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# PROPERTY RIGHTS AND RESOURCE GOVERNANCE PROJECT (PRRGP)

OPPORTUNITIES FOR USAID ENGAGEMENT ON WOMEN'S  
PROPERTY RIGHTS IN VIETNAM

August 2013

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Report authored by: Elisa Scalise, Landesa; and Xiaobei Wang, Landesa.

Implemented by:

Tetra Tech ARD

159 Bank Street, Suite 300

Burlington, Vermont 05401

Tel: (802) 658-3890

Email: [ard@tetrattech.com](mailto:ard@tetrattech.com)

Task Manager: Mark Freudenberger ([Mark.Freudenberger@tetrattech.com](mailto:Mark.Freudenberger@tetrattech.com))

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The author's views expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the views of the United States Agency for International Development or the United States Government.



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# ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CEPEW	Center for Education Promotion and Empowerment of Women
CGFED	Research Center for Gender, Family and Environment in Development
COHRE	Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DFID	Department for International Development
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ILO	International Labor Organization
IQC	Indefinite Quantity Contract
LURC	Land Use Rights Certificate
MFL	Marriage and Family Law
MOLISA	Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PRRGP	Property Rights and Resource Governance Project
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VCCI	Vietnam Chamber of Commerce and Industry

# EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Gender and land tenure specialists from Landesa completed a mission on behalf of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) in Vietnam in May 2013. The purpose of the mission was to identify the issues; examine the gaps in programming; and recommend suitable interventions related to improving women's land rights in Vietnam, thus improving their economic empowerment.

Vietnam has experienced rapid development from an extremely poor country to a lower-middle-income country in the past few decades. Through successful land reform, Vietnam has made great progress in agricultural production, which contributed greatly to improved household income in rural Vietnam. Women's work in agriculture has become increasingly visible in Vietnam and is making crucial contributions to agricultural production; economic growth; and the well-being of their families, communities, and the country. Yet in Vietnam, women's rights to agricultural land are much weaker than those of men.

Land is a critical asset that can contribute to the economic empowerment of rural women. Vietnam's laws emphasize gender equality regarding property and land rights and Vietnam has surpassed many other developing countries by legally requiring that Land Use Rights Certificates (LURC) bear the names of both husband and wife. However, women still face many challenges when it comes to exercising or protecting their land rights in practice. Key findings in this report suggest that:

1. Even though women make up the majority of agricultural land users, women's land rights issues are ignored in the on-going national-level discussions on the revision of the 2013 Land Law.
2. The percentage of LURCs including women's names continues to be low, especially compared with the number of women who use agricultural land.
3. There are still some obstacles that strongly discourage women from turning to legal institutions for help, which in turn affects their ability to exercise their land rights. Meanwhile, the mediation groups and committees, as important institutions for handling small disputes at the grass-roots level, reinforce customs and practices that exclude women from exercising their land rights.
4. There are gender-based discrepancies in land allocation and transfers. In the original allocation of land to farming households, the application of seemingly neutral standards of land allocation leads to unequal results for men and women. Likewise, women are less likely to inherit land rights than men.
5. The opportunities and risks of moving to economies of scale in agriculture will likely disproportionately impact rural women.
6. Women lack the access to information related to land planning and zoning, which is strongly related to state land appropriation and compensation to farmers for loss of land.
7. Rural women are in a vulnerable position and face many different challenges than men in the process of industrialization and urbanization, which will negatively impact women's and their family's livelihoods.

As USAID/Vietnam considers how it might engage in improving land rights for women in Vietnam, it can explore the following opportunities. The suggested programs are based on discussions with respondents in the field, analysis of key findings, and Landesa's comparative experience working on similar issues elsewhere. They are targeted to consider the sensitivity of land as an issue in Vietnam, USAID's interest to "fill gaps" where other donors may not be active, and USAID's objective to help foster more inclusive economic development; and to capitalize on already positive relationships that USAID has with certain Ministries and agencies.

1. Join and support existing coalitions bringing gender perspective to the debate around the new draft Land Law, and the subsequent implementation regulations and guidelines.
2. Provide rural communities with legal awareness and information related to land rights and land administration and management processes.
3. Create a new coalition on policy advocacy related to rural women's economic empowerment, which could consider property rights for women amongst other key areas.
4. Foster comparative learning opportunities for key stakeholders on how to promote economic development for rural women with a focus on property rights.
5. Support access to justice initiatives that help enforce rural women's land rights, especially in rural areas.



# I.0 INTRODUCTION

Gender and land tenure specialists from Landesa, subcontracted to Tetra Tech ARD under the Property Rights and Resource Governance Program (PRRGP) Indefinite Quantity Contract (IQC), completed a mission on behalf of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) in Vietnam from May 9 to May 23, 2013. The purpose of the mission was to identify the issues; examine the gaps in programming; and recommend suitable interventions related to improving women's land rights in Vietnam, thus improving their economic empowerment.

The mission consisted of meetings with USAID staff, local and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs), program staff from land projects and related projects funded by bilateral and multilateral donors, representatives from government, and representatives from mass organizations. See Annex I for a list of meetings conducted during the mission.

During the mission, the team also conducted an abbreviated short-course on land tenure and property rights (with emphasis on gender) for USAID and United States Embassy staff in Vietnam.

This report describes key findings and identifies concrete, targeted opportunities for USAID engagement on women's land rights in Vietnam. It begins with a brief description of the context, including the legal framework, and then presents the team's findings and recommendations.

## 2.0 METHODOLOGY

To complete this report, the assessment team first conducted an in-depth review of the laws governing women's land rights in Vietnam, and a review of the extant literature on women's land rights, land reforms, and land and property rights related laws and policies in Vietnam. It also reviewed USAID Vietnam Mission documents which pertain to USAID's activities in other sectors which have some bearing on land rights generally and on women's land rights and economic development (these included, among other things, the USAID gender assessment for Vietnam). Finally, the assessment team reviewed project documents from other key actors in the land sector in Vietnam. The report refers the source of its statements either in the text itself or through the use of citations.

While in country, the assessment team conducted key stakeholder and key informant interviews (see list in Annex ONE) with local NGOs international NGOs, bilateral and multilateral donors, local research organizations and local advocacy organizations, government, leaders of mass organizations, project staff on land sector projects in Vietnam, USAID-funded land, natural resource, legal reform, economic development related projects in Vietnam, and USAID Mission staff. Time and budget constraints did not permit any interviews or focus group discussions with the especially rural women whom are the topic of this report. To address this constraint, the team made especially great effort to spend more time with local NGOs and mass organizations who have a strong field presence, and with project-staff working on projects for which field research and analysis was a core element.

The interviews began with open-ended questions, which sought to establish the depth, breadth of experience of the respondent, as well as to identify what aspects of the inquiry the respondent was best placed to answer. It then moved to more specific questioning, intended to validate what had been interpreted from the literature and what had been learned from previous interviews.

# 3.0 THE IMPORTANCE OF LAND RIGHTS FOR WOMEN

Land is a critical asset for both urban and rural women and men in developing countries. Yet there are clear differences in the needs, uses, preferences, and rights that women and men have in land. There are many reasons why it is important to focus on gender equity in land rights. Women produce most of the food in the developing world, and there are positive relationships among women's land rights and food security, agricultural productivity, household well-being, and poverty alleviation. Yet, while women provide the overwhelming bulk of agricultural labor, they rarely own or control the land on which they work (Olusi 1997). In urban settings, although women often have little control over their housing situation, they nevertheless tend to have the primary responsibility in dealing with all of the problems inherent in inadequate and insecure housing, as they spend more time in the home (Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions [COHRE] 2008). Secure land rights can also enable women to be more involved in decision-making within the family (Katz and Chamorro 2002).

On the macro level, gender equality in the distribution of economic and financial assets can help reduce poverty and increase economic growth (Quisumbing 1995). Many studies have found that “female farmers are equally efficient as male farmers, once individual characteristics and input levels are controlled for” (Quisumbing 1996) and that this efficiency can be improved by more secure land rights. For instance, studies in sub-Saharan Africa conclude that total efficiency in agricultural production would be improved if, instead of allocating higher amounts of labor and fertilizer to men, resources were distributed more equitably across men's and women's land plots (Allendorf 2006, Udry 1996). In Peru, economists found that land rights gave women stronger fallback positions, meaning they have more resources to turn to when denied rights in their married homes, therefore increasing their bargaining power (Deere 2004).

In addition, women who hold stronger property rights in land are less likely to become economically vulnerable. When faced with household shocks (such as abandonment, sickness, divorce, or widowhood), those who have access to land can turn to their land for self-employment and food production (Quisumbing 1995). A study in South America found that urban abused women “experienced challenges in finding a place to live where they could be free from violence, and for some women this predicament alone sadly prevented them from fleeing their abusive relationship” (COHRE 2010). Property rights can increase a woman's bargaining power within the household, and land rights can empower women to participate more effectively in their immediate communities and in the larger civil and political aspects of society.

Moreover, when considering household wellbeing, studies show that it matters *who* within the household manages the family's resources, including land. Women are much more likely to spend their income on their children's nutritional and educational needs as compared to men (Quisumbing 1990). Data from Central America indicates that greater female landholdings are associated with increases in food expenditures and child educational attainment (Katz and Chamorro 2002). Another study found a positive relationship concerning the amount of assets, including land, that a woman possesses at the time of marriage and the shares of household expenditures devoted to food, education, health care, and children's clothing (Quisumbing and Maluccio 2002).

Notwithstanding the positive relationship among women's land rights and food security, agricultural productivity, household well-being, and poverty alleviation, land rights for women are often more insecure than those of men. This can be attributed to a number of factors, including:

- Cultural, religious, or legal prohibitions against women—or certain women—gaining land rights through inheritance, marriage, transfer, markets, or by gift;
- Customs related to marriage, divorce, bride price/dowry, and polygamy;
- Policies, laws, regulations, and procedures that overtly discriminate against women;
- Policies, laws, regulations, and procedures that are poorly drafted and inadvertently discriminate against women;
- Rights to land for women that are not enforced or unenforceable in practice because they are not socially or culturally legitimate;
- Lack of information on land rights; and
- Social, physical, institutional, and psychological barriers for women to enforce their rights.

Reform programs that aim to change property rights regimes must consider these factors to ensure that women are not made vulnerable in the process.

# 4.0 THE VIETNAMESE CONTEXT

## 4.1 ECONOMIC GROWTH

Since the initiation of the political and economic reforms (Doi Moi) in 1986, Vietnam has developed from an extremely poor country to a lower-middle-income country. The economy grew at an annual average rate of 7.3 percent between 1990 and 2010 (World Bank 2012). The per capita income reached \$1,130 in 2010 and during the period 1993 – 2008 the proportion of the population in poverty fell sharply from 58 percent to 14.5 percent (World Bank 2011). The welfare of the average citizen has also dramatically improved. With the rapid expansion of the economy, Vietnam also experienced high levels of growth of international trade; large-scale inflows of foreign direct investment; and almost universal access to primary education, health care, and life-sustaining infrastructure such as paved roads, electricity, piped water, and housing (World Bank 2012).

Vietnam's economic growth has improved the quality of life for many Vietnamese, but this progress has been associated with increasing social and economic disparities. Some sectors of the population, particularly the rural poor, ethnic minorities, and female-headed households, are not benefiting equally from the economic growth. Disparities have widened between urban and rural populations, between ethnic minorities and the majority population, and between the rich and poor. The income share held by the wealthiest fifth of the population rose from 43 percent in 1993 to 45 percent in 2006; that of the poorest fifth fell from 8 percent to 7 percent (Vandemoortele and Bird 2011). Poverty still affects close to 15 percent of Vietnamese people, including around 50 percent of the ethnic minority population, which compose 14 percent of the population and who live mainly in remote upland areas (United Nations [UN] 2009).

## 4.2 IMPORTANCE AND VALUE OF WOMEN'S PROPERTY RIGHTS IN VIETNAM

Over the last few decades, women's work in agriculture has become more visible in Vietnam. In the 1990s alone, household farm employment by men decreased by 0.3 percent annually while that of women rose by 0.9 percent annually (Akram-Lodhi 2004). To date, 58 percent of the female labor force is employed in agriculture as compared to 51 percent of the male labor force (International Labor Organization [ILO] 2012). Women have broadened and deepened their involvement and are making crucial contributions to agricultural production, economic growth, and the well-being of their families, communities, and the country.

Though women make up the majority of agricultural land users in Vietnam, their rights to the land that they work on are insecure. This is due to a number of factors, including cultural practices and social norms of behavior that give men preference in matters of land or household assets. This is illustrated in the practices of inheritance in patrilineal cultures (which are the most common in Vietnam). In most of Vietnam, women are less likely to inherit land rights than men. Although women and men are granted equal rights to inherit by law; in practice, patrilineal customary systems have greater influence over decision-making. For instance, the most common pattern of household division of property for patrilineal groups is that sons receive a proportion of land earmarked for the maintenance of ancestral rites. This piece of property is connected to the ancestors and to generations of households and is called the *fire and incense property* or ancestral property. Because of its role of linking generations of family members, this property has symbolic value and is central to familial gatherings and important family rites. This is a major factor limiting a daughter's inheritance, and the fact that the eldest son has responsibilities in important rituals serves to legitimize his claims over family property. As

the designated successor, the eldest son enjoys an important role in the household, but this role also comes with some pressure to remain close to the family home. Daughters are not under the same pressures. These different roles and responsibilities rationalize the different treatment of men and women in terms of inheritance (Hoàng Cẩm 2012).

The gendered norms of behavior that influence dispute resolution practices in Vietnam also have the effect of making rural women's land rights insecure. Researchers have found that grassroots mediation committees and mediation groups have a tendency to resolve disputes according to custom (sentiment) rather than to the law (reason) (Hoang Cam 2012). In this way, mediation groups and committees reinforce customs and practices that discriminate against women, especially when disputes arise between family members and within the village, often in the name of social harmony, and based on the idea that women have the responsibility to act in a way that maintains peaceful relations in the family (Hoàng Cẩm 2012).

In addition, political participation of women in Vietnam at every level is much less than that of men. Even though representation of women in the National Assembly is high by regional standards, there are signs that women do not have an equal voice in the public sphere. Vietnam has passed important laws and policies in relation to gender equality but implementation is weak due to a lack of knowledge of these laws, a lack of implementing capacity, and the limited presence of women in public decision-making forums and in politics more generally (World Bank 2008).

### **4.3 LAND REFORM IN VIETNAM**

Approximately one-third of Vietnam's land area is used for agriculture; about 70 percent of Vietnam's population live in rural areas, working primarily in agriculture (USAID 2012). Agriculture remains the most important economic sector in Vietnam, accounting for more than 22 percent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 30 percent of exports, and 52 percent of all employment (International Fund for Agricultural Development [IFAD] 2010). Vietnam has made great progress in agricultural production, having moved from being a net rice importer to the world's second-largest rice exporter. In addition, Vietnam is a significant player in world markets for coffee, pepper, cashew, and seafood (Marsh, MacAulay, and Van Hung 2006). The growth in agricultural output contributed greatly to improved household income in rural Vietnam.

These achievements in agricultural development are recognized as having been made possible by land reforms in the past decades (Marsh, MacAulay, and Van Hung 2006). Vietnam's land reform started in 1981 with the Communist decree known as the "Contract 100." This decree authorized agricultural cooperatives to assign parcels of land to individual households on an annual basis and contract directly with these households for the planting, tending, and harvesting of rice and other crops. At the end of the crop season, farmers were given income based on the output produced and labor input used, while the outputs were still under the control of the cooperative. The introduction of the system was the first step in the process of moving toward a market-oriented economy in the agricultural sector.

The Household Responsible Contract System was introduced with the issuance of Resolution No. 10 of the Politburo in 1988, which was commonly known as Contract 10. Under this system, farmers were assigned by the state agricultural land for 10- to 15-year terms and the farm household was recognized for the first time as the main unit of agricultural production. Households were also given greater "production rights" including the right to purchase and use inputs and to sell outputs.

With equality among households as the primary guiding principle, the land was allocated to each household with consideration being given both to land quality and the number of laborers in a household. Consequentially, the amount of land allocated varied among households and this land was typically composed of a number of plots of varying land quality (Marsh and MacAulay 2001).

The 1993 Land Law granted land rights users even more rights, including broadened transfer rights, receipt of a state issued Land Use Rights Certificate (LURC) and extension of the use term to 20 years for annual crop land, aquaculture land and land for making salt. The law prompted one of the largest land-titling programs

seen to date in developing regions, both in terms of scope and pace of implementation: within seven years, about 11 million LURCs were issued (Do and Iyer 2008). By 2009, the state had allocated to land users 72 percent of Vietnam's total land area and almost all of its agricultural land. By 2010, it had issued LURCs covering roughly half of Vietnam's land parcels and more than 90 percent of farm households (USAID 2012).

### History of Land Distribution in Vietnam

The current distribution of land in Vietnam stems from a series of reforms that extend as far back as 1954. From the mid-1950s to 1975, the nation was divided into two countries: the Democratic Republic of Vietnam in the North, and the Republic of Vietnam in the South. Each country had a different agrarian structure. Communist reforms in the 1950s imposed agricultural collectivization in the north, while the south carried out a *land-to-the-tiller* program in the 1970s. The latter process provided ownership rights to former tenant farmers and led to approximately three-quarters of tenant households receiving rights to roughly 44% of the farm area in the south. This allocation to smallholders resulted in a 30% increase in rice production. The land-to-the-tiller reforms were largely abandoned when the Communists took power in 1975 and re-unified the country, but laid the foundation for the practice of household farming that spread across the country following de-collectivization in the 1980s.

In the late 1970s, almost 97% of rural households in the north belonged to collectivized farms. Although Communist leadership attempted to collectivize the south, peasant households resisted, and only 24.5% joined cooperatives. Collectivized areas in the north and the south experienced low and declining agricultural growth and food grain availability.

The government eventually suspended its failing attempt to collectivize the south, and implemented a series of measures in the late 1980s to transition Vietnam to a market-oriented economy. These steps, known as the *Doi Moi* reform process, included the allocation of land-use rights to farmers. By 2009, the state had allocated 72% of Vietnam's total land area and almost all of its agricultural land to land users, with cropland allocation among farm households being relatively equitable as compared with many other developing and transitional countries. Farm sizes vary, but are typically around 0.2 hectares per capita. Farms in the Mekong Delta region occupy 1.2 hectares on average, which is considerably larger than farm sizes in the Red River Delta area.

Land allocation processes vary by district. Generally, equity among households is a key consideration, and the process takes into account the number of laborers in a household and the quality of the land. Typically, the total amount of land allocated varies among households and each household's land is split into plots of varying quality. There are now approximately 70 million parcels of land in Vietnam.

(Excerpted from: USAID Country Profile, Property Rights and Resource Government, Vietnam [2012]; see also Prosterman and Brown [2009])

In 2003, the Land Law was amended to include one important change for women: it required that the names of both a husband and wife be listed on a LURC if the land use right is held in common. Criticisms of the gendered consequences of the law led to a reformulation in the 2003 Land Law, which allowed for the names of both husband and wife to be stated on the LURC. The Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment issued guidelines stating that LURCs issued before 2004 should be replaced with titles which clearly stated the name of both spouses. As a result, there has been a gradual increase in female-only and joint holders of LURCs for annual agricultural and residential land across regions and household characteristics since 2004 (World Bank 2008).

In October 2012, the National Assembly began considering a new draft land law. The thrust of the reforms under consideration focus on openness and transparency of the state's role in land use planning, the transparency of land administration systems, decentralization of land administration responsibilities to local government, and reform of the regulations of "land recovery" by the state (mostly focused on how compensation for loss of use is determined). The new Land Law would also address a series of key issues, including the compulsory acquisition mechanisms, land price determination, land dispute resolution, and the expiring 20-year agricultural land use rights. The National Assembly has postponed the voting for the revised

Land Law until its next meeting in October 2013; and issued Resolution 49/2013/QH13 on June 21 to extend expiring agricultural use rights until they revised Land Law is issued. -

The overall effect of land reforms in Vietnam was to foster a transition from a system of production based on public ownership and control toward one in which farm households possess effective property rights over land and farm assets and make production decisions guided by market signals. This transition significantly increased production incentives and output and led to a period of sustained agricultural growth (Cervantes-Godoy and Dewbre 2010).

At the same time, Vietnam's agriculture also faces many problems and challenges. First, with the rapid industrialization and urbanization, the state's demand for land for development has increased significantly. Although the law governing state acquisition of land (which the law describes as state "recovery" of the land from private users) requires the state to pay compensation based on the market price of the land, the state lacks procedures for assessing market price and compensation for "recovered" land often falls below market price. Second, there is an increase in the number of rural households with no land, particularly in the Mekong Delta area (Nguyen, McGrath, and White, 2006). Surveys by the Government Statistical Office in 1994 and 1998 indicate that during the intervening years the number of landless households increased from 0.7 percent of the Mekong total population, to 6 percent of the region's population (Vietnam News 1999). Third, although a land market is emerging in Vietnam, it is still constrained by lack of transparency, limits on lease periods, the costs and delays associated with transfer procedures and the government's intervention in the allocation, transfer, use, and valuation of land. Fourth, the individual land use rights conflict with the land use practices of some ethnic communities who prefer to maintain traditional collective management system and refuse to accept individual land use rights. Although the 2003 Land Law provides for a kind of communal tenure by recognizing that the state may allocate land to a "community of citizens," the communal land tenure has not been realized in practice and the potential for conflict remains (Andersen 2011).



# 5.0 LEGAL FRAMEWORK FOR LAND RIGHTS IN VIETNAM

The Constitution of Vietnam provides that land belonging to the state is owned by the entire people (Const. art. 17), and that legal property of individuals shall not be nationalized (art. 23). Citizens have the right to own property, including housing, and the right to use state-allocated land (art. 58). The state administers land on behalf of the people, and allocates it to individuals and organizations for long-term and stable use (art. 19). Those who have been allocated land for use may transfer the right to use land and are duty bound to protect the land (art. 20). These principles are echoed in the 2003 Land Law.

Under the Civil Code, the term “property” includes “property rights” (Civil Code art. 1653) and owners are defined as those who have three rights to property: the right to possess, the right to use, and the right to dispose (art. 164). Ownership rights can be established in a number of ways, including by transfer and inheritance (art. 170(5)). Owners have the right to sell, exchange, donate, lend, bequeath, abandon, or dispose of their property (art. 192).

The Civil Code recognizes a number of categories of property ownership in Vietnam: state ownership; collective ownership; private ownership; common ownership; and ownership by political, social, or professional organization (Civil Code art. 172). However, land is a special type of property. Property under state ownership includes land (art. 200) and the government manages state-owned property to ensure its efficient use (art. 201). Property under private ownership by an individual can include residential houses, but ownership of the house does not entail ownership of the land on which it sits (art. 211). An individual cannot own land (Civil Code 212). Instead, individuals can be assigned rights to use state-owned land (Civil Code art. 206).

The law defines common ownership as ownership of property by more than one person. It may be by shares or by “integration” (Civil Code art. 214) and is established by law or by agreement between the owners (art. 215). Common ownership by integration means that each owner’s share is not determined and each owner has rights and obligations to the whole (art. 217). Common ownership by shares means that each owner’s share of the ownership right is determined and each owner has all rights and obligations to the owner’s corresponding share (art. 216). Common ownership by husband and wife is common ownership by integration and both common owners have equal rights to possess, use, and dispose of the property (art. 219).

## 5.1 LAND USE RIGHTS

While land in Vietnam is owned by the entire population, the state acts as the representative of the owners’ interests (Land Law art. 1) and exercises the right to dispose of land rights; regulate land-related financial policies; and assign land rights to land users, including prescription of the rights and obligations of land users (arts. 2-4).

Domestic households and individuals may be land users (Land Law art. 9(2)), and land use must comply with the purpose designated for that land use (i.e., if designated for agriculture, it must be used for agriculture) and must be economical, efficient, and protective of the wider environment (art. 11). Article 13 of the Land Law

stipulates the different use purpose categories. The People's Committees (administrative unit) of rural and urban districts, provincial capitals and towns have the power to assign land use rights to individuals and households, designate use, and change prescribed land uses (art. 37). Land use rights' duration are set for "long-term stable use" (this term has not been further defined) for residential and other land (art. 66), and 20 years for agricultural land (art. 67). The beginning of the term is the date of the land assignment or October 15, 1993, whichever is earlier (art. 67). Land users can continue to be assigned land at expiry of the term, provided their use has been in compliance with the law; however, they may not transfer the land use rights once the term has expired (art. 106(1)(d)).

Land use rights may be exchanged, transferred, leased, subleased, inherited, donated, mortgaged, and used as guarantee for capital; users are entitled to receive compensation when the state "recovers" the land by taking it from them (Land Law art. 106). Land use rights may be transferred but only for the remainder of the land use duration (art. 69).

Land users must register their land use rights, must carry out necessary procedures for transfers of use rights, and must fulfill legally mandated financial obligations associated with the use rights. Users must also protect the land, comply with regulations related to land, and return the land to the state when it deems necessary or at expiration of the term (Land Law art. 107).

The state is obligated to issue LURCs for all land that has been assigned (Land Law art. 49) and where land use rights are common property of husband and wife, the LURCs must be inscribed clearly with both of their full names. Likewise in cases of joint land use rights between many individuals (art. 48(3)). A LURC is required to transfer land use rights (art. 106(1)(a)). New LURCs must be granted after any transfer, including inheritance, sale and gift (art. 49(4)). LURCs are granted by People's Committees (art. 52).

## **5.2 LAND-RELATED DISPUTES**

The state encourages land related disputes to be reconciled through grassroots reconciliation processes and the results should be recorded in writing (Land Law art. 135(1)(2)). Those that cannot be resolved in this way can be brought before the People's Committees (art. 135(2)). Land users can complain about administrative decisions related to land by first bringing a claim to the President of People's Committee, and then, if dissatisfied, by filing a law suit (art. 138).

## **5.3 WOMEN'S LAND RIGHTS**

Under the Constitution of Vietnam, all citizens are equal before the law (Const. art. 52) and discrimination against women is prohibited (Const. art. 63). This is reiterated in the Law on Gender Equality (2006) and the Marriage and Family Law (MFL), which mandates equality between husbands and wives (MFL art. 2).

Under the Marriage and Family law, in marriage and family relations, the customs of groups that do not run counter to the provisions of the Marriage and Family Law are protected (MFL art. 56). Marriages must be registered, and cohabitation between a man and woman as husband and wife is not recognized as a marriage (art. 11). This means that any legal protections for spouses when it comes to property rights do not apply to those whose marriages are not registered.

Under the Civil Code, the head of the family household is the representative of the household in civil transactions for the common interests of the household; the father, mother, or another adult may be the head of household (Civil Code art. 107(1)(2)), and civil transactions performed in the common interest of the household by the household representative give rights and obligations to the entire household (art. 107(3)).

Under the Marriage and Family Law, both spouses have the right to own personal property and common property (MFL art. 32). Personal property is any property that either person owned prior to marriage, property inherited or gifted separately during the marriage period, personal belongings, and jewelry (art. 32). However, the provision for personal property in a marriage is not without qualification: if the personal

property has been put to common use and the profits or yields of that property constitute the family's sole means of livelihood, the disposition of that property must be agreed upon by both spouses (art. 33(5)).

Under the Civil Code, common property of the household can include land use rights, property that was contributed jointly by household members or presented as gift to the household, or property jointly inherited (Civil Code art. 108). Under the Marriage and Family Law, common property of the husband and wife includes property created by husband and wife, income, property jointly inherited (MFL art. 27(1)), and the land use rights *that are obtained after a marriage*. This means that land use rights (many of which were granted in 1993) that were granted to either spouse before they were married are not considered common property, but rather form part of the individual estate of the land rights user. This being so, a spouse may inherit those land use rights equally with other heirs of the same rank (see note below on inheritance).

If common property of spouses (including the land use right) is required by law to be registered, the names of both husband and wife must be inscribed in the ownership document (MFL art. 27(2)). If the question of whether property is common property is in dispute and where there is no evidence of individual property rights, then the property is assumed to be common property (art. 27(3)).

Even though a person may be nominated as household head, the law does not intend that the household head makes all household decisions. Spouses have equal obligations and rights to possess, use, and dispose of their common property (MFL art. 28(1)); transactions related to common property must be discussed and agreed upon by husband and wife (MFL art. 28(30)). Family members use common property by agreement and disposal of common property of great value must be agreed upon by all members of the household aged 15 years or older (Civil Code art. 109).

## 5.4 DIVORCE

The Civil Code provides the right to divorce (art. 42). This is reiterated in the Marriage and Family Law (art. 8), which states that divorce can be requested by either spouse. Spouses are encouraged to make use of *grassroots-level reconciliation* (see below) when divorce is sought (MFL art. 86). The parties are expected to agree upon the division of property in a divorce; if they do not agree, the court can decide (MFL art. 90). Article 95 of the Marriage and Family Law provides the principles on which division of property upon divorce should be applied. Common property must be halved, with due consideration given to each party's situation and each party's contribution (including home labor) (MFL art. 95(2)(a)), and can be divided in kind or according to the property's value (MFL art. 95(2)(d)).

Specifically, land use rights that only belong to one spouse shall continue to be owned by that spouse after divorce (MFL art. 97(1)). Land use rights that are held commonly between spouses are divided according to agreement of spouses (art. 97(2)(a)); if there is no agreement, the court will decide on the property's distribution as above for other common property. If one party will directly use the land, that party may continue to use the land but must pay a portion of value of the land use right to the other (art. 97). A common owned residential house may be divided; if indivisible, the person who remains must pay the other party the value of that party's loss (art. 98).

Personal property remains the property of each spouse in a divorce, except that where the residential home was personal property but put to common use. In this instance, the owner of the residential home must pay the other party part of the house's value, in consideration for that party's contribution to maintaining, upgrading, renovating, or repairing the home (MFL art. 99).

## 5.5 INHERITANCE

The Civil Code provides that every individual has the equal right to inherit and bequeath property rights (Civil Code art. 631). The estate includes individual property, as well as shares in common property (art. 634).

Property that is held as common property between husband and wife is by integration (art. 219) and therefore a surviving spouse retains rights to the whole.

Under the rules of intestate inheritance (which governs inheritance in the absence of a will), spouses, parents and children of the deceased are first rank of heirs and inherit equally from the estate of the deceased (Civil Code art. 676). A spouse's right to inherit is not impacted by subsequent marriage (art. 680).

Under the Marriage and Family Law, a husband and wife have equal rights to inherit each other's individual property (MFL art. 31(1)). A surviving spouse manages the common property of the marriage (art. 31(2)).

# 6.0 FINDINGS

## 6.1 LAND LAW

The need to reform the Land Law was the most commonly reported issue by respondents. The need is sparked from two key pressures. First, the 20-year term for agricultural land use rights expires in October 2013, and the current Land Law contains some restrictions on land user rights (e.g., on land transfers) after the expiry of the term. The second pressure relates to farmer dissatisfaction with the process of conversion of land use rights by the state from agricultural use to another use (most commonly for residential or industrial development) and dissatisfaction with the compensation paid by the state for loss of use rights. Additionally, there is widespread awareness that the same land is being “re-sold” to developers for prices that are well beyond what was paid to farmers in compensation.

There has been significant engagement and advocacy by international and local NGOs around reforms to the Land Law. The approach has been to work with many different stakeholders (from civil society, government, the media, mass organizations, and academic and research institutions), and focuses on widespread public consultation and reporting of results.

The new draft Land Law was on the agenda at the most recent National Assembly meeting in May 2013 but it was not voted on. The most notable reforms up for consideration relate to transparency in land use planning (i.e., process for converting land uses from agricultural to other uses) and land compensation payments for loss of use. There are also other important issues covered in the new land law, including extension of the land use term for agricultural land and consideration of lifting the ceiling on agricultural land size. Many respondents reported to Landesa that the current draft under consideration will not do enough to protect farmers’ interests.

There does not appear to be much attention to gender issues in the draft Land Law; there is little analysis and advocacy related to gender implications of proposed revisions. Even though women compose the majority of agricultural land users, there is very little discussion among those who are advocating for law reform regarding the gender-related impacts of the loss of use of agricultural land, and the fact that women who lose land typically have different alternative livelihood options than men who lose land. Generally, rural women have fewer options for off-farm employment than men; they often have lower literacy rates, have worked in agriculture their entire lives, and have few other skills.

## 6.2 LAND USE RIGHTS CERTIFICATES

Another critical land related challenge in Vietnam relates to LURCs. While LURCs are widespread and the state has established many registries, key informants suggested that the certificates and the land registry may not be an accurate reflection of present rights to land. This is because certificates have not been updated to reflect transfers that occurred after they were issued, certificates have not been reissued to reflect changes to the law requiring the names of both spouses on land certificates for commonly-held land use rights, and households may have changed in composition since the certificates were first issued (i.e., rights holders may have died).

## 6.3 WOMEN’S NAMES ON LAND USE RIGHTS CERTIFICATES

By law, LURCs should reflect the rights of both spouses if the land is held in common.

After nearly 10 years enforcement of the 2003 Land Law, inclusion of women's names on LURCs continues to be low: only 36 percent of existing LURCs for agricultural land are held jointly with spouses or in women's names for the Kinh majority, and only 23 percent of certificates are held jointly by ethnic minority women (Asian Development Bank 2006). Research into the economic value of LURCs for women in Vietnam suggests that there is a positive relationship between a woman being named on a LURC (either individually or jointly with a spouse) and the potential to improve her economic situation through self-employment in agriculture, reduction in the time engaged in housework, and increase in the maximum education attainment of girls and women in the home (Menon and Rodgers 2012). LURCs are also important for access to credit (World Bank 2008). Many people interviewed by Landesa suggested that not being named on a LURC can be an obstacle to gaining credit (using the land rights as collateral) and also to registering a business (which requires some proof of a certain amount of resources to be approved).

The obstacles to equal representation of women's names on LURCs are legal, administrative, economic, social, and cultural in nature. Interviewees also reported to Landesa that there is a lack of awareness of women's rights at the local level. Specific obstacles include the following:

- (1) According to the General Department of Land Administration, more than 90% of households in Vietnam had been issued land use certificates before the 2003 Land Law requiring joint certification of spouses came into effect (Do and Iyer 2003). These certificates were by-and-large issued in the name of the head of household, and because men are usually considered heads of households, women's names were not included. Some certificates were issued in the names of women, but these accounted for only 10-12% of the total, mostly for single or widowed households (Hatcher 2005). To add women's names to previously issued land use certificates would involve updating every certificate issued before 2003. Guidelines issued by the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment required re-issuance, but the process is time consuming and very costly both for the government and for the farmer households. Moreover, the procedures for adding women's names in the land tenure certificate are complicated, which further demotivates farmers, especially women, from adding women's names. The World Bank has engaged in a pilot project to streamline processes for re-issuing land certificates and also for ensuring that land transfers are more likely to be recorded, the pilot results have been positive, but costly.
- (2) Women themselves often have limited awareness of their legal rights and do not realize the importance of including their names in the land use certificate. In the issuance of the new land tenure certificate, women may face pressure from their spouse or extended family members and are forced to make a statement that they give up the right to put their names on the land tenure certificate.
- (3) Another barrier is the lack of commitment of local government officials to implement the requirements of the 2003 Land Law. Instead, they reportedly revert to traditions and customary practices favoring men. In addition, it is not common for rural women or men to appeal administrative decisions, even though this option is available to them by law (USAID 2012).

The government made some efforts to address this issue. The Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment issued guidelines stating that LURCs issued before 2004 should be replaced with titles that clearly state the name of both spouses. Meanwhile, Vietnam's poverty reduction strategy aimed to ensure that by 2005 the names of both husband and wife will appear on all LURCs. As a result, there has been a gradual increase in female-only titles and joint holders of LURCs since 2004. However, more targeted actions are needed both from the government and from the civil society to address the relevant issues effectively from the policy perspective, from the procedural perspective and from the ideology perspective so that more women's names are included in LURCs.

## 6.4 LAND-RELATED DISPUTE MECHANISMS

Disputes between land users over land rights at the local level are handled by mediation committees or mediation groups (otherwise known as grassroots reconciliation committees). The Land Law requires disputants to pursue mediation as a first step to resolving land related problems. The committees or groups comprise different representatives from the Fatherland Front, women's union, farmer's union, police, and others. There is a new Law on Grassroots Mediation, which was adopted in the May 2013 National Assembly that governs the mediation committees/groups.

Ensuring women's access to effective and responsive justice can play an important role in securing women's rights to land, especially when disputes arise within families or lineage groups. However, there are several factors that strongly discourage women from turning to legal institutions for help, which in turn affects their ability to exercise their land rights. These obstacles include literacy challenges faced by rural women; the fact that women are seen as "lower" than men in terms of social status and therefore less able to challenge the rights of a male, especially in a formal setting; prohibitive administrative and travel costs, which impact rural men and women; and women having less familiarity and comfort in dealing with bureaucratic processes than men.

By contrast, mediation groups, which operate at the street and village levels, and mediation committees, which operate at the commune and neighborhood levels, are more accessible for women and men to adjudicate their property disputes with others. As important institutions for handling small disputes at the grassroots level, the mediation groups and committees are expected to base their judgments on formal laws and maintain peace within the community. However, in practice, it is more likely that decisions are made based on cultural norms and beliefs based on the proper role of women in society, reinforcing customs and practices and excluding women from fully exercising their legal rights to land. On June 20, 2013, the National Assembly adopted the Law on Grassroots Mediation, which governs the roles played by mediators and their operation. Through the implementation of this law, the mediation mechanism is expected to become a more efficient means to resolving disputes at the grassroots level. However, there is still some doubt among those interviewed by Landesa as to whether members of the mediation groups and committees will rely more heavily on laws than on social norms and will strive to maintain social harmony, both of which can negatively affect women's rights to land in practice, especially in those remote rural areas where patrilineal groups dominate.

Drawing from the extant literature and from comparative contexts, there may be a few reasons for this situation. Traditional Vietnamese culture puts the onus of social harmony on women more than on men, and so women are less likely to pursue issues which they believe will be seen as antagonistic. (Hoang Cam 2012). Also, a woman asserting her land rights may have deeper implications that the mediation committee is mindful of when it makes its decisions. For example, as the designated successor to the ancestral line, the eldest son enjoys authority over certain ceremonial and other matters which are tied to specific parcels of land. The different roles and responsibilities for sons and daughters allow communities to rationalize excluding women from succession to property rights, and no doubt also comes into play when there are land related disputes. (Hoang Cam 2012). Drawing from comparative experience, it is common for more localized dispute resolution actors to think first of the impact of the resolution of a dispute on the community as a whole, and second of the impact on the individual. This is in part due to less contact with and awareness of national level laws and policies which suggest an alternate resolution, but also because those local dispute resolution actors are part of the community they serve, and are more acutely aware of the potential impact that a particular decision will have.

## 6.5 GENDER-BASED DISCREPANCIES IN LAND ALLOCATION AND TRANSFERS

In the original allocation of agricultural land to farming households in 1993, the application of seemingly neutral standards of land allocation led to unequal results for men and women. For example, one principle set

by many localities for land allocation was related to the age of household members; individuals of working-age were allotted the largest area of land and the young children the smallest. Since female-headed households often have fewer working-age adults, they, on average, tended to be allocated smaller area of land than male-headed households. (USAID 2012). Moreover, the legal retirement age in Vietnam is 55 for women and 60 for men. As a result, the amount of land allocated to women aged 55–59 was half that of men of the same age (USAID 2012).

Without taking into consideration the influence of social and cultural norms and practices that surround decisions on property rights, it would be difficult for a new law or program to have an impact on improving land rights for women.

## **6.6 LAND USE CONSOLIDATION**

There appears to be a desire on the part of the state to identify ways to develop agriculture at scale. The opportunities and risks of moving to economies of scale in agriculture will likely disproportionately impact rural women who make up the largest part of the agricultural labor force. There is a need to identify models to scale agricultural production by consolidating use (for example, farmers' production cooperatives), in a way that serves the interests of rural women, and allows them to benefit from further economic development.

## **6.7 TRANSPARENCY AND ACCESS TO LAND-RELATED DECISION MAKING BY LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

Respondents reported to Landesa that land use rights holders want more information and openness about land planning and zoning, as this is strongly related to land conversions from agricultural to other uses, loss of use of agricultural land, and payment of compensation for loss of use. Women's and men's experiences of lack of transparency differ, because women tend to be less well-informed than men, less literate, and less able to interact with government and bureaucracy than men. Women make up the majority of agricultural laborers, yet the impact of lack of transparency on agricultural land use conversions on women is not widely understood among respondents.

## **6.8 RURAL WOMEN'S VULNERABILITY IN THE FACE OF CHANGING ECONOMY**

Vietnam is now entering a crucial period of industrialization and urbanization which has resulted in extensive conversions of agricultural land to other uses. Over the past decade, the state has appropriated nearly one million hectares of agricultural land from farmers and converted it to non-agricultural use (Wells-Dang 2013). An estimated one million Vietnamese have lost land rights and left farming, seeking new employment in non-agricultural activities to sustain them (Wells-Dang 2013).

In this process, women may face many different challenges than men. For example, compared with men, women, especially those who are middle aged, have a lower rate of success in finding jobs and are less likely to be self-employed after they lose rights to use agricultural land. This will definitely have negative impacts on women and their families' livelihoods. More and more women will be affected with the quick development of urbanization in Vietnam. It is critical for the government, civil society, and other stake holders to promote skills training for affected rural women, assist them with employment guidance, provide them with relevant information, and enhance their competitiveness in the job market.



# 7.0 PROGRAMMATIC OPPORTUNITIES

This section describes some opportunities for USAID/Vietnam consideration as it determines how it might engage on improving land rights for women in Vietnam. The suggested programs are based on discussions with respondents in the field, analysis of findings, and Landesa's comparative experience working on similar issues elsewhere. The suggestions are targeted to consider the sensitivity of land as an issue in Vietnam, USAID's interest to "fill gaps" where other donors may not be active, USAID's objective to help foster more inclusive economic development, and to capitalize on already positive relationships that USAID has with certain Ministries or agencies. They can be scaled depending on budget options.

## **7.1 JOIN AND SUPPORT EXISTING COALITIONS BRINGING GENDER PERSPECTIVE TO THE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF LAND POLICY, ESPECIALLY TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF IMPLEMENTING GUIDELINES SHOULD THE DRAFT LAND LAW BE ENACTED**

Despite not being voted on in the most recent National Assembly meeting in May 2013, the overwhelming opinion of those Landesa spoke with is that a new Land Law must be adopted in the October 2013 meeting. While there appears to be many agencies engaged in advocacy around Land Law reforms, no single agency is committed to advocacy focusing on development of the implementing guidelines and regulations that will greatly influence how women and men farmers experience the new law.

The multi-stakeholder advocacy model which has been used to coordinate efforts around the Land Law reform appears to be a relatively successful approach to engage on policy and legal advocacy in Vietnam. Coalitions are best composed of civil society organization (CSOs), government, National Assembly, media, local and international NGOs, and donors.

There appears to be a need, at least from the perspective of CSOs and mass organizations, to learn from other countries regarding best practices and established tools for improving women's rights to land in practice. There will also be a need to focus on potential gender implications of implementation of the new law, and also to ensure that monitoring activities are gender sensitive to be sure to capture the different impacts that the reformed law has on farming men and women. USAID could consider joining the existing coalition and providing ongoing gender technical assistance. It could do this by sponsoring the participation of a local CSO that is tasked with providing the gender perspective to the debate. USAID could work to build the technical capacity of the CSO by funding technical assistance, which includes information on tactics and best practices from comparative settings.

## **7.2 PROVIDE RURAL COMMUNITIES WITH LEGAL AWARENESS AND INFORMATION RELATED TO LAND RIGHTS AND LAND ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT PROCESSES**

Lack of awareness and knowledge about rights and obligations of land rights holders is an issue that cuts across all findings. The lack of awareness runs from the farming women and men, to local and provincial

administrators. While there has been some effort on the part of mass organizations to raise awareness of women's land rights, all respondents agree that more is needed. While cost considerations are important for a widespread campaign, there are models from Vietnam that appear to have worked well, including the use of a multi-pronged approach involving media, mass organizations, and local NGOs. This approach may also work to help build the capacity of grassroots mediation groups. USAID might consider sponsoring such a campaign, and providing some technical support to: (a) an assessment of the best messaging and approaches to messaging, and (b) creation of materials which can be used by implementing organizations.

### **7.3 CREATE A NEW COALITION ON POLICY ADVOCACY RELATED TO RURAL WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT, WHICH COULD CONSIDER PROPERTY RIGHTS FOR WOMEN AMONGST OTHER KEY AREAS**

Because land and land rights are an increasingly volatile issue in Vietnam (in the face of increasing land scarcity and high profile land conversions), USAID should consider engaging in women's economic empowerment, with a focus on property rights. There is interest among women's rights-based NGOs, the Vietnam Women's Union, and others to identify ways that women can use property and other rights to help strengthen families by empowering women economically. USAID could begin with a broad assessment of the ways in which women are limited economically (including but not limited to their rights to property) and then use it as a basis to form a coalition on policy advocacy to address policy-level obstacles. The multi-stakeholder model mentioned above could be used to bring national and widespread attention to the issues and engagement on the solutions. The coalition could also focus on those women who do lose their rights to land in government takings in order to consider policies that will assist them in employment transition.

### **7.4 FOSTER COMPARATIVE LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES FOR CSOS AND OTHERS ON HOW TO PROMOTE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT FOR RURAL WOMEN WITH A FOCUS ON PROPERTY RIGHTS**

There is a clear interest among different stakeholders to learn from the lessons of other countries in attempting to improve the land rights for women, especially as it relates to land use rights certification. USAID could consider sponsoring a workshop or series of workshops around the country that focuses on concrete and pragmatic approaches to improving land rights for women in comparable socio-cultural and political contexts. For example, the Laos experience in land titling may be an example worth considering as well as the land titling and registration experience in the Kyrgyz Republic. For all the attention given land rights in Vietnam, there has not yet been much attention given to the gender dimensions of land rights as they relate to inclusive economic growth. Such a conference or workshop could spark national and regional discussion, but also focus on best practices or lessons learned so that participants would have clear idea of what can be done to address the issues surrounding insecure land rights for women.

### **7.5 SUPPORT ACCESS TO JUSTICE INITIATIVES THAT RELATE TO ENFORCEMENT OF WOMEN'S LAND RIGHTS, ESPECIALLY IN RURAL AREAS**

Helping rural women access justice could do much to strengthen their land rights. Most land-related decisions and administration take place at the local level and it is in rural areas where discriminatory views on the proper role of women are most entrenched. At the same time, fewer resources are expended on ensuring that local-level decision makers are complying with national-level laws and policies.

There is an opportunity to engage on these issues by assisting with the implementation of the new law on grassroots reconciliation. The scope of engagement would depend on available funds (local-level engagement can be costly), but USAID might consider helping to develop guides and tools to implement the law and to ensure that land rights related laws are applied in local level decision-making, and then working with either a mass organization or a local NGO to test materials with a few communities, assessing their use and validity and modifying accordingly. The piloted and revised materials could then be the basis of advocacy with actors who have national reach (international NGOs, mass organizations, government) to encourage their use of the same materials in their work. While not all cases necessarily include women, these activities would have the effect of assisting women because they would help ensure that all land rights related disputes were resolved in a gender sensitive way. This approach was used with great success by USAID in Rwanda.

# ANNEX I: MEETINGS HELD

Name	Title	Organization
Pham Kim Ngoc	Senior Researcher, Executive Director	CGFED: Research Center for Gender, Family and Environment in Development (also current chair of GenComNet network)
Mark Fenn	Country Representative	Winrock International
Bert Maerten	Associate Country Director	Oxfam (Hong Kong)
Andrew Wells-Dang	Team Leader, Advocacy Coalition Support Program	Oxfam (Great Britain)
Patricia Barandun	Head of Governance and Participation Team	United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
Le Nam Huong	Programme Officer, Governance and Participation Team	United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
Than Thi Thien Huong	Social Development Sector Manager	Department for International Development (DFID)
Nguyen The Dzung	Senior Operations Officer Rural Development	The World Bank
Phan Vinh Quang	Deputy Project Director	STAR PLUS (DAI)
Dan Rathbun	Project Director	STAR PLUS (DAI)
Tran Van Tuan	Program Manager	ActionAid
Hoang Phong Anh	Head of Hanoi Legal Team	DFDL, Legal and Tax
Phan Minh Thuy	Manager of Legal Department	Vietnam Chamber of Commerce and Industry (VCCI)
Pham Kim Ngoc	Executive Director Senior Researcher	Family and Environment in Develop(CGFED)
Pham Thuy Anh	CEO	Cooperation and Development Foundation
Mark Fenn	Country Representative	Winrock International
Nguyen Thi Hoai Linh, M.A.	Head of International Relations Department	Vietnam Women's Union
	Head of Law and Policy Department	Vietnam Women's Union
Ngo Thu Ha	Vice Director	Center for Education Promotion and Empowerment of Women(CEPEW)
Le Kim Dung (and others)	Director General, International Cooperation Department	Ministry of Labour, Invalids, and Social Affairs (MOLISA)

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**U.S. Agency for International Development**

1300 Pennsylvania Avenue, NW

Washington, DC 20523

Tel: (202) 712-0000

Fax: (202) 216-3524

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