











Chile | 15-16 June 2023

PROGRAMME











Ensuring the availability of and access to healthy food for all









EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The number of hungry people in the world increased to **828 million people** in 2021, an increase of about **46 million since** 2020 and **150 million** since the outbreak of the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, according to a United Nations report. These figures show that the world is not on track to achieve its goal of ending hunger, food insecurity and malnutrition in all its forms by 2030.

Despite global progress, trends in childhood malnutrition – including stunting and wasting, deficiencies in essential micronutrients, overweight and obesity – remain a major concern.

In 2021, the gender gap for food insecurity continued to widen, with **31.9 percent** of the world's women found to be moderately or severely food-insecure, compared to **27.6 percent** of men. This gap of more than 4 percentage points increased from 3 percentage points in 2020.

In order to meet the Sustainable Development Goals and guarantee the right to adequate food, sustainable diets must be physically and economically accessible to all without discrimination related to gender and other social variables such as age, ethnicity, religion, health and disability status.^{1,2}

¹ FAO, IFAD, WHO, WFP and UNICEF. (2022). State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2022. Repurposing food and agricultural policies to make healthy diets more affordable. Rome, FAO. (https://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/cc0639en).

² FAO and WHO. 2020. Sustainable healthy diets - Guiding principles. Rome. (https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789241516648), Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations; Bioversity International; Burlingame, B.; Dernini, S.(eds.) (2012) Sustainable diets and biodiversity, 309 p.; ill. ISBN: 978-92-5-107288-2

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To overcome this situation, public policies are needed to address structural changes in the food environment. This means harmonizing fiscal measures, marketing and marketing regulations, mandatory front-of-pack labelling, incentives to encourage sustainable and healthy food production and short supply chains, together with food and nutrition education programmes. To address existing challenges in agrifood systems, we must strengthen coordination between public policies and broaden the range of interventions to help different types of food producers (mainly family farmers) and consumers. Special efforts are needed to close the gender gap and reduce all forms of inequality.

BACKGROUND

COVID-19 has exacerbated the fragilities of agrifood systems and inequalities in societies, causing increases in hunger and severe and moderate food insecurity in the world.\footnote{1} The war in Ukraine, involving two of the world's largest producers of staple grains, oilseeds and fertilizers, is also disrupting international supply chains and driving up the prices of grains, fertilizers and energy, as well as ready-to-use therapeutic foods for the treatment of severe malnutrition in children. This comes at a time when supply chains are already being disrupted by extreme weather changes, especially in low-income countries, with serious implications for global food security and nutrition.\footnote{3}

Despite food-related efforts, trends in child malnutrition – including stunting, essential micronutrient deficiencies, maternal anaemia, overweight and obesity – have worsened4. A radical transformation of agrifood systems is therefore required, taking actions that guarantee access to healthy and sustainable diets for all men and women. This must be done in order to reduce levels of malnutrition and guarantee the human right to adequate food, particularly when we consider that almost 3.1 billion people globally do not earn enough to afford a healthy diet.4

Ensuring people's access to safe and healthy food is essential to prevent malnutrition in all its forms (undernutrition, micronutrient deficiencies, overweight and obesity), as this multiple burden of malnutrition leads to health problems such as underweight (low weight for age), stunting, chronic non-communicable diseases such as cardiovascular disease (myocardial infarction and stroke), cancer, chronic respiratory diseases (such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and asthma), and diabetes, among others. 5.6.7.

Governments therefore need to incentivize the production, supply and consumption of nutritious and culturally suitable foods. They must also contribute to making healthy diets less costly as well as more affordable and equitable for all. More could be done to reduce barriers to trade in nutritious foods such as fruit, vegetables and pulses.

³ FAO. 2022. United Nations report: global hunger figures rose to as many as 828 million people in 2021. (https://www.fao.org/newsroom/detail/un-report-global-hunger-SOFI-2022-FAO/en).

⁴ FAO, IFAD, WHO, WFP and UNICEF. (2022). The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2022. Repurposing food and agricultural policies to make healthy diets more affordable. Rome, FAO. (https://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/cc0639en).

⁵ WCRF/AICR. (2007) (World Cancer Research Fund/American Institute of Cancer Research). Food, nutrition, physical activity, and the prevention of cancer: a global perspective. AICR: Second Expert Report. Washington, DC. (https://www.paho.org/hq/dmdocuments/2011/nutrition-AICR-WCR-food-physical-activ.pdf).

⁶ Hawkesworth, S., Dangour, A.D., Johnston, D., Lock, K., Poole, N., Rushton, J., Uauy, R. and Waage, J. (2010). Feeding the world healthily: the challenge of measuring the effects of agriculture on health. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences. 365(1554): 3083-3097.

⁷ GBD. (2019) Global Burden of Disease Collaborator Network. Global Burden of Disease Study 2019, Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME), 2020. (https://vizhub.healthdata.org/gbd-results).

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Access to and consumption of healthy diets can be achieved through policies, legislation and programmes that encourage people to eat nutritious foods such as pulses, fish, fruit and vegetables and others that discourage people from eating unhealthy foods, for example through fiscal measures (taxes and subsidies), front-of-pack labelling and regulation of food marketing and advertising. Intervening in the food supply chain can improve the availability, affordability and acceptability of nutritious, safe and wholesome products by optimizing production, storage, distribution, processing, packaging and retailing systems. We also need to include women and support their empowerment along agrifood chains.

In order to encourage healthy eating, it is important to provide food and nutrition education to people and especially children, adolescents and young people. We also need to develop regulations that ensure consumers receive clear and truthful information, for example, through front-of-pack nutrition labelling of foods. Finally, state feeding programmes and social protection programmes can play a crucial role in feeding the vulnerable.^{9,10}

LEGISLATION, POLICIES AND ACTIONS

The right to adequate food means the right to have permanent access to the resources needed to produce, earn or be able to buy enough food, in order to prevent hunger and to ensure health and well-being. The Voluntary Guidelines to Support the Progressive Realization of the Right to Adequate Food in the Context of National Food Security, the Decade of Action on Nutrition, and the UN Decade of Family Farming are important instruments to help governments in achieving their commitments and urge governments to take action to ensure access and availability of a healthy diet for all. Parliamentary initiatives throughout the world have been crucial for generating policy, legislation and action.

Public policies on food and nutrition affect consumers' decisions, the various food producer categories and the work of the food industry. They therefore have an impact on the availability and affordability of food at all stages of the value chain, from primary production to final consumption. Past experience proves that interventions in agrifood systems produce positive and lasting improvements when they include explicit measures in favour of gender equality and women's empowerment. This means adopting transformative measures at community and national levels to address discriminatory gender norms and attitudes in order to improve incomes and build the resilience of agrifood systems.

The following are some of the evidence-based policies and actions that parliaments can put in place to ensure inclusion, promote equal access and encourage the consumption of healthy diets for all. The success of the policy mix will depend on the country context, the main drivers of food insecurity and malnutrition in each setting (social conflict, climatic events, economic fluctuations, gender gaps, etc.), structural characteristics (income situation, degree of inequality, natural resource endowment, net trade position, etc.), and local economic, political and social considerations.

⁸ HLPE. (2017). Nutrition and food systems. A report by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food Security, Rome. (https://www.fao.org/3/17846E/j7846e.pdf).

⁹ HLPE. (2017). Nutrition and food systems. A report by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food Security, Rome. (https://www.fao.org/3/17846E/i7846e.pdf).

¹⁰ FAO, IFAD, WHO, WFP and UNICEF. (2022). The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2022. Repurposing food and agricultural policies to make healthy diets more affordable. Rome, FAO. (https://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/cc0639en).

¹¹ Hawkes, C. Brazil, B.G., de Castro, I.R.R. and Jaime, P.C. (2016). How to engage across sectors: lessons from agriculture and nutrition in the Brazilian School Feeding Program. Revista de Saúde Pública 50. (https://www.scielo.br/j/rsp/a/7qRs7bdtkSNhYbMgSgbrSTv/?lang=en).

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Legislation to promote affordability

Promoting healthier and more sustainable diets through public procurement

Public procurement has taken on an important role in the development agenda, due to its potential impact on local agriculture through the generation of markets and distribution networks and on people's nutrition, education and health.^{12,13} As well as optimizing existing public budgets to achieve results that bring together different public policy areas, public food procurement is a way for agriculture (especially family farming with an agroecological approach) to improve nutrition.¹³ Some school feeding programmes provide a clear example of the success of these regulations, especially when they involve short marketing chains.^{14,15}

Encouraging healthier diets through fiscal policies

The global action plan for the prevention and control of NCDs 2013–2020 proposed that countries should consider using economic tools, which may include taxes and subsidies, to improve access to healthy dietary choices that create incentives for behaviours associated with improved health outcomes and discourage less healthy choices, as appropriate within the national context. Findings suggest that fruit and vegetable subsidies to low-income populations were associated with increased sales, while food taxes are associated with higher prices and reduced sales.

Social protection policies

Transfers under social protection programmes intended and designed to improve food affordability include in-kind food transfers, vouchers, and cash transfers. They are implemented alone or by means of mixed schemes. Some transfers aimed at improving the nutritional intake of consumers could increase the consumption of certain nutritious foods. Free food and micronutrient supplementation targeting vulnerable groups (low-income or nutritionally and gender vulnerable) can also improve the nutrition status of those who receive these benefits. Social protection programmes can also serve to raise women's well-being and employment rates, support adaptation to climate change and strengthen the resilience of rural livelihood systems.

¹² Hawkes, C. Brazil, B.G., de Castro, I.R.R. and Jaime, P.C. (2016). How to engage across sectors: lessons from agriculture and nutrition in the Brazilian School Feeding Program. Revista de Saúde Pública 50. (https://www.scielo.br/j/rsp/a/7qRs7bdtkSNhYbMgSgbrSTv/?lang=en).

¹³ HLPE. (2017). Nutrition and food systems. A report by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food Security, Rome. (https://www.fao.org/3/17846E/i7846e.pdf).

¹⁴ Martínez Salvador, Laura, Hernández, Loarry Gabriel, and Alvarado Ramírez, David. (2021). Short Marketing Chains and Food Security: the case of El mercado el 100. Problemas del desarrollo, 52(206), 197-220. Epub 06 December 2021. (https://probdes.iiec.unam.mx/index.php/pde/article/view/69732/62260).

¹⁵ Agdonis, Jessica M.; Hinrichs, C. Clare. and Schafft, Kai A. (2009). The emergence and framing of farm-to-school initiatives: Civic engagement, health and local agriculture. Agriculture and Human Values, 26 (1–2): 107–119. (https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10460-008-9173-6).

¹⁶ Thow, A.M. and Downs, S. (2014). Fiscal policy options with potential for improving diets for the prevention of noncommunicable diseases (NCDs). Background paper for technical meeting on fiscal policies for improving diets. World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland (https://www.who.int/docs/default-source/obesity/fiscal-policies-for-diet-and-the-prevention-of-noncommunicable-diseases-0. pdf?sfvrsn=84ee20c_2#:~:text=The%20main%20fiscal%20policy%20interventions.and%2For%20other%20healthy%20foods).

¹⁷ Andreyeva T, Marple K, Moore TE, L. P. (2022) Evaluation of Economic and Health Outcomes Associated With Food Taxes and Subsidies. A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. JAMA Network Open. (doi: 10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2022.14371).

¹⁸ FAO, IFAD, WHO, WFP and UNICEF. (2022). The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2022. Repurposing food and agricultural policies to make healthy diets more affordable. Rome, FAO. (https://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/cc0639en).

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Legislation to restrict the marketing (advertising and promotion) of highly processed, energy-dense foods of minimal nutritional value

Regulate marketing (advertising and promotion) and merchandising regulations

Marketing (promotion and advertising) influences consumer preferences and increases demand for certain food products.¹⁹ Evidence indicates that advertising and marketing have an impact on people's eating preferences and habits. The World Health Organization therefore recommended that countries should ensure healthier food environments by restricting the advertising and marketing (at least to children, youth and adolescents) of energy-dense products and nutrient-poor foods and beverages, particularly products high in saturated fats, sugars or salt.^{20,21,22,23}.

Front-of-pack nutrition labelling on highly processed, energy-dense foods of minimal nutritional value

Many countries are concerned about nutrition labelling, since such labels provide consumers with information on the nutritional content of foods. Front-of-package nutrition labelling on pre-packaged foods and beverages can provide quick and easy-to-understand information for consumers at the time of purchase, allowing them to distinguish between healthy and unhealthy food and beverage options.^{24,25}.

Traditional nutrition labelling based on a list of nutrients per 100 g or per standard portion, and voluntary industry labels that refer, for example, to guideline daily amounts (GDAs) for adults, have proven to be inefficient and complex and some even mislead consumers. Over the last decade, new mandatory labelling options have therefore emerged. These take the form of front-of-pack messages and warnings about the nutritional content of some nutrients that are harmful to health, using seals or logos that are easy for people to understand.^{26,27,28}.

¹⁹ HLPE. (2017). Nutrition and food systems. A report by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food Security, Rome. (https://www.fao.org/3/17846E/i7846e.pdf).

²⁰ Mediano Stoltze, F., Reyes, M., Smith, T. L., Correa, T., Corvalán, C., and Carpentier, F. R. D. (2019). Prevalence of Child-Directed Marketing on Breakfast Cereal Packages before and after Chile's Food Marketing Law: A Pre-and Post-Quantitative Content Analysis. International journal of environmental research and public health, 16(22), 4501.

²¹ WHO. (2009). World Health Organization. Set of recommendations on the marketing of foods and non-alcoholic beverages to children. In: Prevention and control of noncommunicable diseases: implementation of the global strategy. Geneva: World Health Organization; November 2009. (https://www.who.int/publications/ii/item/9789241500210).

²² Santaliestra-Pasías, A.M., Rey-López, J.P. and Moreno Aznar, L.A. (2013). Obesity and sedentarism in children and adolescents: what should be done? Nutrición Hospitalaria. 5. 99-104

²³ Harris, J.L. and Bargh, J.A. (2009). Television viewing and unhealthy diet: implications for children and media interventions. Health Communication, 24(7), 660-673

²⁴ WHO. (2021) Implementing fiscal and pricing policies to promote healthy diets: a review of contextual factors. (https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240035027).

²⁵ World Cancer Research Fund International (2019). Building momentum: lessons on implementing a robust front-of-pack food label. (https://www.wcrf.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/03/PPA-Building-Momentum-2-WEB.pdf).

²⁶ CLAS-COLANSA. Etiquetado Nutricional Frontal de Alimentos. (http://colansa.org/wp-content/uploads/2022/08/Policy-Brief.-Etiquetado-Frontal-Documento-de-referencia-para-decisores-1.pdf).

²⁷ Orzuna, I. and R. López. 2023. Rendimiento de la Nutri-Score y de las etiquetas de advertencia en la identificación del producto más saludable. Behanomics (1). (https://doi.org/10.55223/bei.1).

²⁸ Becker, M. W., Bello, N. M., Sundar, R. P., Peltier, C., and Bix, L. (2015). Front of pack labels enhance attention to nutrition information in novel and commercial brands. Food Policy, 56. (https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodpol.2015.08.001).

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Actions to promote the consumption of a sustainable diet

Improving food and nutrition education

The structural and environmental changes described above must go hand in hand with nutrition education campaigns, awareness raising for behavioural change, knowledge transfer and consumer empowerment.^{29,30}. Nations can influence consumer perceptions of the nutritional value and sustainability of food through media campaigns, information on food packaging, nutrition education in educational centres and the adoption of national guidelines on food, nutrition and nutrition education. One way of doing this is through widely-circulated food guides.³¹ Nutritional education alone is not enough, especially in food-insecure countries, and must be combined with strategies to improve access to nutritious food.³²

Food-based dietary guidelines

Food-Based Dietary Guidelines (FBDG) are national tools whose purpose is to educate the population and guide national food and nutrition policies as well as the food industry, through easy-to-understand messages and illustrations. FBDGs are intended to inform national policymaking and provide the general public with advice on foods, food groups and dietary models that provide key nutrients with the aim of promoting overall health and preventing chronic diseases.³³

It is also important to consider food culture when drafting FBDGs, as this knowledge can increase their effectiveness. Food culture comprises food uses, traditions, customs and symbolic processes, which are also influenced by the food production cycle in a particular context.³⁴

²⁹ HLPE. (2017). Nutrition and food systems. A report by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food Security, Rome. (https://www.fao.org/3/17846E/i7846e.pdf).

³⁰ Muehlhoff, E., Wijesinha-Bettoni, R., Westaway, E., Jeremias, T., Nordin, S., and Garz, J. (2017). Linking agriculture and nutrition education to improve infant and young child feeding: Lessons for future programmes. Maternal and Child Nutrition, 13, e12411

³¹ McGill, R., Anwar, E., Orton, L., Bromley, H., Lloyd-Williams, F., O'Flaherty, M., Taylor-Robinson, D., Guzman-Castillo, M., Gillespie, D., Moreira, P. and Allen, K. (2015). Are interventions to promote healthy eating equally effective for all? Systematic review of socioeconomic inequalities in impact. BMC Public Health. 15(1): 457.

³² Lassi, Z. S., Das, J. K., Zahid, G., Imdad, A., and Bhutta, Z. A. (2013). Impact of education and provision of complementary feeding on growth and morbidity in children less than 2 years of age in developing countries: A systematic review. BMC Public Health, 13(Suppl. 3), S13.

³³ FAO. (2014). The State of Food-based Dietary Guidelines in Latin America and the Caribbean 21 years after the International Conference on Nutrition. Rome. 125 pp. (http://www.fao.org/3/i3677s.pdf).

³⁴ Calderón, M. E., O. R. Taboada, A. Argumedo, E. Ortiz, P. A. López and C. Jacinto. 2017. Cultura alimentaria: clave para el diseño de estrategias de mejoramiento nutricional de poblaciones rurales. Agricultura, Sociedad y Desarrollo 14 (2).



Bridging the gender gap in food security and nutrition



EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Aside from being an important source of employment for women around the world, agrifood systems are a greater source of livelihoods for women than for men in many countries. However, in all regions of the world, women have less access to food than men³⁵ despite playing a key role in its production. At the same time women suffer more from malnutrition in all its forms – undernourishment, hunger, obesity, overweight and micronutrient deficiencies.³⁶

Women tend to work in roles that are considered secondary and have worse working conditions (irregular, informal, part-time, low-skilled, labour-intensive and therefore precarious) compared to men. They have a greater burden as unpaid caregivers, which limits their education and employment opportunities. The wages and productivity of women working in primary agricultural production are systematically lower than those of men. When they are involved in the non-farm segments of agrifood systems, they work in lower positions. Women's participation in export-oriented high value-added chains, and in entrepreneurship in agrifood systems, tends to be limited by discriminatory social standards and barriers to accessing knowledge, assets, resources and social networks.³⁵

³⁵ FAO. (2023). The status of women in agrifood systems. Rome. (https://doi.org/10.4060/cc5343en).

³⁶ FAO. (2021). Consultation for the development of the CFS Voluntary Guidelines on Gender Equality and Women's and Girls' Empowerment in the context of Food Security and Nutrition. Global Forum on Food Security and Nutrition. Report of the online consultation No. 175 from 16.09.2021 to 30.11.2021. (https://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/cb9466en).

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FAO estimates that closing the gender gap in agricultural productivity and the wage gap in agrifood employment would increase global gross domestic product by 1 percent (or almost USD 1 trillion). This would reduce global food insecurity by about 2 percentage points, reducing the number of food-insecure people by 45 million.

Addressing gender gaps in agrifood systems helps to improve the well-being of women and their households, reduce hunger, boost income generation and strengthen the resilience of communities and the system as a whole.

BACKGROUND

Women's work in agrifood systems

In 2019, 36 percent of working women and 38 percent of working men worked in agrifood systems.35 In many countries, however, agrifood systems are a greater source of livelihoods for women than for men. In South Asia, 71 percent of women work in agrifood systems compared to 47 percent of men.³⁵

However, women working in agricultural production tend to do so under very unfavourable conditions. They often work without pay on family farms or as casual labourers in agriculture. In land productivity on farms of the same size managed by men and women there is a gender gap of 24 percent and women earn on average 18.4 percent less than men in waged employment in agriculture.³⁷

Women's access to assets, services and resources

Women's access to assets, productive resources and services critical to agrifood systems – such as land, inputs, agricultural extension services, finance, information, education and technology – remains lower than that of men. However, the gender gap in mobile Internet access in low- and middle-income countries narrowed from 25 percent to 16 percent between 2017 and 2021, and the gap narrowed from 9 to 6 percentage points in terms of access to bank accounts. The percentage of men with ownership or secure tenure rights to agricultural land is twice that of women in more than 40 percent of the countries that have reported data on the proportion of women landowners.³⁷

Capacity for action, standards and policies

Discriminatory social standards in agrifood systems create power imbalances between men and women and limit the choices available to women, who are generally more involved in unpaid care and domestic work. These standards often restrict women's mobility and limit their opportunities for engaging in non-domestic work and market activities and their access to assets and income.

It is estimated that if half of small-scale producers benefited from development interventions focused on empowering women, this would significantly increase the incomes of 58 million people and increase the resilience of 235 million additional people.³⁷

³⁷ FAO. (2023). The status of women in agrifood systems. Rome. (https://doi.org/10.4060/cc5343en).

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Resilience and adaptation to shocks

Coping mechanisms and resilience to climate change, disasters and conflict are negatively affected by gender inequalities. The multiple and often overlapping causes of fragility and different forms of discrimination affecting women and girls have significant implications for women's livelihoods and opportunities within agrifood systems. Globally, 22 percent of women lost their jobs in the agrifood system in the first year of the COVID-19 pandemic, compared to only 2 percent of men. Also the gap between men and women living in food insecurity widened from 1.7 percentage points in 2019 to 4.3 percentage points in 2021.³⁷

LEGISLATION, POLICIES AND ACTIONS

FAO recognizes that there are three key ways that parliamentarians can transform agrifood systems and achieve gender equality.

- 1 First, the collection and use of high-quality data, disaggregated by sex, age and other forms of social and economic differentiation, and the application of rigorous qualitative and quantitative gender research are essential to effectively monitor and evaluate gender equality in agrifood systems and accelerate the rate of progress in achieving it.
- 2 Second, localized interventions that address multiple inequalities and that have been shown to reduce gender gaps and empower women in agrifood systems need to be carefully scaled up, taking into account the local context. Scaling up can occur through policy channels, through higher levels of investment, or through uptake by public and private sector stakeholders. We can only achieve major gains for women's well-being, as well as for economic growth and food security, by scaling up.
- 3 Last, interventions must be designed to end gender inequality and empower women and, where possible, should use transformative approaches at community and national level to address discriminatory gender norms and attitudes.

To achieve these goals, we must **increase women's empowerment**. This is essential to their well-being and positively influences agricultural production, food security, diet and child nutrition through the following actions³⁸.

Transformative gender approaches aimed at changing restrictive social standards are cost-effective and offer high returns if implemented on a large scale.

Improving women's rights to land ownership or secure tenure of agricultural land positively influences women's empowerment, investment, natural resource management, access to services and institutions, resilience and food security. It also reduces gender-based violence and increases women's bargaining power.

Access to **formal childcare services** has a major positive impact on the employment of mothers and on the performance of activities related to agrifood systems.

Improving **women's access to agricultural extension services** – education, training, access to financial resources, technology and assets – is important for increasing food security and facilitating women's participation in the agrifood system as a whole.

³⁷ FAO. (2023). The status of women in agrifood systems. Rome. (https://doi.org/10.4060/cc5343en).

³⁸ FAO. (2023). The status of women in agrifood systems. Rome. (https://doi.org/10.4060/cc5343en).

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Social protection programmes have increased women's employment rate and resilience. They have also facilitated climate adaptation, improved well-being in high climate risk settings and helped the most affected and vulnerable people recover from the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic and extreme weather events.

Increased efforts to collect data (disaggregated by sex and other social variables) with the aim of measuring empowerment in its multiple dimensions have been instrumental in improving the design and effectiveness of gender equality and empowerment programmes and policies and in strengthening agrifood systems.

Outstanding actions in the area of gender associated with food and nutritional security include the initiatives carried out by the Parliamentary Front against Hunger in Latin America and the Caribbean, such as the Latin America and the Caribbean Parliamentary Pact for Zero Hunger with Gender Equality, among others.³⁹



³⁹ Frente Parlamentario contra el Hambre. 2022. Pacto parlamentario iberoamericano y caribeño por el hambre cero con igualdad de género. Disponible en: http://parlamentarioscontraelhambre.org/?s=genero)

Transforming agrifood systems to make them more inclusive, sustainable, equitable and resilient to climate change









EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

To achieve the Sustainable Development Goals⁴⁰, especially SDG 2 (Zero Hunger), we need to support the transformation of current agrifood systems into more sustainable and resilient ones, so that the economic, social and environmental foundations that ensure food security and nutrition for future generations are not put at risk.⁴¹

Biodiversity loss caused by current agrifood systems and their negative impacts on soil health, deforestation, water and greenhouse gas emissions, make these systems less sustainable 41,42,43, and increasingly vulnerable to the effects of climate change.44

Addressing this challenge requires the combined efforts of different stakeholders at different scales. Legislation, policies and public instruments play a key role in this context.⁴²

⁴⁰ United Nations. (2015). un.org. Accessed at Sustainable Development Goals. 17 goals to transform our world. (https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/).

⁴¹ HLPE. (2014). Food losses and waste in the context of sustainable food systems. A report by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food Security. Rome, Italy. (https://www.fao.org/3/i3901e/i3901e.pdf).

⁴² HLPE. (2019). Agroecological and other innovative approaches for sustainable agriculture and food systems that enhance food security and nutrition. A report by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food Security. Rome. (https://www.fao.org/3/ca5602en/ca5602en.pdf).

⁴³ FAO, IFAD, WHO, WFP, and UNICEF. (2022). The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2022. Repurposing food and agricultural policies to make healthy diets more affordable. Rome: FAO. (https://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/cc0639en).

⁴⁴ Padilla, R. (2017). Rural industrial policy and strengthening value chains ECLAC Books, No. 145. (R. P. Pérez, Ed.) Santiago, Chile: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

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BACKGROUND

An agrifood system includes all elements and activities related to the production, processing, distribution, preparation and consumption of food, as well as the outcomes of those activities, including environmental and socioeconomic externalities.⁴¹ Sustainable use ensures food security and nutrition for all, without jeopardizing the economic, social and environmental foundations that ensure food security and nutrition for future generations.40

Better efficiency in the management of natural resources used in agriculture is paramount to mitigate emissions. Provided sustainable practices are used, farming and forestry have great potential to act as carbon sinks, in biomass and soils, as they sequester carbon and thus help to mitigate rising atmospheric ${\rm CO_2}$ levels. 45,46,47. Mitigation of gas emissions is crucial to limiting climate change and is a necessary strategy to meet the 2°C goal set out in the Paris Agreement. 48

Against the backdrop of the COVID-19 pandemic and the war in Ukraine, structural weaknesses in food systems have been exacerbated. This has also had an impact on the gender gap.

LEGISLATION, POLICIES AND ACTIONS

At production level, agroecology, technical interventions, technological innovation, investments and public policy incentives contribute to the transition towards sustainable and resilient agrifood systems. This must be achieved on the basis of context-specific pathways, including different stakeholders at different scales.⁴⁹

FAO's Strategic Framework 2022-2031 seeks to support the 2030 Agenda by transforming agrifood systems to make them more efficient, inclusive, resilient and sustainable for better production, better nutrition, a better environment and a better life, leaving no one behind.⁵⁰

In order to make agrifood system models more sustainable, resilient, nutritious and productive, it is crucial to actively acknowledge their participants as rights-holders. Policies and programmes should therefore take into account the situation of people in marginalized positions to ensure that "no one is left behind", as set out in the 2030 Agenda. The principles of equality, self-determination, non-discrimination and inclusion guide action from a rights-based approach, since gender equality, respect for the rights of Indigenous and Tribal People and People of African Descent, and the fight against all forms of discrimination are part of

⁴⁵ FAO. 2002. Soil carbon sequestration. World Soil Resources Reports 96. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, Italy. (https://www.fao.org/3/bl001e/bl001e.pdf).

⁴⁶ FAO. (2016). The State of Food and Agriculture: Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (https://www.fao.org/3/i6030e/i6030e.pdf).

⁴⁷ FAO. 2017. Soil Organic Carbon: the hidden potential. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, Italy. (https://www.fao.org/3/i6937e/i6937e.pdf).

⁴⁸ Mbow, C., C. Rosenzweig, L.G. Barioni, T.G. Benton, M. Herrero, M. Krishnapillai, E. Liwenga, P. Pradhan, M.G. Rivera-Ferre, T. Sapkota, F.N. Tubiello, Y. Xu. (2019). Food Security. In: Climate Change and Land: an IPCC special report on climate change, desertification, land degradation, sustainable land management, food security, and greenhouse gas fluxes in terrestrial ecosystems. P.R. Shukla, J. Skea, E. Calvo Buendia et al. (eds.). (https://www.ipcc.ch/srccl/).

⁴⁹ HLPE. (2019). Agroecological and other innovative approaches for sustainable agriculture and food systems that enhance food security and nutrition. A report by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food Security. Rome. (https://www.fao.org/3/ca5602en/ca5602en.pdf).

⁵⁰ FAO. 2022. FAO Strategic Framework 2022-2031. (https://www.fao.org/3/cb7099en/cb7099en.pdf).

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individual rights and collective rights.⁵¹ We need to recognize the tensions between these spheres in order to go beyond a fragmented view of the exercise of rights and understand the web of realities in which individuals participate. Legislation, policies and actions that adopt an intersectoral approach promote the inclusion of historically excluded groups and sectors by taking into account dimensions that allow for a deeper understanding of the complex and multidimensional reality of social inequalities and discrimination and by ensuring more sustainable, resilient, nutritious and productive agrifood systems.⁵²

Reducing deforestation

Several plans have been drafted to reduce deforestation. These include the Interministerial Action Plan for the Prevention and Control of Deforestation in the Amazon, introduced in Brazil. This has led to a greater ability to respond to deforestation alerts and involved coordinated efforts by ministries, the federal police, the army and the public prosecutor's office. This plan, in conjunction with private sector programmes, succeeded in decreasing the Amazon's deforestation rate from 2.78 Mha/year to 0.75 Mha/year between 2004 and 2009⁵⁵ (Mbow et al., 2019). Other countries introduced similar schemes. The sector programmes in the sector programmes are sector programmes.

Soil remediation

One way to slow agricultural expansion is to increase yields through sustainable intensification. The Incentive System for the Agroenvironmental Sustainability of Agricultural Soils in Chile is a good example of this. This aims to recover the productive potential of degraded agricultural soils and maintain the levels of improvement achieved. The subsidized management plans under this system include technical advice, labour and inputs. The results have been marginally encouraging.⁵⁷

Responsible investment in agriculture

Responsible investment in agriculture is essential for improving food security and nutrition. It also benefits sustainable livelihood management, the environment and communities. It is based on 10 principles to support sustainable economic development, boost the participation of youth, respect tenure, and access to productive resources, among others. Policies related to these principles include the Law for the Promotion of Private Investment in Irrigation and Drainage Works in Chile. This has allowed expansion of the area through hi-tech irrigation schemes. Small-scale producers have been able to harness this

⁵¹ UNDP. 2015. Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. 24 p. (https://sdgs.un.org/2030agenda).

⁵² FAO. 2022. Practical guide for the Incorporation of the Intersectionality approach in sustainable rural development programmes and projects. Santiago de Chile. (https://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/CC2823EN).

⁵³ Negra, C. et al. (2014). Brazil, Ethiopia, and New Zealand lead the way on climate-smart agriculture. BioMed Central: 10-15. (https://agricultureandfoodsecurity.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s40066-014-0019-8).

⁵⁴ Finer, M., S. Novoa, M. J. Weisse, R. Petersen, J. Mascaro, T. Souto, F. Stearns, and R. G. Martínez. (2018). Combating deforestation: From satellite to intervention. Science: 360, 1303-1305. (https://www.science.org/doi/10.1126/science.aat1203).

⁵⁵ Mbow, C., C. Rosenzweig, L.G. Barioni, T.G. Benton, M. Herrero, M. Krishnapillai, E. Liwenga, P. Pradhan, M.G. Rivera-Ferre, T. Sapkota, F.N. Tubiello, Y. Xu. (2019). Food Security. In: Climate Change and Land: an IPCC special report on climate change, desertification, land degradation, sustainable land management, food security, and greenhouse gas fluxes in terrestrial ecosystems. P.R. Shukla, J. Skea, E. Calvo Buendia et al. (eds.). (https://www.ipcc.ch/srccl/).

⁵⁶ Finer, M., S. Novoa, M. J. Weisse, R. Petersen, J. Mascaro, T. Souto, F. Stearns, and R. G. Martínez. (2018). Combating deforestation: From satellite to intervention. Science: 360, 1303-1305. (https://www.science.org/doi/10.1126/science.aat1203).

⁵⁷ University of Chile. (2022). Evaluación de impacto del programa sistema de incentivos para la sustentabilidad agroambiental de los suelos agropecuarios. Santiago, Faculty of Agronomic Sciences, University of Chile. 367 p.

⁵⁸ Committee on World Food Security. (2014). Principles for responsible investment in agriculture and food systems. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 32 p. (https://www.fao.org/3/au866e/au866e.pdf).

⁵⁹ Law 18.450. (1985 October 22). Fomento a la inversión privada en obras de riego y drenaje. Official Journal of the Republic of Chile.

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technology to improve the efficiency of water use, increase their cultivated area and so on. Numerous laws on sustainability have been introduced in Korea, such as the Erosion Control Law, the Fertilizer Control Law and the Law on the Promotion of Environmentally-Friendly Agriculture and Fisheries, among others.⁶⁰

To promote responsible investment in agriculture and food systems, FAO works through a needs-driven framework programme to cooperate with governments, smallholders, civil society, academia and the private sector. The Programme's main activities include awareness raising, capacity building and support for the implementation of international guidance tools such as the Principles for Responsible Investment in Agriculture and Food Systems (CFS-RAI Principles).

In order to promote responsible investments for inclusive food systems, FAO supports the generation of evidence for policymakers on gender gaps in agriculture that are holding back progress towards hunger eradication and need to be urgently addressed. For example, the findings and recommendations of an African Union/FAO study that analyzed regional perspectives on gender and agrifood systems were drawn from an extensive review of existing statistics, gender audits of 38 national agricultural investment plans and national gender analyses conducted in 40 countries.⁶¹

Legislative frameworks and public policies for family farming

Family farmers are central to making agrifood systems more inclusive, sustainable, resilient and efficient. Family farming employs 30 percent of the world's population and produces more than 80 percent of the world's food in value terms (FAO, 2014a). It contributes to the conservation of biodiversity, land and cultural heritage. Even though family farmers are essential for transforming agrifood systems in a sustainable manner, such farmers (particularly young people and women) are still among those most affected by poverty and vulnerability (FAO, 2020b). We must therefore seek to consistently strengthen public policies and legislative and institutional frameworks in all policy areas relevant to family farming. Relevant policy areas include basic public infrastructure, access to land, technologies, productive resources, public services and financing. The way family farming is defined in law can act as a benchmark for legislative and policy measures to foster an enabling policy environment for strengthening family farming (FAO and IFAD, 2019b).

In Bangladesh, public policies for early investment in rural roads, electricity supply and fish fry farming laid the foundation for the development of the fish farming industry, generating a high-impact value chain for thousands of families and contributing to food security.⁵⁹

⁶⁰ Udaeta, K., and Rodríguez, A. (2021). Soluciones basadas en la naturaleza para la sostenibilidad de la agricultura en la República de Corea: marcos de política habilitantes y casos de estudio de interés para América Latina y el Caribe. Santiago de Chile: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

⁶¹ FAO. 2018. Leaving no one behind: empowering Africa's rural women for zero hunger and shared prosperity. 28 p. (https://www.fao.org/policy-support/tools-and-publications/resources-details/en/c/1156159/).

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Addressing market shocks, strengthening value chains and building resilience

Strengthening value chains is one way to drive structural changes, improving the distribution of value added capture along the chains and incorporating new producers and service providers. This is achieved through economic scaling up of links in the chain and better cooperation between them, as well as between the stakeholders involved, ensuring women's integration and empowerment along the entire value chain. Two recurrent constraints to value chains in rural areas are the absence of good agricultural and manufacturing practices, and gender gaps. Programmes to promote these practices, support and promotion to obtain certifications, quality systems, geographical designations and technical and production advice are useful for strengthening these chains. 62 Risk management also plays an important role in strengthening the resilience of producers, which underpins food systems. Agricultural insurance offered in developed and developing countries around the world has contributed to the resilience of producers⁶³. Chile, for example, offers government incentives for taking out such policies. This promotes risk transfer and working capital insurance against adverse losses, which are more common and harder-hitting due to climate change⁶⁴. Similarly, in Kenya the state subsidizes 50 percent of the insurance for producers whose land measures between 0.2 and 8 ha.65



⁶² Padilla, R. (2017). Rural industrial policy and strengthening value chains. ECLAC Books, No. 145. (R. P. Pérez, Ed.) Santiago, Chile: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

⁶³ Wenner, M. D. (2005). Agricultural Insurance Revisited: New Developments and Perspectives in Latin America and the Caribbean Washington, DC: Inter-American Development Bank.

 $[\]label{thm:conditions} \begin{tabular}{ll} (https://publications.iadb.org/en/agricultural-insurance-revisited-new-developments-and-perspectives-latin-america-and-caribbean). \end{tabular}$

⁶⁴ ASAGRIN. (2022). Asesoría para la evaluación de satisfacción de usuarios y usuarias del seguro agrícola. Santiago de Chile. 79 p.

⁶⁵ KNA. 2020. Farmers receive over Sh117 million from the agriculture insurance cover. Kenya News Agency. (https://www.kenyanews.go.ke/farmers-receive-over-sh117-million-from-the-agriculture-insurance-cover/#:~:text=Under%20this%20programme%2C%20the%20Government%20 of%20Kenya%2C%20through,pay%2050%20percent%20of%20the%20remaining%20premium%20costs).

Strengthening coordination, cooperation and partnership at national, regional and international level, to ensure the right to adequate food for all









EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Achieving the global nutrition and health targets before 2030 in the context of the Sustainable Development Goals⁶⁶, in a globalized world where climate change is increasing and affecting the production and marketing of healthy food, will require consensus and cooperation between countries and between institutions to counteract the severe impact on the agrifood sector caused by natural disasters, pandemics and conflicts. Only in this way can we make progress in realizing the human right to adequate food and nutrition for the health of all.⁶⁷ These efforts are translated into coordination and cooperation agreements and public redistribution policies in the economic, health, agricultural, fisheries and social protection fields, which allow progress towards healthier, more sustainable, equitable and resilient agrifood systems.^{68,69,70}.

⁶⁶ United Nations. (2015). Sustainable development goals. 17 goals to transform our world: (https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/).

⁶⁷ FAO, IFAD, WHO, WFP and UNICEF. (2022). The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2022. Repurposing food and agricultural policies to make healthy diets more affordable. Rome, FAO. (https://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/cc0639en).

⁶⁸ FAO. (2013). Framework Law "Right to Food, Food Security and Sovereignty" Eighteenth Ordinary Meeting of the Latin American Parliament (page 44). Panama: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

⁶⁹ FAO. (2019). FAO's work on the Right to Food. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (https://www.fao.org/right-to-food/resources/resources-detail/en/c/1238127/).

⁷⁰ Zúñiga, V., and Rocha, P. (2021). La alimentación como un derecho humano: Estudio interdisciplinario U. de Chile plantea necesidad de consagrar el derecho a la alimentación en la nueva Constitución. Universidad de Chile News. (https://www.uchile.cl/noticias/175191/estudio-plantea-necesidad-de-consagrar-el-derecho-a-la-alimentacion).

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The right to adequate food is exercised when every man, woman and child, alone or in community with others, has physical and economic access at all times to adequate food or means for its procurement.⁷¹ This authoritative legal interpretation of Article 11 identifies several key characteristics of the right to food, namely: availability, adequacy, accessibility and sustainability, and how they relate to all areas of agrifood systems, including healthy diets and nutritious food, food safety, food production, consumer protection and sociocultural acceptability.

Primarily interpreted as the right to feed oneself in dignity, the right to adequate food is an international human right that has long been recognized and to which numerous countries have committed. In recent decades, several countries have developed and implemented constitutional reforms, national laws, strategies, policies and programmes that aim to realize the right to food for all and encompass quantitative, qualitative and cultural aspects of acceptability.^{70,72}

BACKGROUND

Recognizing the human right to adequate food and the Sustainable Development Goals

The human rights-based 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted in September 2015 by the United Nations General Assembly, recognizes the realization of the right to food and points the way forward for transformative change. Because nations have the obligation to respect, protect, promote and realize the human right to adequate food, it is relevant to consider that recognizing the right to food in constitutions and developing laws related to food and nutrition security is now crucial to the fulfilment of SDG2. The 2030 Agenda specifically urges with regard to hunger, "By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round".73

This is why the eradication of hunger has become an urgent and priority issue on the global agenda. Addressing it will require the generation of collective responses and radical changes in the world's agrifood system.

Legal and Regulatory Frameworks for the Realization of the Human Right to Adequate Food

To facilitate the radical transformations needed in today's agrifood systems, "more effective policy frameworks are urgently needed" to achieve food and nutrition security objectives. We need to move towards systems that ensure healthy, sufficient and balanced diets that are affordable for the entire population; and to guarantee the right to adequate food for all, leaving no one behind. The human right to adequate food is of fundamental importance for the enjoyment of all rights and translates into obligations for all state bodies. To

⁷¹ FAO. Right to food. (https://www.fao.org/right-to-food/en/).

 $^{72 \;\; \}text{FAO. 2007. The human right to food. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. ($\underline{\text{https://www.fao.org/3/y7937e.y7937e.pdf}}$).}$

⁷³ United Nations. (2015). Sustainable Development Goals. 17 goals to transform our world: (https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/).

⁷⁴ HLPE. (2020). Food security and nutrition: building a global narrative towards 2030. A report by the High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food Security. Rome. 110 pages. (https://www.fao.org/3/ca9731en/ca9731en.pdf).

⁷⁵ FAO. (2010). Guide on Legislating for the Right to Food. Book 1. Rome. 362 pp. Available at: (https://www.fao.org/3/i0815e/i0815e00.pdf).

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Constitutional protection

The Constitution is the supreme or highest law in a country's legal system. Enshrining the right to food clearly and explicitly in the Constitution gives it the highest level of recognition and protection. Constitutional provisions alone are not sufficient to ensure access to quality diets; framework laws on food and nutrition security and complementary sectoral legislation are required.



Framework law

A framework law is used to legislate on multi-sectoral matters in a consistent, coordinated and comprehensive manner, setting out general principles and obligations, leaving the details to lower-ranking regulations, and delegating the adoption of the necessary measures to the competent authorities within the margins established by law.⁷⁸



Sectoral laws

Designing and implementing relevant sectoral laws to determine their compatibility with the right to food is also relevant. Legal implementation of the right to food requires a comprehensive assessment of sectoral laws that may affect the availability, accessibility and adequacy of food from the perspective of healthy and sustainable agrifood systems.⁷⁹



Governance for realizing the human right to adequate food

Current global issues, particularly in the area of food and nutrition, challenge traditional forms of decision-making at national, regional and international levels. These complexities have led to a model of global governance, which involves a shift from hierarchically exercising power (government) to managing networks (governance).^{80,81,82}

⁷⁶ FAO. (2020). The right to adequate food in constitutions. Right to adequate food in constitutions. Legal brief for parliamentarians in Latin America and the Caribbean No. 1 Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (https://www.fao.org/publications/card/en/c/CB0448EN).

⁷⁷ FAO. (2010). Guide on Legislating for the Right to Food. Book 1. Rome. 362 pp. (https://www.fao.org/3/i0815e/i0815e00.pdf).

⁷⁸ FAO. (2020). Framework laws on the right to adequate food. Legal brief for parliamentarians in Latin America and the Caribbean No. 2. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (https://www.fao.org/publications/card/fr/c/CB0447EN/).

⁷⁹ FAO, IFAD, WHO, WFP and UNICEF. (2022). The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2022. Repurposing food and agricultural policies to make healthy diets more affordable. Rome, FAO. (https://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/cc0639en).

⁸⁰ Rosenau, James (2005), "Governance in the Twenty-First Century", in Rorden Wilkinson (ed.), The Global Governance Reader, New York, Routledge, pp. 45-63.

⁸¹ Finkelstein, Lawrence S. (1995), "What Is Global Governance?", Global Governance, vol. 1, issue 3, pp. 367-372.

⁸² Gillespie, S., Haddad, L., Mannar, V., Menon, P., and Nisbett, N. (2013). The politics of reducing malnutrition: building commitment and accelerating progress. The Lancet, 382(9891), 552–569. (https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(13)60842-9/fulltext).

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Coordination, cooperation and partnership

Evidence shows that when strong political will is translated into laws, public policies and programmes, food security and nutrition indicators tend to improve significantly, enhancing people's quality of life. Parliamentarians play a key role in designing and passing laws, policies and budgets to transform agrifood systems in order to reduce malnutrition in all its forms and to guarantee the human right to adequate food, ensuring equal opportunities for women and men.⁸³

The Voluntary Guidelines to Support the Progressive Realization of the Right to Adequate Food in the Context of National Food Security, or the Right to Food Guidelines (RTFG), were adopted in 2004 as a practical tool to guide nations towards achieving the right to food for all. Since 2004, this voluntary policy tool has provided members with guidance on how to transform the achievement of the human right to food from its international legislative roots through national policies, laws and programmes into a tangible and implementable operational objective to end hunger and ensure food and nutrition security for all.

Parliamentary action has been instrumental in putting the right to adequate food at the top of political, social and economic agendas. As we approach October 2024 and the twentieth anniversary of the adoption of the RTFG, this is an opportunity to reflect on progress and obstacles and to remind ourselves of the legal, moral and collective obligation of nations and the urgency of eradicating hunger, food and nutrition insecurity as we begin the countdown to the 2030 SDG targets.

Parliamentary alliances have proved able to play a key, strategic role in addressing the problems and challenges that exacerbate food insecurity and malnutrition. The parliamentary sector takes on a crucial role as an agent of change in promoting and developing measures for transforming agrifood systems, requiring policy coordination at intergovernmental and international level.^{82,84,85}.

The commitment to enhance different levels of cooperation, including South-South and Triangular Cooperation, helps fulfil the human right to adequate food.⁸⁶

⁸³ IPU and FAO. (2021). Food systems and nutrition. Handbook for Parliamentarians No. 32. Rome. (https://www.fao.org/policy-support/tools-and-publications/resources-details/en/c/1415158/).

⁸⁴ Gillespie, S., Haddad, L., Mannar, V., Menon, P., and Nisbett, N. (2013). The politics of reducing malnutrition: building commitment and accelerating progress. The Lancet, 382(9891), 552–569. (https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(13)60842-9/fulltext)

⁸⁵ Swinburn, B. and Moore, M. (2014). Urgently Needed: voices for integrity in public policy making. Aust. N. Z. J. Public Health, 38(6): 505.

⁸⁶ FAO. (2013). Framework Law "Right to Food, Food Security and Sovereignty" Eighteenth Ordinary Meeting of the Latin American Parliament (page 44). Panama: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.



