingly aware of the need to provide funds for long-term capital investments, particularly for added value activities. To finance new capital investments (transport, equipment, buildings etc.) a popular method for raising the necessary capital is through the deferment of year-end bonus payments to members or through retaining a percentage of the sales value of a commodity delivered by the member. These methods are both useful mechanisms for ensuring that members receive charges and benefits in accordance with their use of their group and its facilities. Most producers are comfortable with the transparency and simplicity of the approach, although both have the affect of raising overall charges to members.

Groups can also raise capital, either through, the collection of additional share or loan capital from their members, or by obtaining a bank loan to finance it. Loans are normally paid back later by members through increasing in their charges. In CEE however most producers tend to make small capital injections to their group at intermittent intervals, rather than to commit any significant loan. Few reserve or trust funds have been established and this may reflect the lack of liquidity of many producer members as well as their level of confidence in groups.

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### Group finance and investment

**Possible areas of intervention for technical assistance:**

- Promoting the creation of sustainable non-bank intermediaries, finance companies, savings and credit associations
- Assisting in creating revolving funds
- Mobilizing own capital contributions from producers and rural communities based on group principles of user benefits, defined levy charges and financial transparency
- Strengthening commercial group activity
- Promoting institutional and financial innovations between producers and suppliers
- Introducing special credit or grant schemes that are based on own capital contributions and signed membership agreements to trade defined produce
- Considering preferential credits for specific post harvest group investments and in accordance with EU agreements
- Considering special finance possibilities for subsidising accounting services, legal costs or the costs of employing a manager in newly established groups
- Identifying under-utilised buildings or meeting rooms and making them available to producer or rural community groups at little or no cost
- Providing training and advisory support in planning and finance
It is normally faster and easier for most groups to obtain a bank loan rather than to collect money in small amounts from members. Secure bank funding at the outset speeds up project implementation and once an investment is completed members have the opportunity to see the concrete outcome of an investment before paying for it. External financing also offers a new means of outside control over the group and puts pressure on management towards improved capital investments and effective management.

However it is largely counterproductive for financial investors to take a shareholding in a group because financial surpluses from activities should be returned to members in proportion with trade through the group. The capital commitment in this case is the amount of inputs purchased through the group, rather than the financial shareholding. Control and benefits normally need to reflect this and are fundamental to the activities of groups of this kind. Capital investments in a producer group by any individual member should allow the member access the services of the group but should not signify a degree of control or provide an opportunity to benefit from capital growth, dividends or indeed interest.

Increasingly in CEE groups it will become important to ensure that membership agreements, as well as byelaws, clearly outline that any investments into the group, or benefits received through the group, will be related to the use of group by individual producers. Internal rules need to ensure that shares and loans always remain at their initial value, surpluses are allocated to members in accordance with the charges paid by each individual member during the year and any payments made, or surpluses retained by the group into a reserve are allocated in accordance with charges paid or the usage of services/facilities. These provisions will ensure that members who are committed to using the products and services of the group benefit from them.

3.5 Group legislation, taxation and subsidies

In market-oriented democracies, co-operative and group legislation is a part of the wider legal framework that covers a range of privately owned Organizations. Most are able to develop their activities in a largely autonomous manner and without over detailed legal directives on how they are managed. At present there is no European co-operative statute and legislation exists in different forms in different countries. Spain and Germany have a general co-operative law that regulates all types of co-operatives. Other countries have specific co-operative chapters as part of the civil, commercial (Belgium), or rural code (France). Britain has made a special provision under company law while Denmark has not passed any special legislation at all on co-operatives. At the other extreme, Italy and Spain include specific provisions on cooperatives in the national constitution. Several countries (such as Belgium and France) have established a national council on co-operation (or similar Organization) as an advisory agency to the Government.

17 In fact it may be preferable that no (or minimal) interest payments are made on any form of members investment, since any such costs would only have to be borne by members in members charges. Since both investment and charges relate to usage, members would effectively be paying increased members charges in order to pay themselves interest.
18 Or in the event of liquidation less than par if there are insufficient funds to enable such a distribution to be made.
19 Where the Organization has acted as an agent (i.e. sold produce on behalf of members but not taken ownership), then repayments of all or part of the surplus can be made before any requirement to allocate funds to specific reserves.
20 Excluding reserves required under statute and under national legislation.
21 Provision should be made for reserves to be repaid to members on cessation of membership or group liquidation and will be subject to adjustment for balance sheet valuations.
22 Although a statute for a European co-operation is due to be submitted in the near future for adoption by the Council of Ministers.
In recent years the main changes to co-operative legislation in Western Europe have originated from a desire to grant co-operatives sufficient flexibility to adapt to increasingly competitive business environments but without abandoning co-operative principles and democratic control. On the whole contemporary co-operative legislation in Western Europe has got closer to general company law. Most co-operative new laws and amendments adopted during the 1990s have enabled new forms of capital mobilization (e.g. France 1992 and Germany 1994) that allow co-operatives to raise equity on the capital markets but determine voting right ceilings to prevent non-member investors from gaining managerial control. Several new laws also allowed co-operatives to convert into other forms of company (e.g. Sweden 1987 and Germany 1994).

Elaborating similar legal, administrative and institutional frameworks for co-operatives in former centrally planned economies has proved to be even more of a challenge. While virtually all new co-operative laws adopted during the last decade have restricted the hitherto all-embracing role of Government in co-operative affairs to purely statutory functions (such as registration, dissolution and liquidation), many have been formulated under great time pressure and are still not always fully adapted to local conditions.

In most CEE countries producer groups can register as associations, co-operatives or companies with limited liability. Co-operative legislation can be found in different forms. A general co-operative law (such as in Hungary) regulating all types of co-operatives is the most common form, but some countries, (such as Romania), have separate laws for special types of co-operatives or have developed specific chapters of the civil and commercial codes (Czech Republic).

Even so, producers in CEE often do not know the best form of registration for their group. In most countries limited liability structures are normally the most commercially effective. Important issues, such as product commitment to a group are often not adequately addressed. Many groups are therefore registered under less commercially appropriate association or co-operative laws simply because they allow tax exceptions or less rigorous accounting and administrative procedures to be adopted.

Further legislative energy needs to be devoted to developing co-operative and company legislation that allows for a diversity of organizational structures. The status of individuals (or farms) within a group and the form of trade agreements between them will need to be considered and recognition given to produce commitment as the main form of capital contribution and control. Greater participation of farmers and rural communities during policy and law making may be helpful and the use of consultation campaigns, local and national workshops and the establishment of law reform and consultative committees need to be considered. A participatory approach may be time consuming but it ensures a wider acceptance of new national policies and legislation.

Clearly company and co-operative legislation across CEE will further evolve and reflect changes in social, political and economic conditions, but probably of even greater importance will be the need for producers and rural communities to become more convinced that new co-operative forms really are emerging. Throughout the region group development seemingly cannot be divorced from wider economic, historical, political and social considerations and an underlying feeling still exists that group registration of any kind will lead to problems of taxation or difficulties in management and administration.

The result is that many group activities are often informal (hidden or illegal). Producers and rural entrepreneurs often prefer to maintain loose agreements between themselves and not to officially register their group or set up a bank account. Yet without these sources of income a large

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23 In particular to further encourage legally enforceable membership agreements that are signed by all individual members for a defined period and setting out the obligations and commitment of both the group to the members and members to the group.
proportion of rural society would be in severe difficulty. Governments need to further promote a socio-cultural context that values entrepreneurship and to assist groups and enterprises to join the formal sector. In CEE an even more positive and open attitude towards the informal enterprise sector has to replace the more prevalent tendency to over-regulate and control. Challenges to rural groups and entrepreneurs are often unnecessarily thwarted by legislation and regulations that simply increase cost.

Co-operatives and similar business structures should operate and compete on equal terms with other forms of business enterprise and not require specific privileges. Probably the only exemption to this principle is taxation on financial surpluses. Because they derive their surplus primarily from trading with their own members they should not need to maximize their “profit” in the same way as other forms of business enterprise. Equally it is not entirely justifiable to tax a surplus that is already taxed at individual member level. In Western Europe this principle of ‘mutuality’ is well recognized and taxation is only payable on profits arising from transactions with non-members. Percentage ceilings are normally established on the amount of non-member trade allowable and above which no tax exemption is granted.

In CEE taxation on group activity varies enormously and in some cases to an extreme that individual producers are exempt from tax in certain areas but registered producer group activity is not. This effectively restrains innovative and added value post-harvest group activities. Tax rebates based on patronage have to be further considered and based around the operations of a group with its members. If innovative and added value group activity and capital formation is also to be stimulated it will also be important to allow groups to set up tax exempted reserves from their internally generated surpluses. This would enable funds to be set aside to meet future investments needs.

The provision of grant aid is often seen as a way of stimulating the development of new, or of strengthening existing groups. Some CEE countries maintain their own aid programmes (such as Hungary) and provide some funds towards the establishment and working capital costs of producer groups and yet in the EU there are few subsidies or grant aided programmes specifically supporting the development of producer groups. Generally they are able to access regional aid in the same way as other businesses and community groups. However, in CEE the strength of the producer owned sector is relatively weak and group development is two or more decades behind the EU. Indeed, measures within SAPARD have been used to stimulate new producer group development.

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24 With the exception of regulation (EC) 951/97. This permits further support to producer group investments for the improvement of the processing and marketing of agricultural products.
Subsidies need to be considered selectively and groups should not simply be viewed as channels for providing concessional financial assistance to rural areas, but as facilitators to enabling farmers organizations and rural communities to play more active roles. It is important that help is given to those who are prepared to help themselves and grant aid should not be perceived as a major source of capital. In the long term it is better for groups to follow best custom and practice that ensure member benefits rather than short-term arrangements established solely to comply with grant aid requirements. It is far better if members own contributions amount to a significant part of total capital requirements.

Even so, capital and research investment grant support, targeted and preferential credits for the development of joint facilities or more innovative schemes (such as partly covering the costs of employing a professional manager, legal adviser or financial accountant), particularly during the early years of group development, can help to stimulate group development. However, this will only work if the groups themselves are properly structured and managed.

4. Supporting the development of producer groups and farmer cooperatives

4.1 Institutional strengthening of extension, education and infrastructure

The adoption of new and more liberal cooperative laws over the past decade has been accompanied by a sharp decline in the number of government officials responsible for cooperatives. But it is still important to ensure that national policy messages on producer group development are consistent and clear and disseminated through a professional and well-trained extension network that uses simple and straightforward guides and avoids ponderous legal terms and philosophical arguments.

Reforms of government structures at national, regional and local levels have often lagged behind the revised legislation. Although structures are, at least in mandate and shape, the same as democratic and market-oriented economies, the gap in their development and experience is considerable. Substantial reforms have been needed in practically all institutional areas required for market-oriented agriculture, including consultancy, training, research, NGO and group development, social service and infrastructure provision. In particular this has been the case in regions where former co-operative farms have been dismantled and there is a shortage of private or public sector service providers.

Many old representative federations and organizations still survive and operate, although they have been reformed under new conditions to a greater or lesser extent. At the same time a number of new organizations have emerged, but they are often isolated, relatively weak at advocacy, have poor access to networks or lack understanding of the public policy process. There is a need for such associations to provide quantifiable membership benefits, such as the provision of services for maintaining and regularly disseminating basic reference material on major buyers of agricultural produce and statistical data of market trends rather than solely offering political representation.

COPA and COGECA25, with financial support from the EU Phare programme, have undertaken a comprehensive study with an aim of identifying national representative organizations of farmers, agricultural cooperatives and young farmers across CEE. This work has helped to initiate contacts and exchange views in support of agricultural organizations preparing for EU accession.

In most CEE countries new agricultural extension services have been established and they range from fully publicly funded to partially and fully privatised services. As demand grows, recurrent expenses are a problem. Producers and the wider rural community are rarely consulted during

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25 The European associations for national producer co-operative organizations and their farmer members.
the design, management or evaluation of research, training, information or advisory services. Also, since NGOs, associations and civil society organizations are also at a developmental or transitional stage, most governments remain reluctant to deal with them.

Throughout CEE rapid transformation has required the acquisition of many new technical skills and the adoption of different approaches to management but many producers and managers have struggled to adapt. There are huge differences in efficiency between farms and the organizations supporting them. Yet, successful producers and entrepreneurs are able to utilise effective external advisory services, integrate with buyers or suppliers to solve marketing or supply problems and if necessary, organise groups. In most cases they go through a continuous learning process that follows their experience of managing a business. Over time they become better informed about their true knowledge and abilities. Supportive advisory, training, research and information services need to reflect this.

In recent years CEE governments have either reduced support for long-term agricultural research or, more dynamic commercial research companies have taken-over the provision of such support. These companies often develop international linkages. Producer groups should be well placed to play an active role in exposing their members to new technologies and disseminating experience from trials and research. There should be opportunities for producers to be more actively involved in important research programmes, in particular those aimed at improving the overall quality of products. Closer links need to be also developed between groups and research institutions and universities.

Local government can also help in facilitating meetings by providing meeting rooms at little or no cost or even by providing post harvest facilities for group trade activities. Government also has a particular influence on rural development through the types of infrastructure that are made available. A minimum level of efficiently functioning infrastructure is necessary to enable farm and non-farm activities to develop and thrive. Improved access to rural areas opens up potential

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26 Such as former state owned, creameries, grain or vegetable storage facilities.
new markets, improves the viability of rural service activities and introduces higher levels of competition. The provision of public services and infrastructure to rural areas is also the key to attracting and promoting SME development.

In the past development policies across CEE were primarily focused on urban industrial centres and poor infrastructure is now commonly raised as a constraint to the development of rural areas. In the EU few rural based enterprises would expect to operate without access to modern telecommunications and Internet use is now seen as a necessary feature of modern life and commerce. Yet, in some regions of CEE, not only telecommunication systems but also roads, and even basic services such as water supply and sewage systems are not well developed. In some regions only 1/3rd of rural settlements have household and production wastewater collection systems and in some villages wastewater is not treated at all.

Former collective farms provided frameworks not only for agricultural production but they also contributed resources to rural social services. A lack of adequate social safety nets and education opportunities are clearly areas in which increased investment and further attention are still needed in CEE. It is tempting to believe that new or reformed self help groups and co-operatives can help to develop these areas. However, most existing or new groups are either financially unable or commercially reluctant to get involved in areas for which the state is still expected to take the leading role. Few private/public partnerships exist and the role of community groups and rural enterprise in social development and welfare programmes is still not adequately addressed either within national and regional rural development policies or within the local communities themselves.

The availability of a set of basic social welfare programmes is a vital building block in the rural development process. Rural areas also tend to be less well protected by the social safety net and less subject to employment protection than their urban counterparts. Rural labour markets tend to be thin and with a small number of employers often in remote areas. Potential supply is often in excess of demand and many rural workers are involved in low wage and not easily tradableskills areas.

Educational and training institutions at all levels (primary, secondary, tertiary and adult) have a responsibility to ensure that rural people have the capacities and skills necessary to contribute to, and be rewarded for, the development of their own community. Insufficient education or skills not only constrain enterprise management improvements and adjustments to a market economy, but also the emergence of new rural businesses and the opportunity for unemployed workers and underemployed labour on farms to take up alternative jobs. Management improvements will have a major impact on the average productivity levels of the agricultural sector and hence profitability and income. Investments in improving education will also encourage young and skilled people to stay in rural areas.

Young producers and rural entrepreneurs need to be especially targeted for regional and local training programmes and consideration needs to be given to introducing cooperative management topics into the higher education curriculum and agricultural colleges. Key national and regional training centres and consultants also need to be identified and encouraged to become more involved in the development of materials and in the training of trainers and extension advisers.

4.2 Areas, approaches and methodologies for advisory services

The challenge for CEE advisers is to help in developing competitive agricultural and rural based business enterprises and to provide support services that are arranged to fit the complexities of new realities.

The demand for proper project feasibility studies, planning, marketing and development of added value activity is still not totally addressed and advice on group development is often inconsistent, contradictory or confused. Much advice has focused simply on registering a group and preparing a statute. Advisers can play a more proactive role by facilitating and not dictating planning
meetings for group directors and encouraging cross fertilisation of ideas between groups. Advisers may also help producers and groups to reflect on long standing problems and consider their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats, short and long term objectives, activities, membership agreements and operational procedures. Specially trained organisers living in project areas might also encourage producers and rural communities to further develop group decision-making and self-reliance skills.

The training and consulting services market has developed rapidly. Courses are offered by private and state companies and in recent years CEE farmers have shown a greater motivation towards acquiring more qualifications and skills. However, there is still potential for better planning of production, marketing and financial analyses. Training, advisory and information support services remain primarily focused on the technological and production aspects of agriculture and many CEE advisers have narrow specialist fields in technical areas which makes it difficult for them to advise in a more comprehensive manner and on broader topics. Less attention is given to the wider aspects of human resource or management development and there is a particular need to improve business training emphasising the commercial aspects of producer group development. In CEE increasing commercialisation and integrated linkages are inhibited not only by insufficient support institutions and information, but also by inappropriate management capacity and knowledge. Entrepreneurial ability and management skills often seem to play a bigger role than capital constraints in farm and non-farm commercialisation.

Basic and advanced vocational training needs to be available to producers who wish to improve their expertise in business management, technology or new production processes. Those who intend to leave farming need training in new vocational skills. By ensuring that people have the appropriate skills they have a better chance to lead a productive life. There is a particular need to improve training and educational programmes that cover communication skills, motivation, creativity and specific technical areas that include, marketing, team building, meetings, negotiation techniques, presentation skills, financial planning and administration, producer group registration, legislation and taxation, membership agreements, buyer contracts, quality assurance, sampling and testing methods and procedures, construction and management of post harvest facilities (particularly technologies for storage) handling, drying, cleaning, grading and packing of product, EU standards and directives, credit applications and the SAPARD programme.

So in summary…….. how can effective farmer cooperation be stimulated in a way that will provide real and measurable benefits to farmer members and rural communities?

Ultimately, successful cooperation will depend upon local initiatives, individual motivations, consensus and voluntary participation. Bottom-up approaches are shown to bring dynamism to
local development by stimulating new thinking, promoting the exchange of ideas and securing the available resources and people. To move marginalized members of society from oppressive dependency structures, active participation by all potential beneficiaries in the change process is desirable.

Most commercially successful producer groups seem to have been formed on the basis of very simple, clear, predictable, measurable business and market objectives. They develop reliable open links with suppliers and buyers and constantly adapt their structures, management and operations in relation to competitive challenges. They develop long-term objectives in response to changing circumstances. There is a need for competent and convincing management of both enterprise and member related aspects of a group. This is for them to show they are financially independent, accountable and have broad based support. Managing a group also requires transparency and appropriate administrative and financial reporting procedures to be employed. Proper business plans to be prepared, monitored, updated and amended as required.

Without a strong elected leadership and a core base of like-minded producer members working to ensure its success, groups are likely to fail. Members need to be committed to using the facilities and services of their group. Control needs to be in the hands of those that are most committed. This may be expressed either by the amount of product supplied to a group of a defined quality or the amount of product purchased or service use.

It is a challenging and demanding task to conceive, design, build and nurture this type of operation. It takes time, patience and a vision normally expressed, at least initially, only by a small number of optimistic and motivated farmers able to drive an idea forward and communicate effectively with farmers, suppliers and buyers.

**So how can Government and other support organisations further facilitate the process?**

Many farmers will respond to this question by saying that the Government and other support organizations can facilitate the process through the provision of subsidies and (cheap) credit, reducing bureaucracy, protecting domestic market interests and reducing taxation. (But they also need time to mobilise their resources and in order to respond to the pressures of competitive markets). Some activities may be best developed simply by co-ordinating and linking up people i.e. farmers with other farmers as well as with buyers, suppliers, research institutions, advisers and Government. Most groups are also faced with a lack of management skills, particularly during their early years of development. Some may not know the best form of registration or how to maintain proper records. Others have difficulties in accessing markets simply because they lack information on where, or to whom, they should market their produce.

Few have adequate access to assistance that enables them to carry out a situation analysis on their own terms, trace their own path or generate innovations without being over burdened with inappropriate models or dogma. There is a need to further promote participatory approaches, methods of extension and train trainers in methodologies aimed at stimulating further teamwork amongst farmers and rural communities. Rarely are farmers consulted during the design, management or evaluation of research, training, information, advisory service or donor programmes. As a result key issues may be missed or training inappropriately designed. Proper participatory surveys prior to project implementation, allow straightforward advice to be provided and technical and managerial guides to be designed around farmer questions and concerns which avoid ponderous legal terms and academic or philosophical arguments.

Advisers can also play a proactive role by facilitating but not dictating planning meetings for group directors and encouraging cross fertilisation of ideas between groups. They may help groups to reflect on long standing problems and to consider their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats, short and long term objectives, activities, membership agreements and operational
procedures. Specially trained organisers living in project areas might also encourage producers and rural communities to further develop group decision-making and self-reliance skills.

Short, regular, practical and participative training workshops, demonstrations, shows and exhibitions are preferred and include technical topics of specific farmer interest, such as the availability of new animal and plant breeds, production and post harvest technologies as well as management and marketing issues. Buyers, suppliers, local media and technology companies can be encouraged to contribute, provide advice and exchange ideas. Methods of operation and management of groups are often very different and specific case studies and exchanges of knowledge and experiences between leaders from different regions and countries are useful. Training also needs to be supported by technical handbooks and brochures on these topics and on producer organizations generally. Greater use could also be made of multi-media technologies in order to disseminate information and training materials and local media and technology companies should be encouraged to lend their support.

More specific assistance is required on certain types of group and how they work, such as machinery rings, marketing or input supply groups. Methods of operation and management for different products and groups are often very different and specific case studies and exchanges of knowledge and experiences between leaders from different regions and countries would be very useful. Developing such networks would considerably help the dissemination of practical examples of grassroots activities.

Better buyer and supplier links can also be encouraged if regular meetings are organised to discuss topics such as the availability of new animal and plant breeds, production and post harvest technologies. The establishment of buyer/producer clubs or trade chambers would help in strengthening relationships between producers and buyers. Not only these clubs provide market and research information but they also help in organising meetings and seminars, in providing macro-scale policy advice and in arbitrating in the case of conflict. Possibilities would also exist for later linking these groups to Internet based trading systems.

Advisers will be most effective when working with producers who have already clearly identified a market or business opportunity and are prepared to commit product and time to make it work. Support is best provided to leading farmers or small visionary working groups that are capable of driving ideas forward and are able to communicate effectively with producers, buyers and suppliers. Usually the first steps to forming a producer group are local meetings and informal discussions between key producers. After these initial meetings a more structured and informed approach needs to be taken and a programme of action prepared. A small working group is normally sufficient for evaluating various options and preparing a business proposition for examination by other producers.

It is useful for advisers to occasionally attend director meetings as a non-voting observer and to record minutes and the decisions taken. Specific advice is also often required when introducing administrative systems that monitor and control the sales of produce pooled between members. Direct support can also be provided by advisers in providing trade and institutional contacts, encouraging or facilitating the creation of trade agencies and/or buyer and producer forums and in providing information on sources of equipment and new technologies.

If well targeted and carefully determined, grants can help to further stimulate group development. However, they need to be considered selectively and primary help needs to be given to those who are prepared to help themselves including member own financial contributions and support to clear well thought through plans and operational programmes. Groups not be simply viewed by producers, advisers, donors or policy makers as a way of supporting inefficient and non-viable farms or other rural businesses.

27 Such as for cereals pricing.
However, supporting and developing producer groups and other rural organizations throughout Central and Eastern Europe should not be seen as a miracle cure for all the problems that beset rural areas. It is important that groups are not simply viewed by producers, advisers, donors or policy makers as a way of supporting inefficient and non-viable farms or other rural businesses. Producers should not have to rely on governments to stimulate their growth, but in CEE they do need time to mobilize their resources, build their strength and managerial capacities and learn to cope with the pressures of competitive markets. Governments, donors and advisers can only help to facilitate this process through well-targeted and participative, advisory, training and information support.

Inappropriate external intervention will discourage the growth of groups. Over-allocation of external experts, specialist missions, volunteers and administrators tend to inhibit the reflection process by crowding-in external models and innovations. In some cases the producer operates from a position of junior partner and the agenda remains firmly with the researcher, extensionist or donor. If a producer group is to be assisted, the aim must be to facilitate reflection by the group itself.

The process of development begins when producers themselves begin to assess the importance of a problem and whether it can be solved. There is a need to further promote participatory approaches and methods of extension and train trainers and extension advisers in participative methodologies aimed at stimulating further teamwork amongst farmers and rural communities.

The real impact of any support will ultimately depend on the willingness and commitment of farmers and rural communities to develop and continually improve their own jointly organised activities. In particular they need to simplify their own rules and procedures, introduce payments based on commitment and quality improvements, discourage trade with non-members, enforce standard for production and marketing, provide full financial and management transparency, de-politicise activities whilst enabling a dialogue with government representatives.
PART TWO

A Technical Assistance Case Study

5. Development assistance to livestock farmer groups in the mountainous areas of the Sandzak region, Serbia

5.1 Project objective and resources

The overall objective of the project (outlined in the project document signed in 2002 between the Minister for International Economic Relations for the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and the Director General of the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations and following a project identification mission by FAO in November 2001) was to assist in facilitating the gradual economic recovery of the agricultural sector by revitalising and developing livestock production for farmers in the different agro-ecological situations in the mountainous regions. In particular the project was designed to strengthen farmers self-reliance, but also to maximise cooperative relationships whilst assisting in working towards the regions overall economic recovery.

Specifically it was expected that the project would:

- Establish cooperatives of livestock producers in the most isolated, backward and poorest areas of Sjenica, Tutin and Prijepole and encourage these producers to progress and develop into more viable commercial businesses
- Establish livestock breeders associations as well as producer and marketing groups over the whole of the Sandzak region, incorporating highland areas and valleys and establishing linkages with other organisations
- Provide a limited amount of farm equipment and quality cattle semen with the aim of improving the technical and managerial expertise of farmers

The inception report more concisely stated its aim as being to improve the overall household incomes within the poorer and more isolated communities of the Sandzak region with a main focus on cattle and sheep and to a lesser extent other livestock. The project was initially designed to last for two years and effectively started in July 2003. It had a total budget value of 1 million USD, funded by the Government of the Netherlands. A part-time international project manager and 8 months of international specialist time were available to the project as well as backstopping support from FAO in Belgrade and Rome. A full time national project manager, a farmer group coordinator, a livestock specialist and three regional coordinators as well as short-term specialist inputs were also made available.

5.2 A background to the Sandzak region

Around 100,000 people live in the Prijepolje, Sjenica and Tutin municipalities of the Sandzak region of Serbia. Approximately 60% live in rural areas. In total there are around 275 villages and around 50% of farmers in the region are Bosniak – Serbian (Muslim) and 50% orthodox Serbian (Christian). Percentages range and from 17.6% Bosniak — Serbian in the Prijepolje municipality to 93% in the Tutin municipality. Sandzak is a mountainous area with one of the highest levels of poverty, rural depopulation and aging in Serbia. The average overall age of the population in the region is above 40 years and with children and very old farmers making up a very large segment of this population. Average family size is 5 to 6 members and with an average daily income per head (in cash terms) of less than US$1 per day. The project area is shown in the following map.
In the past, socially owned Kombinat enterprises within each municipality dominated livestock production. At their peak they each covered up to 4,000 hectares and managed up to 12,000 sheep and equally impressive numbers of cattle. However, they deteriorated significantly during the 1990s and today most of their land lies unproductive with outdated equipment. They await national settlement of ownership and disposal.

Today the majority of the population are subsistence farmers with smallholdings of less than 10 cows or 20 sheep grazing on their own land or on communally accessible grazing land and using traditional farming practices. Average farm size is about 10 hectares of owned meadow and pastureland (mostly of unimproved quality). Arable land is limited to some 1 ha and usually split into smaller parcels. The region was relatively fortunate to have maintained these private farms throughout a period of collectivisation but the decline of the Kombinats was also of concern to them since livestock remains the mainstay of farm income and acts as a safety net for many vulnerable families. Kombinat decline impacted negatively on animal quality standards territorially and cut off the supply of raw material that fuelled the commensurate-sized agro-industrial processing factories that supplied national and export markets for meat, milk, wool, hides and skins. Additional difficulties also arose in providing adequate feed and veterinary care across the region.

Livestock numbers declined in response to reduced marketing opportunities for animal product sales through the Kombinats. This was compounded by the loss of markets in neighbouring countries and preferential market access to Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA) countries as well as competition on Eastern European markets from third country subsidised meat exports. These trends were further exacerbated by poor corn crops and animal feed shortages. Efforts to reduce costs, through selling breeding stock, lowering fertiliser and chemical use or reduced repairs and maintenance of tractors and equipment resulted in a downward spiral in livestock and machinery inventories. There was also an accompanying drop in annual productive output. Increasingly people (mainly youths) migrated from farms to larger towns in search of work.

However, livestock production often remains the only enterprise possible in the mountains and the sole activity and source of income for the farming families. Natural conditions in the mountainous areas favour extensive livestock farming. Cattle and sheep farming predominates. This allows access to dairy, meat and other products for household consumption. Excess products can be sold or barter traded with neighbours.

Cattle types and quality vary markedly across the Sandzak region. They range from the Simmentals through various crossbred dairy types of different size and colour to the indigenous Busha. A calf a year is normal. Milk yields are low (1,000-1,500 litres/cow), due to poor animal nutrition and the predominance of the native Busha cattle crossed with Simmental. Sheep are
Winter in the Sandjak Region

much more uniform in type and size than cattle. Lambing is in the 100% range with minimum losses experienced (3%). Offspring are normally sold from three months of age. The traditional Pirot and Pramenka sheep are well adapted to the local conditions and can be crossed with European breeds.

Generally animals are fed on forage and supplemented by concentrates during the winter. Off-farm inputs to both livestock and crop production are minimal. Artificial fertiliser and chemicals are little used on crop and pasture; crop seed is largely kept from the previous year’s harvest; machinery and technology tends to be functional, old and basic (horse drawn is not uncommon); and the heavy seasonal requirements for labour (mainly manual) is provided by family members and friends.

However, although these are highly vulnerable communities, with access to markets there is a potential for increased livestock production and to raise overall household incomes. Although farmer family and extended family subsistence accounts for a large part of total consumption outside of this, on-farm preparation and sale of soft cheese (mostly collected every three months by an intermediary) and Kajmak generates important cash income from cows and sheep kept on remote mountain pasture. Sale of livestock is another major source of cash, especially those of lambs for the more sheep-dependant mountain farmer.

Distribution of edible farm product from the Sandzak region to outside destinations would appear to pose few logistical problems. Preserved items have lengthy shelf lives and Novi Pazar is the centre for a road distribution network that spans the whole of the former Yugoslavia and beyond. Farmers bring their own products, cheese, dried meat and sausages to their own stalls or sell direct to consumers at weekly produce markets across the region. New private investors are also emerging such as the Tutin and Novy Varos (10 tonne per day) milk processing facilities, the Stilex wool factory in Prejepole as well as small-scale abattoirs/meat processing and preservation operations all of which were unable to obtain the quantities and qualities of raw materials required to enable them to operate at full capacity.

Sandzak farm production is also well known throughout the region. Sjenica soft cheese and lamb is reputed as being the best in the whole of former Yugoslavia. Beef and veal from animals raised on natural alpine grass and hay enjoy a similarly well-deserved reputation. Lamb was formerly sold in Italy, Greece and the Arabian peninsular. Traditional woven wool carpets from the cottage industry used to find a ready market amongst foreign tourists along the Adriatic coast but nowadays farmers reportedly have up to three-years of production in store.

5.3 Participatory project planning

During project inception, a video was prepared about the project and broadcast on local television. Radio interviews were carried out and posters prepared and sited at municipality buildings in villages across the region. Requests were made for all farmers to register for planning events to be held throughout the region. These planning meetings had the objectives of:

- providing information and answers to questions about the FAO project;
- collecting basic information about the project area;
- assessing the socio-economic issues within the communities;
- assessing the main livestock farming development issues;
• preparing basic outlines for future training workshops;
• making a provisional selection of farmer leaders for future cooperation.

Four local consultants were trained in participatory planning techniques and were given the task of obtaining information on socio-economic and farming issues including collecting information on:
• the village structure (ratio women/men/young to old);
• the main decision-making systems and structures;
• existing committees, debating forums or clubs;
• the role of women in decision making;
• main employment/levels of unemployment;
• extent and type of community cooperation;
• the names and types of local fairs/events and celebrations;
• the extent of social cohesion/trust and the main community meeting places;
• average income levels.

Key issues and the general aspirations, perspectives and visions for the future held within the community, such as;
• main production systems – what is produced and how is it produced?
• size of farm (ha), age of farmers and number of persons on farm;
• ownership;
• average income levels and average prices received or main products;
• training or advisory support already received and who from;
• what TV/radio programmes/magazines they read;
• where they go for information and advice and who they trust;
• main buyers and locations.

An participatory assessment of perceived strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) for their households and communities was also made and key issues identified in relation to production, processing and marketing. Ideas and suggestions for solutions were developed for the short and medium term and organisations contacted that would help to solve problems and implement solutions. Information was also to be obtained during the planning events of key farmer leaders in the community, namely possible training issues, the main dates and times for training and the best locations. A survey of village populations across the regions of Sjenica/Prijepolje and Tutin was carried out. The survey comprised of 26 participatory meetings and involved 473 farmers (an average of 18 farmers at each meeting). Only registered participants were allowed to attend the meetings.

Major problems emphasized by farmer participants were the lack of access to markets for products and poor infrastructure, including roads, telephones, water and electricity supplies. However strong concerns were expressed over very low average incomes (and no Government subsidies) meaning that simply travelling to meet people and exchange experience and information was more than most could afford.

It was usual to find more parents working on the farms than sons and daughters. For both the male and female population between 20 – 40 years of age establishing a family in a rural household was perceived as a social and economic problem with low levels of self-esteem, hard manual work, a traditional family role and with little opportunity for development. Social life is limited to family, relatives and close neighbours. There are almost no cultural or social events organised in the villages, in the form of committees, debating forums clubs or traditional events such as dancing, fairs or other forms of social life limiting social contact. For all of these reasons, cohesion, interaction and trust amongst the farming community was believed to have significantly reduced over a few
decades. Most farmers have had no access to professional or practical support or advice on how to improve their farming practices. They have limited access to more general sources of information and news. The most common sources of information for farmers are family members and the close neighbours.

The table below shows the perceived strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) for the households and communities.

### Sandjak livestock producers’ perceived strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats

#### Strengths
- A willingness to update knowledge and skills and a readiness to introduce innovations
- A clear intention of staying on their own farm and continuing to farm
- A large share of a young population (school age)
- An existing farm labour force. (All the family members, usually, work on the farm, including the children)
- A tradition and experience in livestock production and milk and meat processing
- A completed production cycle on the farm, from forage and animal production to processing (cheese, cream, smoked ham)
- Low input costs (own meadows and pastures)
- A potential for increasing production levels and production quality
- Good natural resources, including pastures, fresh water and a largely unpolluted environment

#### Weaknesses
- A lack of information of markets, new technologies and other relevant information
- A misunderstanding of the role of institutions, especially of banks and credit policy
- Unreal expectations for the future (particularly regarding the role of the state)
- A general mistrust of other farmers, state, institutions, traders and international institutions
- Influence from ruling political parties
- Poverty and a lack of capital
- Obsolete and insufficient mechanization
- A low level of realisation of the available production potential
- Non-realised possibilities for discounts on input purchases
- Differing qualities within products of the same type (such as Sjenica cheese)
- Farmer operating individually on the market
- Inappropriate housing of animals
- Traditional farming systems with little change during the last 100 years
- Difficult access to farms during the winter due to snow and ice (winters last for six months)

#### Opportunities
- Effectively exploit the market opportunities of good natural resources and an unpolluted environment
- The presence of international organizations
- A favourable geographical and market location
- Possibilities for tourism development
- High numbers of relatives working abroad (a source of capital and knowledge)
- Possibilities for farmers to organise themselves into effective groups
- Possibilities for product export to Arabic and other countries (as in the past)
- Increasing social status and feelings of self-worth as important motivational factors

#### Threats
- An unstable political situation
- Unfavourable market regulations for the farmers
- No state assistance measures
- Supporting infrastructure in worsening condition
- Increasingly aged population in some villages
- Sex imbalance and problems for the young farmers to find brides
- Dangers from animal disease
- Predators (particularly wolves)
Following these meetings the project team specialists discussed findings and identified priorities for the project to focus on. Following a number of programming meetings a priority action plan was developed and that focused upon the issues described below.

**General Issues**

- Providing farmers with improved technical training and exposure to new ideas
- Enabling farmers improved access to literature on agriculture, livestock breeding, mechanization, trade, marketing and available support funds/institutions (including in written and electronic form and the establishment of information points)
- Improving farmer access to advisory services and technical support
- Further stimulating farmer-owned producer groups/cooperatives
- Providing up to date and current market information (prices/buyers)
- Organising practical demonstrations of specialised farm equipment and agricultural practices
- Organising regular information and discussion meetings with banks, buyers, farmers and advisers
- Encouraging community social events and the establishment of young farmers clubs

**Feed and forage production and mechanisation**

- Assisting in the production of better grass (particularly lucerne and improved grassland species and better use of fertilisers and manure)
- Encouraging the growing of new feed crops (such as maize and cereals)
- Improving hay making systems and grass and maize silage production (including multiple and or timely cutting)
- Encouraging machinery rings to develop (for drilling, harvesting, silage production and snow clearing)

**Animal husbandry**

- Upgrading knowledge of modern forms of animal nutrition, breeding and husbandry (particularly hygiene and animal welfare)
- Making better use of artificial insemination (AI) and selected bulls (natural service)
- Improving the overall productive structure of herds and flocks (particularly through cross breeding)
- Focusing on animal health issues and concerns (particularly identification and treatment of foot rot, mastitis, liver fluke, mange and brucellosis)
- Advising against predators (particularly wolves)

**Marketing and processing**

- Helping to re-establish and strengthen local livestock markets and purchasing stations (particularly in order to better control and promote livestock sales)
- Supporting local agricultural and livestock exhibitions (through advice on management and promotion)
- Further explaining the functioning of markets and the use and role of credit
- Supporting the further standardization, labelling and packaging of products (including branding)
- Improving farmer/buyer linkages (particularly with local dairies, slaughterhouses and wool buyers)
On the basis of this information the consultants developed their programme which focused around four main themes:

- Farmer training and development
- Farmer group development
- In-field technical support (advice, information and linkages)
- Demonstrations and special projects

5.4 Farmer training and development

The international and national consultants prepared a series of practical and specific training workshops for farmers based around the key issues identified during the planning workshops and not developed as a broad educational programme. The training focused on specific areas of forage and feed production, mechanisation, breeding programmes, animal disease, specific aspects of the meat, wool and dairy sectors, including marketing and producer group organisation. These workshops covered a period of nine days in each of the three regions (Sjenica, Prjeploje and Tutin). The nine days were divided into three-day workshops. This allowed participants to stay together overnight and further discuss and develop issues. The overall objective of the workshops was to provide a basic introduction to key areas of livestock production and marketing but also to look at possibilities for sustainable development and possible joint farmer activity.

In total 90 farmers attended these workshops Prijepolje (27 farmers) Sjenica (33 farmers) and Nowy Pazar (30 farmers). A total of 105 persons had been pre-selected during the participatory analyses and specifically invited to attend. Invitations were based on their positive contributions during the participatory planning phase. Training was highly practical and participatory involving power point presentations, video films (including sheep shearing, wool buying and cattle auctions) question and answer and group discussion. It also involved evening group sessions. Trainers included project staff and international consultants as well as representatives from training institutes (such as the Faculty of Agriculture at the University of Belgrade), research institutes (such as the Institute for Forage and Feed Production, Krusevac) as well as buyers and suppliers (including PKB feeds - Belgrade, Proleter wool - Zrenjanin, Vlasnik abattoir – Sjenica and Stilex wool – Prijeploje).

Most of these researchers, specialists, buyers, suppliers and manufacturers had never visited the region before and their involvement before, during and after the training sessions enabled possibilities for ongoing contacts to be established between them and farmer participants. The final session of the training programme involved a general summary discussion and the development of an individual participant action plan. Discussions related to farmer group development/joint activity possibilities in each of their own villages.
No women attended the meetings and separate workshops only for women were held across the project region following a study of their specific interests. Training was specifically provided on milk hygiene, cheese production and woollen handicrafts. In total 80 women attended these events.

5.5 Farmer group development

A major objective of the project was to assist in the development of the region through mutual self-help and the strengthening of farmer cooperation. However while farmers could recognise their problems, especially those linked to small-scale production, most had difficulties in visualising how to organise and manage a farmer led cooperative. In the minds of many farmers in the region cooperatives were viewed as collectivised, almost monopolistic structures based around Government intervention schemes and providing a wide range of services including, production, supply of inputs, provision of credit and the marketing of production. Across CEE these collectivised structures have largely been abandoned or reformed over the past decade but in Serbia this process has just started.

However, in many ways farmers already cooperated. Informal relations within the community, particularly based around family relations, remained high. For example maintaining permanent access is important for rural communities if they are to keep in contact with markets, shops, veterinarians, doctors and hospitals. Local authorities do not clean local roads from villages to towns in winter and cooperation already existed by the common use of machinery for cleaning of local roads from snow.

The project approach was not to force a prescribed co-operative structure and then train farmers in its management, but rather to work with farmers, firstly by identifying opportunities and then providing supportive training, information, assessing possibilities for group development and organising an appropriate structure and action plan before registering the group. The project aim was not to simply register and equip groups, but rather to ensure, as far as possible, the sustainability of the groups that were formed and to ensure they had simple, clear, specific and manageable objectives. The project therefore followed a five-stage farmer group development programme:

Stage 1 Identification of group ideas by farmers
Stage 2 Establishment of provisional objectives
Stage 3 Preparation of a detailed group plan (excluding finance)
Stage 4 Finalisation of the plan including finance/byelaws and organisation
Stage 5 Registration and group support

The opportunity for developing their own initiatives was a new concept for farmers within the region. A common statement was: “We have always been led by somebody and it would be the best for us to have this situation again”. The training workshops provided the opportunity for farmers to discuss and present possibilities for group activities within their villages. A total of 24 ideas were presented following the training and discussions within the villages. These ideas included provision of veterinary services, machinery sharing, sheep and cattle breeding, wool marketing, milk collection, cheese production/marketing, animal feed production, lamb, meat and hide marketing and young farmers clubs.

For each of the proposed groups leading farmers were asked to prepare a short statement of the main project objective(s), a description of activities, an estimate of the likely number of farmers to be involved and the names of any buyers, suppliers or other organisation with whom they expected to be linked. All ideas were discussed with the farmer leaders and 12 groups were selected for further support through the project. Criteria used for selecting groups for support
was whether there was:
- a clear farmer commitment to the group;
- a clear market or business opportunity;
- a leading farmer or small visionary working group able to communicate effectively with producers, buyers or suppliers. The enthusiasm of these dynamic farmers could provide an impetus and example for other farmers in the region;
- a clear (financial) benefit to producers from forming a group.

To overcome negative connotations the project team used the terminology of group or association rather than cooperative, albeit working within generally accepted western European cooperative principles. Primarily such groups in Western Europe aim to either reduce the costs of farmer supplies (equipment/fertilisers/livestock etc) or increase the prices received for production. It would be unrealistic to expect a single group to provide all the services required by livestock producers in a region and it would be more likely that the groups that are formed will be commodity specific or linked to a specific market or activity. In the Sandjak region this would require identifying clear objectives and benefits from the formation of specific groups as well as influencing or changing farmer attitudes towards group activity. Farmers may need to be committed to being a member of more than one group in their area with each providing a different service. They may be actively involved in the initial identification of group possibilities, in designing their structure and developing their plans.

The exact structure, management and finance of the groups would depend upon the decision of the producers. Groups can be managed in a number of ways and can operate informally. However only registered groups would enable producers to conduct formal transactions with suppliers and buyers. To establish credibility it would be important for groups to focus on the commercial aspects of farmer group formation. However registered groups do incur a cost (registration costs, administrative costs, taxation costs, etc.) and it was considered important that registration should take place only when the additional (financial) benefits were clear.

In Serbia, groups could be registered under company law, cooperative law or the law of associations. Groups would need to operate within the most suitable legislation. Nevertheless, some basic principles were presented and specifically to:
- establish simple, clear and manageable objectives;
- ensure groups are formed, directed and managed by their farmer users;
- enable voluntary membership;
- enable benefits to be received from the group in proportion to the use of the group services by individual farmers;
- ensure financial transparency and encourage commission based and itemised charges;
encourage signed agreements and commitments;

ensure that the groups are financially sustainable and that agreed charges/levies that were imposed on members were sufficient to cover operational costs and develop investment funds.

The project team discussed these issues with participating farmers and also aimed to establish and encourage linkages between the groups and advisory support/commercial organisations, such as municipalities, livestock research and educational institutes, manufacturers, buyers, suppliers, national and international media. The team also strove to identify the costs of activities and prepare gross margins to evaluate effectiveness. A guide for advisers on the development of producer groups was prepared and provided the framework for the development of a simple business plan to include details of:

- the name of the group;
- the main objectives and a summary description of its activities;
- proposed group organisation and in particular:
  - how the group would be organised and jointly managed;
  - where it would be located and which region it would cover;
  - an estimate of the number of farmers likely to be involved;
- a detailed product description including:
  - any standards or specifications to be established;
  - the main features and benefits of the product to farmer members or buyers;
  - the product strengths and weaknesses of the group in comparison with existing products/services;
- a detailed market description including details of:
  - the target market (profile of the buyer/farmer user);
  - where customers/members would be located;
  - the potential size of the market and potential for growth;
  - how the product would be transported and distributed;
  - how the product would be advertised and promoted;
  - an outline of equipment, facilities and raw materials needs and possible alternatives;
- an immediate action plan for implementation with persons identified with specific responsibilities.

Only once farmers were used to discussing ideas and group possibilities together and testing alternatives were detailed financial plans and rules discussed. Financial details included membership charges and charges for services as well as the development of an outline annual cash flow and methods of record keeping and reporting. Considerations for rules included discussions prior to registration between farmers on:

- the primary objective of the group and the extent of activities allowable outside the primary objective;
- eligible members of the group, including membership applications, the amount of product contribution required, fees payable, membership duration, discipline and expulsion/termination;
- possibilities for contracts with third parties;
- finance (including fees, charges, loans, interest payments, surplus reinvestments, supervision and authority);
- the board of directors (including voting, elections, numbers, meetings, payments powers and responsibilities);
- planning, record keeping and reporting (including minutes of meetings and financial statements);
member responsibilities (including the amount of product to be supplied to the group, specifications and standards, information and feedback, inspections, payments, product rejections and attendance at meetings);

- group responsibilities including (marketing, organisation, member information, handling, security and payments);

- product ownership and risk;

- charges and payments (including record keeping, levies, bank details, payment dates and distribution of surpluses);

- changes to rules and regulations.

Many of these areas are not well known or understood by most smallholders used to dealing with their own family accounts. However they are important to the successful development and sustainability of a group. It was necessary to organise training during winter 2004 – 2005 on financial record keeping and to discuss in detail with each group agreed rules for operation. Although standard rules were presented (including the support of a lawyer) all group rules are different and need to be formulated and understood by all group members. This is a process that takes time and requires considerable discussion between group members.

The 12 groups selected for support are currently operating at different stages of development and each have their own individual character, successes and problems. They include a wool marketing group, two milk collection groups, a veterinary group, a cheese production and marketing group, a young farmers club and six machinery rings. Each group is discussed in further detail below.

5.5.1 The Sjenica Wool Marketing Group

The Pramenka sheep breed dominates in the Sjenica region and the wool clip is a medium fibre description, showing good crimp and lustre while being of short staple length. Wool was previously sold predominately through the (now not operating) collective and scoured in eastern Serbia. Traditional woven wool carpets from the cottage industry used to find a ready market amongst foreign tourists along the Adriatic coast. Early on in the project and during the participatory planning workshops it was noted that the market for Sjenica wool appeared to have completely collapsed. Farmers noted that they had up to six years of production in store.

A group of farmers close to Sjenica expressed an interest in establishing a group with the primary objective of assisting members in the marketing of their wool and also to carry out secondary support activities such as, shearing, cleaning, sorting, wool grading, testing breeding programmes, provision of information, training and advice.

The project team had a number of meetings with buyers to discuss opportunities, including the Pirot wool processing factory, the Stilex wool company in Prjepolje, the Serbian sheep association in Vojvodina and local specialists from the state wool marketing company in order to assess the issue and develop solutions. A visit to the project area was also organized for a representative from the H. Dawson wool company of Bradford, England. The general consensus was that the wool remained in good condition and was of marketable quality. The main problem seemed to be small quantities in the stores of a large number of farmers, a lack of contacts with buyers, a lack of organisation for collecting, sorting and packing the wool into marketable quantities and a lack of equipment for baling in a form preferable to buyers. A number of
meetings were held with farmers throughout the region to discuss the possible development of a wool group and a number of farmers showed interest in cooperation.

The principles of operation were discussed whereby:

- All farmers supplying wool would automatically become members of the group although the group may enter into agreements with another farmer owned cooperative for the supply of wool
- Members would commit to:
  - making the group aware of the availability of their wool in-store (quantity and quality) and only sell wool through the group and not directly to any buyer or through any other agent;  
  - ensuring wool was stored and made available in the correct condition requested by the group (either loose or packed according to specification) and following procedures outlined in the group rules of operation;
  - allowing access to their premises by any authorised representative of the group and in order to inspect wool quality and quantities;
  - allowing group authorised representatives the authority to collect the proceeds of sales on their behalf and for deducting any direct costs of the shipment and the agreed levy charge before final payment;
  - accepting the return of wool that was not sold or rejected by the end buyer (if found to be not in accordance with agreed group standards).

- In return the group would assist members by:
  - finding markets for wool and negotiating on their behalf with prospective buyers and keeping them informed regarding all buyer offers and contracts;
  - ensuring all wool was collected, sorted, packed and handled and insured (off farm) until delivery to the final buyer;
  - ensuring that record keeping systems are properly kept and available for all members to see at any time and particularly in relation to the members register, sales contracts, wool quantity and quality supplied by individual members, charges, final payments and records of director meetings;
  - paying the full sales price according to the amount and quality of wool delivered but minus any direct costs incurred for the shipment and the agreed levy charge;
  - advising on improving the quality and quantity of the wool supplied, through developing additional support services, such as the provision of information, training or advice.

Following agreement of these basic principles the project assisted the group by imported shearing, wool handling and baling equipment from New Zealand. A professional shearer was also contracted to conduct a number of shearing, comb, cutter sharpening and gear maintenance demonstrations. Eighteen local farmers were trained in use of the equipment and two shearers were selected to shear for wool group members.

Potential wool group members were also introduced to wool handling and baling equipment and taught how to use it. Sorting and compressing wool into dense packs is important for wool marketing. The equipment supplied on loan to the group is transportable and can be operated manually so that sorting and baling can be carried out on individual farms. Pressed bales are subsequently stamped with the identification of the owner, the village, wool type, year of production and bale weight.

H. Dawson wool company (Bradford) sent a representative for a second time to Sjenica to inspect the wool and discuss buying arrangements. The company agreed to buy the wool at €80 cents per kilo delivered to Bradford as a trial shipment. This was a single offer price for fleece wool, bellies and pieces and all descriptions regardless of age. A proviso is that wool must be sorted by description and year of production and the bales marked accordingly. Fleece buying prices
advertised by a local wool processor ranged from 21 Euro cents to 48 Euro cents depending on type and quality.

Shipping, health regulations and other logistical issues now needed to be resolved. For export purposes and health certification, consignments had to be stored before delivery in licensed premises and this involved verifying that sheep, district and the country were free from specific diseases. Close cooperation had to be maintained with officials with regard to both certification and location of licensed premises.

The Sjenica Wool Marketing Cooperative was successfully registered at the beginning of October 2004 and immediately following registration the Dawson Wool (UK) issued a contract for 20 tonnes of wool (a single shipment) at €80 cents per kilo. Wool from 20 farmers was sorted and baled on individual cooperative member farms and transported by truck as requested by the buyer. However the cooperative was only able to press and fit on to a single truck 14.8 tonnes. The consignment was received in good order and payment was received within two weeks of delivery to Bradford. Funds received were distributed in cash to suppliers. In total €11760 was paid for the consignment. The sum of €7760 was returned to farmers (€0.53 cent per kilo). Main costs were transport €2700 and administration/custom costs were €300. The sum of €1000 was retained into the joint cooperative fund.

Further contracts have now been issued by Dawson Wool (UK) for further deliveries to be made. Potentially, now that the cooperative has a clear product to sell and experience of export marketing, other buyers of packed wool can be approached. However, the cooperative is not without problems that still need to be resolved. In particular:

- farmers across the region manage relatively small flocks and even when including stored wool few are able to supply more than 100 kilos each year (a single pressed bale) meaning new members need to be continually introduced and raising possibilities of future conflict and increasingly complex management;
- registering as a cooperative enables farmers to undertake commercial trade but also requires directors to have official stamps showing all social security and other national contributions have been made. Only 50% of suppliers of wool to the group were able to do this and so not enabling membership;
- the cooperative has no official licence that enables it to export. For the first shipment the local wool scouring plant (Stilex Company, Prejipolje) provided an export licence for the consignment (at no cost) and handled the inward payment through their bank account. In return the cooperative allowed Stilex to use of the baling equipment to press the scoured export consignment from the company;
- the cooperative does not own the baling, pressing or shearing equipment but is loaned (at no cost) through the FAO project, transfer dependant on successful management;
- some farmers still did not see the cooperative as their organisation but simply a buyer of wool. Further efforts would need to be made to develop and communicate rules and to encourage more involvement and commitment to the group.
5.5.2 Milk Collection Associations

The participatory project planning review carried out between September – October 2003 showed that milk across the Sandjak region was produced primarily from small herds of less than 5 cows. Much of this milk is consumed on farm or processed into cheese in order to preserve its shelf life. In some regions milk is not sold at all primarily because many farms are remote and not easily accessible. The costs of collection of this milk is therefore often unjustifiably high for most dairy processors.

Even so, buyers existed and were growing in number. Five small operations were producing dairy products (yoghurts, soft cheeses) in Sjenica town. In recent years, a number of 5-10 tonne per day milk processors had been established to supply local markets as well as more distant cities such as Cacak and Belgrade. A number of buyers attended at winter training workshops organised for farmers by the project and others were visited. In all cases all dairy processors in the region were still unable to collect all the milk they required (less than 50% in some cases) and were interested in working with dairy farmers associations in order to improve both the quantity and quality of milk delivered.

Three villages also showed interest in organising a milk supply group, Brodarevo and Velika Zupa in the Prijepolje region and Leskova in the Tutin region. Meetings were held with potential members and in each case the proposed aim was similar, to coordinate the collection and delivery of milk to the dairy processors and specifically to:

- collect, cool, store, and transport milk to a central collection point or direct to the dairy;
- negotiate on behalf of members on the prices paid for milk;
- ensure proper milk testing procedures are applied;
- assist members (through advice, training and information) on how to improve the quality and quantity of milk produced;
- raise the overall quality of milk supplied and develop premium payments for higher quality milk;
- provide processors and other buyers with a reliable and trustworthy milk supply.

More detailed discussions were held with potential group members to discuss issues related to membership, management, record keeping, responsibilities, risk, charges and payments and it soon became clear that only two groups Leskova and Velika Zupa had the necessary farmer commitment to develop further as possible examples for other farmer groups to follow.

Velika Zupa was already registered as a cooperative and had 27 committed farmer members spread throughout the Prijepolje region, including all types of livestock farmers. While interested in further supporting the collection and marketing of milk the group were also interested in encouraging joint purchasing and overall improvement of livestock (sheep and cattle). The group were encouraged to have discussions with the Novi Varos (Zlatarka) dairy who agreed to purchase milk if sufficient quantities can be collected and to provide technical advice and training on dairy hygiene, handling, cooling and storage. The FAO project agreed to purchase and loan to the group a 500 litre Lactofreeze tank and so that collection, quality control procedures, delivery and recording systems could be piloted and demonstrated to other farmers in the area.

Leskova comprised of a group of 25 farmers potentially able to collect between 600-700 litres of milk each day. Initially however they preferred to operate informally and register as an association once operations began. Under Serbian law associations are not able to trade commercially so the group would need to be seen to be providing a non commercial service to members by not taking ownership of milk but simply charging a direct levy to cover actual costs.

Leskova farmers had never sold milk before and discussed milk sales with the local Delemedje dairy who unfortunately already had a surplus of cheese and had halted milk purchase (they
subsequently closed two months later). Finally an agreement was made between the farmers and the newly constructed Tutin (Zornic) dairy processing factory. The FAO project agreed to purchase and loan to the group a 1000 litre Lactofreeze tank and so that collection, quality control procedures, delivery and recording systems could be piloted and demonstrated to other farmers in the area. Both groups prepared a plan for collection, quality control and delivery of milk with delivery of the fresh product to a central point for pick-up by each dairy company. Suitable buildings were also identified at a central point acquired in both villages to house the equipment.

Both factories produce a range of dairy products including yoghurts, double creams, a variety of cheeses and pasteurized packaged milk. Both have also been included as part of the Serbian milk quality initiative currently being implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture. The aim of this initiative is to upgrade quality standards for dairy products production in line with EU standards and gradually phase out subsidies for lower quality milk. Both dairies therefore needed to develop closer relations with farmers in order to improve both quantity and quality of supply. The dairies helped with the commissioning of tanks and in training farmers in the operational procedures for hygienic milking, delivery, testing and record keeping.

These pilot groups should help to raise the overall quality of milk supplied, develop premium payments for higher quality milk and provide processors and other buyers with a reliable and trustworthy milk supply. It should also help to demonstrate to group milk collection and buyer linkages to other farmers and could potentially be replicated widely. Both dairies and the USAID supported Mercy Corps project working within the region have expressed interest in purchasing future Lactofreeze tanks for new groups.

However further work still needs to be carried out on the economic feasibility of milk collection. Detailed rules have to be finalised, recording systems have to be employed and farmers really need to demonstrate that they can manage an operation of this kind.

5.5.3 Mechanisation Groups

Participatory studies and consultant research had shown that across the Sandzak region there was a particular need to improve the quality of artificial pasture, the yield and quality of forage conserved in order to provide a more nutritious winterfeed for livestock. As part of this programme the FAO project intended to demonstrate a number of techniques for improved forage conservation, cultivation, improved management of artificial pastures grasslands and forage based animal nutrition. At the same time following the winter farmer training programme, 11 villages had identified possibilities for sharing machinery. This provided an opportunity both to demonstrate new techniques but at the same time assist in the development of new machinery rings.

The project team selected six groups that were spread throughout the project region, Babine (Prjepeolje), Hrta (Prjepeolje), Trijebine (Sjenica), Stavalji (Sjenica), Lekova (Tutin) and Delimedje (Tutin). Different types of equipment were demonstrated in each village and farmers throughout the region were invited to attend these demonstrations. The equipment included rotary drum mower conditioners (SIP 165G), round bales wrappers (SAME Rollpac 1600 Multi), mini round balers (SAME Rollpac R600), universal tedder/spreaders (VICON Hay – Bob 300), Single axle tractors (“Rapid Euro 4” + cutter bar 220 cm), self loading forage wagons, (SIP Senator 17 m³), direct drill seeders (MOORE Unidrill 1.3), square bales wrappers (Wolagri), single row silage harvesters (VICON MH 908) and a single axle tractor (“Rapid Euro 3” + cutter bar 190 cm).

The technology supplied focused on making incremental and practical improvements to existing systems and was purchased or loaned on the advice of local and international specialists following detailed consultation with national and international manufacturers and dealers.

Once demonstrated, machinery was provided on loan to each of the six villages and for joint management. Equipment was loaned according to local characteristics such as farmer interests and
compatibility with existing practices. Farmers’ impressions and interests for particular machines had previously been discussed and clarified during the winter training sessions on machinery and feeding and feed production, as well as following discussions with every separate group during the spring.

Immediately after the distribution, the national mechanization specialist visited all villages. Farmers in every group were obliged to ensure a safe, dry and covered place for all machine storage. During these visits, machinery was mounted and tested in the field. Missing parts and malfunctions were noted and fixed in cooperation with the farmers, local suppliers and workshops. Sixty farmers were practically trained to operate the machinery and special attention was given to maintenance and safety issues. All the trained operators were asked to record, during operation, the date of use, type of machine used, type of operation, time of transport and working time, amount of land covered per operation, prices charged and add operator and farmer signatures.

At the end of the season all records were collected by the project team and a detailed statistical analysis of results prepared. Each village could be compared and discrepancies noted. Results were discussed with each village in order to discuss how machinery could be used more effectively and how a sustainable group would operate. For demonstration purposes most of the machines proved ideal for Sandzak conditions and terrain and direct comparisons could be made with traditional machinery and practices. Particular interest was shown in mowers, hay-bobs and balers.

The farmers had also gained one year’s experience of working machinery together. For 2005, farmers intended to register groups as non-commercial associations with the objectives of reducing overall mechanisation costs and increasing productivity through the joint sharing of machinery whilst carrying out secondary support activities (such as contract machinery use, information, training and advice). The project team assisted in developing outline rules with a particular focus upon ensuring:

- that the large majority of use was by members and sub-contract use by non members was limited;
- proper scheduling of machinery use, advance booking and record keeping;
- proper maintenance, storage, cleaning and servicing;
- proper inspections;
- fair and equitable and published charges that reflected full costs;
- efficient and full usage of machinery;
- full availability of information by all members;
- equipment insurance.

Each group also prepared a usage and management plan for 2005. Group registration will allow the group a number of additional possibilities for purchasing or leasing additional equipment or sharing the existing equipment of each group member. Current machinery remains under the ownership of the FAO project or on lease from manufacturers. Equipment will not be transferred.
into group ownership until the groups can clearly show that the operational plan and rules are clear for the registered and approved group members or that the equipment is purchased.

The groups still have a number of issues still to resolve including the amount of their own finance to be raised or equipment to be leased to the group. Members are already concerned at the level of charges necessary to cover repair, service, storage, insurance, fuel, operator and general group costs. Items such as mini-bale net-wrap and film and spare parts will need to be replaced and equipment depreciation costs, enabling equipment to be eventually replaced, will have to be taken into account. New lease agreements for 2005 will have to be negotiated with suppliers and local suppliers will have to be identified in order to ensure ongoing parts and service. Possibilities can also be considered for identifying and introducing other types of equipment suitable for small-scale livestock farmers.

5.5.4 The Ursule Cheese Production Group

Sjenica cheese is a well known brand name in Serbia and also throughout the countries of the former Yugoslavia. It is predominantly produced and consumed by individual producers at home. Cheese making is popular as it enables unsold and surplus milk to be preserved. Commercial demand for Sjenica cheese is strong and sales are almost entirely made by traders visiting individual farms and collecting cheese (from 30 - 50 kg wooden or plastic barrels) before delivering to major towns and cities (predominately in Serbia but also in Kosovo and Bosnia). There is no standardised recipe for Sjenica cheese and increasingly cheese was being commercially produced outside of Sjenica (in particular in Vojvodina) and sold using the Sjenica brand name.

Following the winter training programme a group of farmers presented an idea of commercialising and standardising the production of cheese from Sjenica and better exploiting the brand name on behalf of local producers. Specifically the group aim would be to:

- collect milk from group members and process it into cheese using a standardised production recipe;
- pack and sell cheese to traders and retailers in 3 to 5 kilo packs;
- develop a recognised logo;
- work with national and international cheese associations/institutes to improve the quality of cheese produced;
- assist members (through advice, training and information) on how to improve the quality and quantity of milk produced and supplied;
- lobby Government on the protection of the Sjenica brand name/trademark.

Ursule was already a registered cooperative with 30 farmer members formed through a previously unsuccessful attempt to encourage organic production and marketing from the region.

The FAO project commissioned a cheese production specialist from the University of Belgrade who assisted the group to prepare a business plan including costs of installing initial equipment and operational cash flow. A cheese manufacturer was also invited to present ideas regarding commercial cheese production. It soon became clear that standardisation of cheese production would be a considerable logistical, training and organisational exercise requiring standards to be in place for hygiene, quality assurance, planning and management. Each farmer was producing...
cheese using their own traditional and differing recipes and widely differing standards of both hygiene and quality assurance. In order to address these issues the group intended to only buy milk from members but process cheese from a central and controlled production facility under the ownership of member farmers.

However the cost of equipment was significant at $25000 USD and well beyond the resources of farmers. The group will need to change its current rules substantially and make decisions on the most appropriate equipment. Certainly the group is complicated to establish and manage and will require strong management, organisation, commitment and cooperation. However farmers have not given up hope and have submitted plans to donor programmes and banks for potential financing.

5.5.5 The Delimedje Veterinary Group

The geography of the Tutin area varies from high plateau to rugged mountain terrain. Remoteness of small farms is worsened by poor roads, long winters and heavy snows. The Delimedje Village is the biggest in the Tutin area. Within 15 kilometers of this village there are 27 smaller hamlets and where 24,250 people live and 2,400 cows and 6,000 sheep graze. Dairy, cattle and sheep production could be increased but at present farmers across the entire Tutin municipality are entirely dependant on Government veterinary services. These were perceived by farmers themselves as being insufficient and irregular.

Following the participatory review and the winter training workshops representatives of the village contacted the FAO project and expressed their interest in establishing a private cooperative veterinary practice. The proposal was that the service would be organised as a farmer member owned group with an initial projected membership of 90 farmers (already with preliminary agreements made) in Delimedje, employing a vet and a veterinary technician and maintaining a fully equipped centre in Delimedje as well as a mobile unit. It is intended that the services offered by the veterinary practice would include artificial insemination, health and disease diagnosis, drugs provision and administration, emergency calving, general veterinary advice (feeding, calving, housing, breed improvements etc.)

The monthly running costs of the veterinary practice were estimated by farmers as being around USD 2,400 per month. A detailed cash flow statement and an initial business plan were prepared. Total annual income and costs would be in the region of USD 30,000. Incomes could be obtained as medicine charged at actual price plus 10%, visit charges estimated at an average of 6 visits per day for 300 days i.e. 1800 visits @ USD 4 per visit and membership fees estimated at 100 members x USD 100 per member. Initial cost of stocking the practice was estimated at USD 16740 and to be covered partly out of the initial membership fee and as a part contribution from FAO and other donors.

The group members were soon finalizing plans for jointly renovating a building and finalising key issues prior to registration, notably:

- preparing terms of reference, advertising for and interviewing a potential vet;
- clarifying the legal position of a veterinary practice;
- contacting potential members to ensure initial membership fee payments;
- finalising group rules, operational procedures and record keeping systems.
The FAO project provided technical advice to the group on initial medical stocks, operational procedures and veterinarian recruitment through a local livestock veterinary specialist. However it soon became apparent that legal objections would be raised to the establishment of such a group, by both private and Government veterinarians, on the basis that farmer ownership would not constitute a professionally recognised practice. The group would not be authorised to operate legally by the local municipality. Discussions remain underway but opposition to such a group remains strong.

In the meantime the FAO project organised a series of artificial insemination (AI) training courses for five farmers throughout the project region with the intention of enabling AI services to be introduced into remoter and less accessible areas where few veterinarians ventured. Workshops were organised and delivered in liaison with National Velika Plana AI Institute, the director taking a lead role in the training. However under Serbian law technicians must also be registered as veterinary practice employees. In Tutin and in Prjepolje practices were found through which the trained farmer technicians were able to operate. No practice in Sjenica however would agree to such an arrangement. The FAO project provided one thousand straws of dairy semen as start-up stock to each farmer technician, along with canisters, liquid nitrogen and AI kits.

Within one month over 200 cows had been inseminated by the farmer technicians with a reported conception rate in excess of 80% and operating within some of the remotest and poorest areas of the Sandzak region. The success of the programme has encouraged the project and the Velika Plana Institute to train a further 5 technicians and to enable regular exchange of experiences between them. AI services are now being promoted through advertising on the local radio stations. Birth of the first calves to AI will generate considerable local interest, boost demand for next year and should eventually result in improving livestock throughout the region.

However concerns still exist regarding the future sustainability of the service. Objections have already been expressed by the municipality veterinarian officers over the operation of such a service. Nevertheless the support of a recognised national institute might enable the scheme to continue. The full cost of the service will also eventually have to be passed to farmers. However, once established the additional benefits of reduced costs and higher quality livestock will be appreciated. This may be a cost worth paying.

5.5.6 The Ivanje Young Farmers Club

The loss of young people from across the region was regularly raised during participatory planning events and training workshops. The lack of job opportunity but equally the lack of cultural or social events such as debating forums, clubs traditional events like dancing, fairs or other forms of social life enabled little possibility for wider social contacts. Few of the farmers attending planning and training meetings were less than 30 years of age.

However one group of active young farmers from Ivanje and Lucice villages did approach the project with a wide range or ideas for further developing the economic and social life of their village. The group had already registered as an association with 30 members but had a weak plan of activity. A number of meetings were held with the group members to discuss possibilities. Members were interested in becoming involved in all aspects of the FAO project. Consultants noted their particular interest in languages, computer technology (Internet searches, e-mail and chat forums in particular) and music.

In Western Europe young farmers clubs operate on a significant scale and provide a vibrant and innovative face to rural community development. Possibilities for developing such a pilot operation in the region were of great interest to the group and in particular connecting with young farmers associations throughout the world. Initial contact was made with the Federation of Young Farmers Clubs, UK, who sent material on the establishment of new clubs. An offer has now been given for a UK Federation representative to visit the region.
It is early days for the development of the group, however, they have made a start. A number of potential problems will arise with the raising of capital for events and the normal issues of developing and enforcing operational rules. Young farmer interests also change. However, experience with developing and managing such a group would help to develop future farmer directors of other types of enterprise.

5.6 In-field technical support, demonstrations and special projects

In addition to the above, the FAO project has also provided the opportunity for Serbian researchers and specialists, as well as buyers, suppliers and manufacturers to visit the project area, meet farmers, develop linkages, promote the region, present innovative approaches, import new technologies and provide in-field technical support. This would benefit not only farmers but also help to develop local trade representation and specialist expertise.

During training workshops all farmers’ questions were noted and local specialists invited to prepare straightforward and specific practical guides with answers to questions raised. 7 practical extension booklets were produced on forage and feed production, wool marketing, dairy production, dairy marketing, mechanisation, animal health and selection and breeding. These were printed and distributed to farmers throughout the region. A project information poster, brochure and PowerPoint presentation were also prepared and videos produced for distribution on national and regional television with sound summaries for radio. An information centre was established in Sjenica from which farmers were able to collect or view information including booklets, videos and monthly agricultural publications, such as Poljoprivredni list and Poljoprivre Dnik.

An important objective of the FAO project was to conduct local demonstrations and encourage programmes that would help to generate the interest of farmers across the region to discuss and try new techniques but also help to establish trust within the farming community between farmers and project consultants. Demonstrations focused on wool shearing, cleaning, sorting and packing, milking, collection and dairy products production, mechanisation, forage conservation, cultivation, forage based animal nutrition, improved management of artificial pastures and grasslands and a programme of flock and cattle (beef and dairy) improvement through selection, natural service and artificial insemination.

The programme of spring, summer and autumn forage and feed demonstrations was completed during 2004, with 12 forage and demonstrations/trials conducted at 27 different sites including, spring and summer fertilization, over sowing/direct drilling natural grasslands, introducing spring and summer fodder crops and new winter feeding recipes as well as encouraging silage and hay making. This also included a trial maize production/harvest and ensilage demonstration using newly introduced and experimental high altitude maize strains. Fodder, feed and production diaries were kept by selected farmers and results summarized and disseminated throughout the region.

Infusion of quality and new blood into cattle and sheep of both the mountain and valley holdings should have a positive impact on production. Wider use of AI should help. Five Pirot rams28 were also purchased by the project and distributed through the project to selected sheep flocks. A dual-purpose animal with fine wool, good carcass characteristics and good milk production, it was once widely kept on state farms in Sjenica and elsewhere but with the demise of state-farms few purebred flocks remain. During 2005 progeny from the rams will be monitored and results disseminated. Regarding cattle, pedigree dual-purpose Simmentals arouse wide interest throughout the Sandzak and Tyrol Grauvieh regions. If introduced, it should eventually prove

28 The Pirot is a breed established from 1993 and developed in Serbia. It combines the Sjenica strain of Pramenka with the merino.
an ideal animal for the high mountain pasture of the region. Holstein and Brown Swiss cattle are also demonstrably more productive in the conditions but still have yet to be widely accepted. Farmers’ preferences for certain breeds are still being evaluated and contacts made with local breeders. Meetings are also being organised between national and international breeders and the project facilitates the import and distribution of semen through the AI Institute in Velika Plana.

Other programmes were also initiated including, the organisation of training workshops on, wool spinning, weaving, handicrafts production, flock protection from wolves (including import of Shar Plana guard dogs from Kosovo (Dragash), the collection of price and livestock information from local markets, weekly broadcast on local radio, the development of plans for upgrading livestock markets in association with the local municipality and the joint support of regional agricultural shows in Lesova, Delmedje and Sjenica.

5.7 Future activities

As demonstrated above, the project has already produced a number of important outputs during the first 18 months of operation notably;

- strengthened self-reliance of targeted farmers;
- increased awareness among farmers about market mechanisms, new technologies and approaches;
- strengthened local service providers and extension service in livestock production and marketing;
- emergence of effective farmer and inter-professional associations;
- improved networks and programmes between farmer, specialists and policy makers involved in livestock production and rural development in remote areas.

The project will continue to work with current groups and projects until the end of 2005 in order to strengthen and network existing programmes. However, the project already provides some useful information for the development of national advisory, training and extension services based around linking high quality research with remote farming communities, identifying and delivering relevant information and advice, involving farmer groups and linking them together. Potentially this can result in a truly responsive, participatory and sustainable advisory and training extension approach that takes into account farmer concerns and provides quality and relevant service delivery. During 2005 the project had closer links with the Ministry of Agriculture in order to support Government strategy in these areas.

The project will also become more actively involved in regional livestock development programmes including potential linkages with farmers and farmer groups, projects and advisers in Montenegro, Bulgaria, Kosovo, Croatia and Bosnia - Herzegovina.
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Selected FAO publications


Promoting farmer entrepreneurship through producer organizations in Central and Eastern Europe

On 1 May 2004, after a 14-year transitional period from central planning to market economics, eight Central and Eastern European (CEE) countries (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia) became members of the European Union (EU). Bulgaria and Romania are preparing for accession and are expected to join in 2007. Croatia submitted its application for membership in 2002 and Macedonia in 2004.

Voluntary member-owned, financed and controlled producer groups and farmer cooperatives are believed to provide good enterprise models that could play a central role in enabling their members, and the wider rural community, to play an active part in their own development across the CEE countries. Yet, very few have a major share in supplying inputs, providing farm or rural services or marketing production and even fewer influence national policy or decision-making. It seems that their role still cannot be entirely divorced from wider historical, political and socio-economic considerations and the generally negative experiences of “cooperation” gained throughout the region.

Part 1 of this paper presents an overall analysis of the situation and development of producer groups and farmer cooperatives across the CEE countries, including the new EU members, the applicant countries and the Balkan states alike. Part 2 provides a case study of FAO’s experiences and lessons learned with technical assistance programmes and projects in the subregion. The example presents a number of practical suggestions as to how development organizations, governments, donors and advisers might be best able to facilitate the formulation and implementation of policies and strategies that promote the further development of more autonomous and financially sustainable producers’ organizations and cooperatives in CEE countries.