



The Human Rights-Based Approach in German Development Cooperation

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Abbreviations

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian States
BMZ	Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development
CAT	Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CPD	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DED	German Development Service
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (German Agency for Technical Cooperation)
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
HRBA	Human rights-based approach
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICERD	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ICPED	International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance
ICRMW	Members of Their Families
ILO	International Labour Organization
KfW	German Bank for Reconstruction and Development
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoH	Ministry of Health
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
OECD/ DAC	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development/ Development Assistance Committee
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SWAPs	Sector-wide approaches
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UPR	Universal Periodic Review
WHO	World Health Organization

1 Introduction

This paper gives development practitioners an introduction to the human rights-based approach (HRBA) to development. It describes the principles and characteristics of an HRBA, and outlines how our work in German governmental development agencies can be strengthened by using it.

The Federal Republic of Germany has ratified all the major human rights treaties which codify civil, political, economic, social and cultural human rights. This obliges Germany to respect, protect, and promote human rights in its development cooperation. As all partner countries of German development cooperation have also ratified the majority of the core human rights treaties, they are equally obliged to implement them.

The link between human rights and development has been reinforced by the UN Millennium Declaration from 2000. With the declaration the international community has committed to reduce poverty through the fulfilment of all human rights for all people. In line with this commitment, the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) adopted the first Development Policy Action Plan on Human Rights in 2004, and its continuation in March 2008.¹ This plan requires all German governmental development agencies to apply an HRBA across all sectors and levels of intervention.

The realisation of human rights is recognised as an objective in itself in German development cooperation. At the same time, the BMZ regards the fulfilment of human rights as a prerequisite for sustainable development, poverty reduction and peace.

¹ See BMZ (2008), Development Policy Action Plan on Human Rights.

2 What is the HRBA to development cooperation?

The HRBA is a conceptual framework that is normatively based on international human rights standards and operationally directed to promoting and protecting human rights. An HRBA integrates the norms, standards and principles of international human rights law into the plans, policies and processes of development.²

The HRBA implies a shift in perspective for development cooperation: Target groups turn from beneficiaries into 'right-holders' with legal entitlements, and government institutions turn from service providers into 'duty-bearers' under an obligation to deliver on people's human rights. At the heart of the HRBA is the recognition that unequal power relations and social exclusion deny people their human rights and keep them in poverty. A human rights focus helps to explain why women and specific groups, such as ethnic or religious minorities, are highly over-represented among the poor and why very often poverty is passed on from generation to generation:

“All human rights – the right to speak, to vote, but also the right to food, to work, to health care and housing – matter to the poor because destitution and exclusion are intertwined with discrimination, unequal access to resources and opportunities, and social and cultural stigmatisation. A denial of rights makes it harder for the poor to participate in the labour market or have access to basic services and resources”.³ (Louise Arbour 2006, former United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights)

² See also OHCHR (2006), Frequently asked questions on a human rights-based approach to development cooperation.

³ Speech made to Lebanese Parliament as reported in The Lebanon Star, 9th December 2006.

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The key objective of an HRBA is to support political, social and institutional reform processes that address these inequalities and create an environment in which people have the opportunities and the freedom to make and act upon their own choices.

Although outside the remit of this paper, an HRBA is also concerned with global dynamics, such as trade, security, or agricultural policies. For example, dumping highly subsidised European or US agricultural products in developing countries paralyses their own agricultural production, thus threatens livelihoods and the right to food. Similarly, various measures in the fight against terrorism violate human rights. Just like skewed trade and agricultural policies, this also erodes political credibility.

Consequently, an HRBA not only supports human rights in partner countries but also bases its domestic and international policy on human rights.

3 How the HRBA adds value to development cooperation

The HRBA adds value to development processes in four main ways sketched out below.

3.1 The HRBA helps bring about equitable and sustainable development results

- It provides a tool for understanding and addressing the multidimensional root causes of poverty and violent conflict: discrimination, repression, powerlessness, lack of political participation, and lack of access to basic resources and services, such as education, justice, health or water.
- It focuses on the promotion and protection of the rights of women and marginalised groups, including ethnic minorities, migrants and people with disabilities.

- It links development efforts in all sectors to universal and legally binding human rights standards. This enhances the legitimacy of pro-poor development cooperation and creates an added political lever in policy dialogue and reform processes.
- It provides an internationally acknowledged normative framework which is used by civil society world-wide to mobilise and to hold governments to account.
- It supports the good governance agenda in and across sectors, so that institutions and policies become more transparent and inclusive, allowing for better services and a meaningful participation of all citizens, including disadvantaged groups.

Experience 1: Water sector reform in Kenya – the HRBA supports a new focus

In a programme supporting water sector reform in Kenya, GTZ, DED and KfW found the right to water very useful: it focused attention of all stakeholders, public and private services providers, NGOs and themselves, on how to make water accessible to the poor living in informal settlements. Before, this had not been a priority. The HRBA was one factor that motivated a focus on improved water supply by the KfW supported Water Services Trust Fund and the establishment of water kiosks for low-income groups in order to provide a fast-track access to safe drinking water for impoverished urban areas.

To facilitate the access for the poor to water the tariff structure was reviewed so that water would be more affordable. For customers at water kiosks and consumers that only use small amounts to cover basic needs, tariffs are being reduced and cross-subsidised through the system. The programme also seeks to involve those who are particularly affected by poverty in the planning an implementation of low-cost water supply and sanitation.

Source: Kenyan Ministry of Water and Irrigation (2007), Water Sector Reform in Kenya and the Human Right to Water.

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- It adds qualitative criteria to supplement and deepen the quantitative MDG targets.⁴ It also strives to make processes to reach the MDGs more inclusive: The HRBA gives special attention to those who are most vulnerable or marginalised and requires their meaningful participation in decision-making.

3.2 The HRBA supports strategic management in development cooperation

- It provides minimum standards, which help to shape analysis, the definition of development priorities and objectives, implementation strategies as well as impact monitoring.
- Since the HRBA requires that priority is given to ensuring minimum standards for all, it provides a basis for equitable resource allocation. It helps development partners to identify insufficient or inequitable access to basic resources, such as education, food and social security, and to remedy this by according priorities in national and sectoral development plans.

3.3 The HRBA supports aid effectiveness and the implementation of the Paris Agenda

- It aligns development policies with partner governments' human rights commitments expressed in the ratification of human rights treaties, national constitutions, and legislation. Taking these commitments seriously is an important basis for citizen-led national ownership and broad domestic accountability.⁵

⁴ On this relationship see also OHCHR (2008), Claiming the MDGs: A Human Rights Approach.

⁵ See OECD/DAC (2007), Human Rights and Aid Effectiveness; OECD/DAC (2008a), Human Rights and Aid Effectiveness: Key actions to improve inter-linkages; Foresti, Marta et al. (2006), Aid Effectiveness and Human Rights; OECD/DAC (2008b), Strengthening the Development Results and Impacts of the Paris Declaration through Work on Gender Equality, Social Exclusion and Human Rights.

- It uses the internationally acknowledged human rights framework as a common platform for donor harmonisation processes and policy coherence. As the Accra Agenda for Action states in its point 13c: “Developing countries and donors will ensure that their respective development policies and programmes are designed and implemented in ways consistent with their agreed international commitments on gender equality, human rights, disability, and environmental sustainability.”
- It employs human rights standards and principles to define and fine-tune strategies, targets and indicators for improved management for development results.
- It uses national, regional and international processes and bodies, among them parliaments, national human rights institutions, civil society, UN monitoring mechanisms, and regional human rights courts, to review donor and partner government action for mutual accountability.

Experience 2: Water sector reform in Kenya – policy harmonisation with human rights

The Kenyan Ministry of Water and Irrigation has used international human rights standards on the right to water and sanitation as an explicit basis for pro-poor sector reform. This has helped to bring a coherent approach to a previously fragmented sector. In a 2007 publication, the Ministry sums up its experiences: “The human right to water has helped the sector to focus better on the individuals’ entitlement to access water and sanitation. The human rights approach offers additional tools to concentrate on the underserved and poor. As human rights are universal principles, the Ministry expects donors to align to these by harmonising their actions and programmes to the sector policy and strategies. In this context, commitment towards the right to water supports the implementation of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness.” One of the tangible impacts of this approach so far has been a growing interest of the donor community in the extension of pro-poor programmes to urban slums.

Source: Kenyan Ministry of Water and Irrigation (2007), Water Sector Reform in Kenya and the Human Right to Water.

3.4 The HRBA complements existing development agendas

The HRBA and existing development agendas complement and mutually reinforce each other.

- **Poverty reduction:** Effective poverty reduction is necessary for the full realisation of human rights for all. At the same time, an HRBA helps to make poverty reduction sustainable: it addresses the structural causes of poverty like discrimination, supports a multidimensional view of poverty,⁶ and considers poverty reduction as a legal obligation, based on international legal commitments. Furthermore, the HRBA focuses on extreme poverty, and those most vulnerable to poverty and exclusion.
- **Gender equality:** Gender equality and the HRBA are intrinsically linked. All human rights treaties are built on the right to equality, including gender equality, thereby turning it into a right and legal obligation. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) deals specifically with women's human rights. The UN Conference on Human Rights in Vienna (1993) reaffirmed women's rights as human rights, and the International Conference on Population and Development (1994) laid the groundwork for the HRBA to development.
- **Crisis prevention and peace-building:** The HRBA supports sustainable and equitable peace processes and sharpens the focus on rights violations as root causes and triggers of conflict. The methods developed in the context of crisis prevention and peace-building help to tackle conflicts over rights issues. In turn, the human rights framework enables redress for past wrongs and contributes to successful peace-building.
- **Good governance:** In German development cooperation, the concept of good governance is based on human rights standards and principles. The rule of

⁶ A multidimensional understanding of poverty looks at the economic, human, political, socio-cultural, and protective aspects of poverty, and is influenced by Amartya Sen's analysis of capabilities and freedoms. See OECD/DAC (2001), The DAC Guidelines on Poverty Reduction.

law, democracy, efficient and capable state institutions and combating corruption create the enabling environment for the realisation of human rights. Both the HRBA and the good governance agenda are concerned with state performance and the interaction between the state, market, and society.

- Sustainable development: The sustainable development approach is based on an understanding of the interdependence of the social, political, economic, and environmental dimensions of development. This understanding is supported by the HRBA, which provides a normative basis for sustainable development and helps design processes that bring about sustainable development changes.

4 What are human rights?

Human rights are inherent to all people because they are human beings. They may be violated or not be fulfilled, but being human rights they cannot be taken away, or given up. Human rights define what humans need for a life in dignity and freedom.

There are two main categories of human rights, civil and political rights on the one hand, and economic, social, and cultural rights on the other hand. There is no hierarchy between the two categories, instead they are intrinsically related and interdependent (see Box 1, below). All human rights have similar dimensions:

- Freedom to do something (e.g. to choose an education or to vote),
- Freedom from something (e.g. from corporal punishment in schools or coercion in voting),
- Participation (e.g. in school administration or in the conduct of public affairs), and
- Equality (e.g. not to be discriminated against because of sex, ethnicity, language or any other such status).

4.1 Human rights are interdependent

The fulfilment of one human right often depends on the fulfilment of others. For example: the realisation of the right to education facilitates people making use of their right to political participation and to freedom of opinion. Likewise, the non-fulfilment of one right adversely affects other human rights. For example, if persons do not have access to safe water and sanitation this will impact on their right to the highest attainable standard of health.

Box 1: Key human rights and their interdependence

Civil and Political Rights (codified in the ICCPR)	Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (codified in the ICESCR)
The equal right of men and women to the enjoyment of all civil and political rights (art. 3); prohibition of discrimination (art. 26); the right to be treated equally before the courts and tribunals (art. 14); the right for minorities to enjoy their own culture, to profess and practice their own religion, or to use their own language (art. 27)	The equal right of men and women to the enjoyment of all economic, social and cultural rights (art. 3); prohibition of discrimination (art. 2 (2))
The right to life (art. 6)	The right to an adequate standard of living for oneself and one’s family, including adequate food, clothing and housing (art. 11); the right to the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health (art. 12)
The prohibition of torture, cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment (art. 7), and the prohibition of slavery and the slave-trade in all their forms (art. 8)	The right to work , free choice of employment and just and favourable conditions of work (art. 6, 7)
The right to liberty and security of person (art. 9); the right to be protected from arbitrary or unlawful interference with privacy, family, home or correspondence (art. 17)	The right to social security (art. 9); the right to protection and assistance to family, mothers, children and youth (art. 10)

The rights to freedom of thought, conscience and religion (art. 18) and expression (art. 19)	The right of everyone to education; the right to free, compulsory primary education (art. 13), the right to take part in cultural life and to enjoy the benefits of scientific progress (art. 15)
The rights to peaceful assembly (art. 21) and freedom of association (art. 22), and the right to take part in the conduct of public affairs; the right to vote and to be elected (art. 25)	The right to form and join trade unions (art. 8)
The right to an effective remedy (art. 2(3), 9(4), 9(5), 13, 14(5), 17(2))	The right to an effective remedy (art. 2 (1) as specified in ICESCR General Comment No. 3)

Source: Adapted from: German Institute for Human Rights, http://www.institut-fuer-menschenrechte.de/webcom/show_page.php/ c-598/ nr-9/i.html

4.2 Human rights constitute obligations

Human rights obligations apply to the state and its various authorities (the executive and institutions with delegated authority, parliaments, and the judiciary) at central and decentralised level. States assume obligations under international human rights law to respect, protect, and fulfil human rights:

- The obligation to respect obliges states to refrain from directly or indirectly interfering with the enjoyment of human rights: States must not violate human rights by, for example, committing torture, or manipulating food aid for political considerations, or barring women from political leadership.
- The obligation to protect means that states must prevent third parties (e.g. individuals or companies) from interfering, directly or indirectly, with the enjoyment of human rights. For example, states should enact and enforce legislation that prevents employers from discriminating between men and women by paying different wages for the same work.
- The obligation to fulfil obliges states to adopt the legislative and administrative necessary measures to achieve the full realisation of human

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rights, for example setting up a fair judicial or educational system. Usually these measures will involve all parts and levels of the government. The obligation to fulfil is often broken down to include the obligations to facilitate, to promote, and to provide, that is the creation of an enabling environment, promoting access to information on human rights, and the adoption of adequate policies.

Some human rights have to be fulfilled without delay, such as the right to non-discrimination. Others may be achieved progressively, taking into account the constraints created by the limits of available resources. But even then, states have immediate obligations: They have to take concrete and targeted steps towards full realisation, and have to demonstrate that they have done so “to the maximum of available [domestic] resources”. If a state does not have sufficient resources to fulfil its obligations, it is obliged to seek international assistance.

Influenced by the Cold War, it has been a long-held view that economic, social, and cultural human rights – such as the right to education or the right to food – are mere aspirations of social policy but not legally enforceable.⁷ However, the adoption of an individual complaint mechanism for the ICESCR in 2008 and the increasing number of cases in which social, economic, and cultural rights have been defended through legal action, shows that economic, social, and cultural human rights are – and have been for a while – justiciable. Litigation on these rights is generally complex, time-consuming, and expensive, requiring sustained civil society engagement to present the case in court and ensure that judgements are enforced. But in some countries litigation has led to substantial changes in the allocation of public resources and the realisation of economic, social, and cultural rights. However, while the HRBA stresses that litigation is important to protect human rights, it does not privilege it over other modes of realizing human rights.

⁷ For an extensive debate, see OHCHR (2009), Frequently Asked Questions on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

Experience 3: Litigating economic, social and cultural rights

The most significant cases on economic, social, and cultural rights were fought in South African and Indian courts where litigants claimed human rights enshrined in national laws. One of the famous cases was *Government of the Republic of South Africa & Others v Grootboom & Others* (2000).

A community of squatters, evicted from an informal settlement in Wallacedene, had set up temporary shelters made of plastic and other materials. They lacked basic sanitation or electricity. The group brought an action under sections 26 (the right of access to adequate housing) and 28 (children's right to basic shelter) of the South African Constitution. The Constitutional Court of South Africa concluded that the national and local governments had failed to take reasonable measures to progressively realise the right to housing. It ordered the various governments "to devise, fund, implement and supervise measures to provide relief to those in desperate need." The South African Human Rights Commission agreed to monitor and, if necessary report, on the government's implementation of this order. The decision had a major impact on housing policy in South Africa. Most municipalities put in place a "Grootboom allocation" in their budgets to address the needs of those in desperate need.

Source: ESCR-Net case law database

5 Key elements of the HRBA

5.1 A twin-track approach

The HRBA entails a twin track approach. Given the human rights situation in countries all over the world, it will always be necessary to protect and promote human rights by specific projects and programmes. Among them may be initiatives that explicitly address human rights infringements affecting particular groups, those that strengthen mechanisms for regional human rights protection, or support the capacities of national human rights institutions and civil society organisations.

At the same time, an HRBA implies that human rights serve as a guidance and yardstick for development cooperation and policy across sectors and levels of intervention. This second track comprises three main elements:

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- Capacity development of right-holders to claim their rights and duty-bearers to fulfil their obligations
- Systematic orientation towards, and reference to, human rights standards and reference documents, including human rights education and awareness raising
- Adherence to and promotion of human rights principles: Non-discrimination and equality of opportunity, participation and empowerment, and transparency and accountability.

Figure 1: Model of the human rights-based approach



The baseline requirement for an HRBA is that development cooperation does not violate human rights – this do-no-harm principle is well known from crisis prevention. For example, the promotion of privatisation processes must not result in exclusion of marginalised or vulnerable groups from access to public services. Major infrastructure projects must not ignore the right to be consulted and other rights of residents, nor should they result in resettlement without adequate

compensation. Even if such impacts are not intentional, they are infringements of human rights. To avoid such side effects, development partners need to assess and monitor impacts on human rights. If assessments find risks of human rights violations, programmes need to be modified or abandoned if necessary.

Box 2: Right-holders and duty-bearers

In human rights law, the individual is the main rights-holders, and the state the primary duty-bearer. While everyone in society has both rights and duties, only some of these are rights and duties in a human rights sense: national law and regulations contain rules and duties for individuals and actors like corporations; human rights law regulates basic and universal entitlements of individuals towards the state. To give a number of examples from different areas of law:

- Human rights law guarantees the right to life. Accordingly, extrajudicial executions committed by state agents constitute a violation of human rights as does a state's lack of protection of its residents from violent crime and murder. The duty of the individual not to murder, however, is not a human rights obligation but a duty under national law.
- Teachers are human right-holders in their relationship to the state as their employer: vis-à-vis the state teachers have the right to decent working conditions. In relation to his/her students a teacher is a duty-bearer because s/he executes the human rights obligations of the state with respect to the right to education held by students. Accordingly, a person can be both a rights-holder and a duty-bearer in different legal relationships, but one can never be both a rights-holders and a duty-bearer in the same legal relationship.
- Sometimes private entities – like enterprises, church-based organisations, or NGOs – provide social services to the population, such as water and sanitation. However, this does not make them duty-bearers in a human rights sense. Such private entities have legal duties under national law, such as delivering the contractually agreed services, and individuals have respective rights towards them, as clients, customers, or residents. But the state is the duty-bearer for the human rights obligations: It must regulate and monitor private service providers so that they carry out their services in conformity with human rights.

While right-holders are individuals or groups of individuals who hold human rights, and duty-bearers are the different state institutions at various levels of governments, the fulfilment of human rights obviously depends on more entities and actors. Therefore, an HRBA needs to engage those stakeholders – like private enterprises, armed groups, community leaders, civil society organizations – and include them in a broad dialogue on the notion of rights and responsibilities.

5.2 Working with right-holders and duty-bearers

Human rights focus primarily on the relationship between the state and the individual. But an HRBA also gives direction on how to shape relationships between individuals and other actors and stakeholders, like communities, private service providers, or NGOs, basing these relationships likewise on rights and responsibilities. In general, an HRBA works from both the 'demand' and 'supply side' because the fulfilment of human rights depends on the meeting of obligations. The meeting of obligations does not happen by itself but is a result of social and political struggle. The HRBA aims to create effective mechanisms of 'voice and response' in order to shift power relations in favour of those who are disempowered. In this way, the HRBA changes the dynamics between people and the institutions meant to serve them. In the long run, an HRBA also will affect dynamics between persons, for example, of different ethnicities, social status etc.

On the 'supply side' the HRBA implies support to partner institutions to translate human rights standards and principles into national law, policies, and practice.

This implies support on different levels:

- Creating the necessary conditions and spaces for meaningful and broad stakeholder participation in relevant processes at micro, meso and macro level.
- Establishing complaint and redress mechanisms (e.g. health watch committees, ombudspersons, national human rights institutions) and introduce measures to improve the independence and accessibility of the judicial system.
- Developing the technical capacity to translate human rights standards and principles into effective policies with appropriate budget allocations, based on concrete entitlements to services.

On the 'demand-side', human rights-based development interventions work towards empowerment of right-holders to claim and realise their rights by

supporting human rights education, awareness, monitoring, and action. Key areas of support include:

- Supporting awareness on human rights.
- Developing the skills to monitor human rights fulfilment and infringements, including monitoring of public budgets, expenditure, and foreign aid.
- Developing organisational capacities so that groups are better equipped to mobilise, gather information, and undertake advocacy campaigns, and to apply human rights principles to their internal management and procedures.
- Enabling individuals and groups to claim their rights, be it in court through litigation or through other means, like the press, the internet, public hearings, social audits etc.

5.3 Using human rights standards and reference documents

Human rights treaties

The HRBA is based on the major human rights treaties, set out below in Box 2.⁸ Today, all UN member states have ratified at least one of the following nine core international human rights treaties, and 80% have ratified four or more.

Other international instruments containing human rights include the labour conventions of the International Labour Organization (ILO).⁹

⁸ An overview of the core human rights treaties and their mechanisms can be found in GTZ (2009b), The ABC of Human Rights for Development Cooperation. For the full texts of the conventions see <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/index.htm#core>.

⁹ See <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/index.htm#instruments> for a full overview of international human rights instruments. For the ILO conventions see: <http://www.ilo.org/normes>.

Box 3: The nine core UN human rights treaties with year of adoption

	Ratifications
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), 1966	164
International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), 1966	160
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD), 1965	173
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), 1979	185
Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT), 1984	146
Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1989	193
International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICRMW), 1990	40
Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD), 2006	50
International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance (ICPED), 2006 (not yet in force)	9

Source: Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights
<http://www.ohchr.org>, ratifications as of 1 March 2009

Besides the international human rights instruments there are a number of regional human rights treaties, such as the European Convention on Human Rights (1950), the American Convention on Human Rights (1969) and the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (1981).¹⁰ Attached to these treaties are regional monitoring and judicial mechanisms.

¹⁰ A training handbook by OHCHR provides a comprehensive overview of all regional human rights mechanisms: <http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/training9chapter3en.pdf>. In 2004, the member states of the League of Arab States adopted the Arab Charter on Human Rights (in force since 2008), however, with no effective monitoring mechanism attached to it. The content of the Charter is contended, though, because it does not fully correspond with the UN concept of human rights. Text: <http://www1.umn.edu/humanrts/instree/loas2005.html>. In 2008, the countries of the Association of Southeast Asian States (ASEAN) decided to also establish a human rights mechanism and set up a working group for its development. See: <http://www.aseanhrmech.org/>.

Additional human rights reference material

In addition to the treaties there are a number of other human rights reference documents, which provide interpretation and information relevant for development cooperation.

- General Comments of the UN treaty bodies:¹¹ These interpret human rights standards and make them operational for development cooperation. For example, the General Comments issued by the UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights outline the core elements of the rights enshrined in the Covenant such as the right to housing, the right to food, or, as the following example shows, the right to education.

Box 4: Core elements of the right to education

Availability Functioning educational institutions and programmes have to be available in sufficient quantity. Primary education needs to be available free of cost. Standards may differ according to context, but all educational institutions will need qualified teachers, educational material, sanitation for both sexes, and drinking water.

Accessibility Educational institutions have to be accessible to everyone financially and geographically. Financial accessibility covers the elimination of school fees in primary education but also the often substantial indirect fees of education, like fees for registration, uniforms, books and exams, and indirect costs incurred by the loss of children's incomes. Accessibility may require the establishment of scholarships to facilitate the access to education for poor or otherwise disadvantaged groups.

Acceptability Curricula and teaching methods need to be culturally relevant, gender sensitive, appropriate to students and of high quality. School discipline must not use corporal punishment or other degrading measures.

Adaptability Education needs to be flexible and able to adapt to the needs of and changes in a society. Education needs to respond to the needs of students in diverse social, economic, and cultural settings.

¹¹ See <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/Pages/HumanRightsBodies.aspx>.

- Human rights monitoring information: UN treaty bodies monitor the implementation of the treaties, and ratifying states need to submit regular reports. Civil society organisations often submit complementary reports to these state reports.¹² In assessing the progress individual states make, the treaty bodies issue Concluding Observations which recommend measures for improved implementation of the respective human rights treaty.¹³ In addition, states undergo a peer review under the Universal Periodic Review (UPR) established recently at the Human Rights Council.¹⁴ The UPR consists of a debate between members of the Human Rights Council, based on three reports: The OHCHR puts together all information from the UN human rights protection system, governments report on what they view as human rights challenges in their country, and other stakeholders, like civil society organisations and national human rights institutions, present their assessment. Since reports are brief by design, all parties have to concentrate on the most pressing issues; accordingly, submitting a report to the UPR is easier for NGOs compared to submitting parallel reports to the treaty bodies. Last but not least, there is investigative monitoring by international or national human rights NGOs published in reports on specific issues or annual reports.
- Reports by UN Special Rapporteurs: If the members of Human Rights Council agree they can mandate a UN Special Rapporteur to work on grave and systematic violations of human rights in specific countries. Other Special Rapporteurs are mandated to work on important human rights topics and further develop and operationalise human rights standards. For example, the UN Special Rapporteur on the right to health devised indicators for monitoring

¹² See <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/Pages/HumanRightsBodies.aspx> > Treaty-based bodies > The Committee and its work > Session > State reports for the official state reports and, if available, also information from other sources. Example: <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/hrc/hracs94.htm>

¹³ See <http://www.bayefsky.com/docs.php/area/conclobs>.

¹⁴ For reports and other information related to the UPR see <http://www.upr-info.org/> or <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/UPR/Pages/UPRMain.aspx>.

child mortality from a human rights perspective. The work of Special Rapporteurs is based on regular country missions.¹⁵

- Statistical information: The Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights has developed human rights indicators, measuring the status of implementation of selected human rights at structural, process, and outcome level. In the long run, states will be required to report on a number of these indicators in their reporting to the UN treaty bodies.¹⁶
- Jurisprudence: In response to individual complaints and law suits respectively, the treaty bodies, regional human rights courts, and national courts have produced a substantial body of human rights jurisprudence.¹⁷
- In addition, various UN bodies and agencies have produced guidelines, toolkits, and fact sheets that provide further guidance on human rights issues.¹⁸

¹⁵ See for the country mandates:

<http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/chr/special/countries.htm> and for thematic mandates: <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/chr/special/themes.htm>.

¹⁶ See <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/icm-mc/docs/HRI.MC.2008.3EN.pdf>.

¹⁷ For a compilation of international, regional and national jurisprudence of economic, social and cultural rights consult the ESCR-Net case law database, for jurisprudence by UN treaty bodies see <http://www.bayefsky.com/docs.php/area/jurisprudence/node/2>.

¹⁸ For example: FAO (2005), Voluntary Guidelines to support the progressive realization of the right to adequate food in the context of national food security; UNAIDS (2006), International Guidelines on HIV/AIDS and Human Rights.

Experience 5: International human rights mechanisms and the Ugandan health sector.

The UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Health undertook a number of visits to Uganda to review the Ministry of Health's sector strategy from a human rights perspective. He also reviewed the support of the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) to the Ugandan health sector to ascertain whether the programme supports the right to health. As a result, a standing committee on health and human rights has been set up in the Ministry of Health – with representatives from the Ugandan Human Rights Commission, WHO, civil society, and the OHCHR. The Ugandan Human Rights Commission has also established a Right to Health Unit (funded by donors through a basket fund) and is becoming involved in policy dialogue with the Ministry of Health. One of the products of the work of the committee has been the proposed use of the SIDA and WHO Diagnostic Tool for Considering Human Rights and Gender Dimensions in Health Sector Plans and Policies in the annual review of the health sector strategy.

Source: Sebastian Bartsch, Case study materials for Strengthening the Development Results and Impacts of the Paris Declaration through Work on Gender Equality, Social Exclusion and Human Rights, OECD, Paris 2008.

Using human rights in different country contexts

The HRBA means that the rights framework becomes part of our expertise and guides us in our interventions. However, the extent to which an explicit reference to human rights yields positive results in policy dialogue and in policy advice will vary from country to country.

In Kenya, German advisors explicitly referred to the human right to water in policy advice to the Kenyan Ministry of Water and Irrigation. Advisors were able to demonstrate that the existing water reform programme in Kenya already corresponded in a number of areas to key requirements of human rights. This promoted greater confidence on the part of Ministry officials, and increased their openness to identifying shortcomings in the programme from a human rights perspective. The identified bottlenecks – such as the neglect of water supply in informal settlements – were in line with a pro-poor approach and were generally perceived as reinforcing Kenya's overall policy goals. The Ministry also

appreciated the human rights framework as a successful instrument to improve policy coherence and donor harmonisation (see Experience 2 above).

Experience 6: Setting the framework for inclusive and accountable education in Peru

The Peruvian decentralisation law of 2002 enables regional governments to develop and implement their own policies. This meant that regional education authorities were able to set their own guidelines for educational provision. It set the framework for GTZ to support the Ministry of Education and its regional sub-units to promote a participative and inclusive approach.

In Madre de Dios, a regional participation committee, comprising representatives from government and civil society, developed education guidelines using an inclusive, participatory process. Parents, teachers, student representatives, municipal officials, NGOs, the police, and fire brigades participated in workshops to determine the guidelines for education policies. Guidelines addressed issues such as the right to quality education for all, democratic and decentralised education management and indigenous language teaching.

These were the first regional educational guidelines that were developed and adopted in a broad-based participatory and inclusive process. The guidelines have later been turned into a regional education law which hold educational providers accountable for upholding the democratically agreed standards contained in the guidelines. The value of this way of working has been recognised across Peru, and other regions have adopted the same process.

Source: Iris Ahr, PROEDUCA-GTZ Programa de Educación Básica, 2008

In other contexts it may be more difficult to talk about human rights in general, or about specific human rights. This holds true for countries with authoritarian regimes, and those with problems of entrenched discrimination. But even then, human rights standards and principles can be used implicitly. For example, they may determine the setting of programme objectives and definition of indicators, serve as a template for the design of processes, and their content can guide policy advice and capacity development. This was the approach chosen in Cambodia, where German development cooperation in the health sector supported the development of a patients' rights charter in dialogue with a broad range of stakeholders, including local human rights organisations. Although

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human rights were not explicitly mentioned in the Charter, its content reflected a number of the core elements of the human right to the highest attainable standard of health (see Experience 4 above).

Setting of development priorities

It is rightly held that while human rights provide helpful guidance for setting priorities within a sector (e.g. which investments and which groups of people will be considered first in water and sanitation supply), the indivisibility of human rights makes it difficult to prioritise between sectors.

Indeed, there is no simple rule for addressing this issue. The indivisibility and interdependence of human rights prohibit a rigid prioritisation of one right at the expense of another. However, human rights law encourages governments of both partner and donor countries to set priorities if limited resources do not allow implementation of all human rights at once. The decision about which sector – e.g. health or education – is to be granted priority, is a political one, and should be taken on the basis of inclusive, democratic processes.

However, human rights law places clear boundaries on political discretion: Prioritisation does not permit infringements of the core obligations of the rights to food, water, health etc. For example, a state must give priority to ensuring that people affected by under-nourishment do not starve. The progressive realisation of the right to food – e.g. by agrarian reform and related measures – requires measures which also take into account the realisation of other human rights, such as the right to water. In all of these considerations, states have the obligation to invest existing resources in such a way that they contribute to the realisation of human rights of marginalised groups and those in precarious situations.

5.4 Promoting human rights principles

The HRBA recognises that achievement of desired human rights outcomes (such as access to safe water for all) is not, in itself, enough. How these outcomes are achieved is equally important. The HRBA therefore emphasises that development cooperation works on the basis of the following human rights principles:

- Non-discrimination and equality of opportunities,
- Participation and empowerment,
- Transparency and accountability.

These principles, which are also essential elements of good governance, are enshrined in international human rights law. An HRBA makes these principles non-negotiable, enhances their legitimacy and makes their application more consistent. Moreover, the HRBA stresses the interrelatedness of these principles: Greatest gains for human rights are made when institutions or civil society organisations are inclusive and transparent, allow participation and act accountably.

Non-discrimination and equality of opportunities

Non-discrimination is a human right in itself and part of every human rights treaty.

Non-discrimination in international human rights law

The provision on non-discrimination is embedded in all human rights treaties, for example in the ICCPR Art. 2, 3, and 26 and the ICESCR Art. 2. Three human rights treaties specifically deal with non-discrimination (ICERD, CEDAW and CRPD). The latter obliges international development cooperation explicitly to be “inclusive of and accessible to persons with disabilities” (Art. 32).

The human right to non-discrimination obliges states to respect, protect and fulfil the rights of all, regardless of their origin, age, sex, mental or physical health, ethnic or religious affiliation, or any other such status.

Discrimination can be direct like, for example, apartheid laws or regulations barring women from judicial or presidential office. Discrimination can also be indirect, creating inequalities, if, for example, school education is provided in a language linguistic minorities do not understand. Discrimination becomes systemic when it is evident in individual behaviour patterns, social rules and institutional procedures as well as in policies and laws. Such structural discrimination often affects women, and can lead to social exclusion of whole sections of the population, like indigenous people. A particular challenge is posed by multidimensional discrimination, when persons or groups are discriminated against based on a number of grounds, e.g. sex plus ethnicity.

Human rights treaties oblige states to immediately end existing discrimination, in national laws, policies and practices. Government and development cooperation resources must be used in ways that reduce discrimination and improve equal access for all to essential services and resources such as health care, justice, land, or sanitation. This may require time-bound measures that purposely favour a discriminated group of people, for example through quotas or subsidies.

Experience 7: Reducing existing barriers to equality in Guatemalan municipalities

The German-Guatemalan decentralisation programme (PROMUDEL) started to apply an HRBA in 2007. One output was a human rights training of municipal officers in Alta Verapaz, Baja Verapaz, El Quiché and Huehuetenango. This led to a number of initiatives which helped to reduce existing discrimination of specific groups at community level: The building of ramps to the municipal office enabled people in wheelchairs to better access public services; the employment of indigenous focal persons in the municipalities was a precondition to an improvement of services to indigenous people.

In order to detect and overcome patterns of exclusion and discrimination it is necessary to have appropriate data disaggregated by sex and any other relevant social criteria such as age or ethnic origin. Support to improving the availability and quality of statistics is an important dimension of an HRBA in development cooperation.

A key objective of the HRBA is to address the root causes of discrimination. As discrimination is often based on deep-seated, institutionalised social and cultural assumptions, for example in relation to gender, people living with disabilities, or ethnicity, successful strategies must counteract these stereotypes. Initiatives include support for awareness raising campaigns in schools or the media and efforts to encourage respected politicians and community leaders to speak out against discrimination and stigmatisation. It also requires initiatives to protect groups at risk, such as women, girls or homosexuals, who are often victims of gender-based violence.

Participation and empowerment

The principle of participation has been applied in development cooperation for a long time. The HRBA, however, transforms participation from an option into a right, and connects it to accountability and non-discrimination.

Participation in international human rights law

Participation in public affairs is guaranteed by ICCPR Art. 25 as well as by various other instruments, such as CRC Art. 12. Apart from guaranteeing the right to elect representatives, human rights law enshrines a broad notion of political, social and cultural participation – by the rights to assemble, to access and transmit information, and to bargain collectively (ICCPR Art. 21, 19 (2); ICESCR Art. 8 and ILO Conventions Nr. 87 and 98).

Supporting participation as a key element of an HRBA to development entails a shift in focus: In the past, participation was mainly understood as consultation and engagement of relevant stakeholders in programme planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. While this remains important, now the focus is on strengthening and deepening civic and political participation. The HRBA supports structures, institutions, policies and legal frameworks that sustainably widen spaces for broad and meaningful participation and democratic engagement in the partner country. Successful development cooperation enables relevant groups, including the most marginalised, to participate in decision-making processes at local, regional and national level in a meaningful way.

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In order to achieve this, development programmes will need to reach out and work with a diverse set of local partner organisations, including advocacy NGOs, community-based organisations as well as national or local parliaments, trade unions, national human rights institutions, ombudspersons, and the media. The HRBA supports the development of the skills of individuals and groups so that they can make valued contributions to the development process and claim further improvements in rights. It also requires capacity development of governmental institutions, including sector ministries and national and decentralised political structures.

For example, in the Guatemalan-German education programme, a human rights-inspired reflection on the programme led to measures to involve children and youths in certain aspects of the school administration. This enabled students to voice their own views about their needs, rather than having their parents represent their interests.

Experience 8: Promoting political participation of women in Mauritania

The German-Mauritanian Good Governance Programme supported women who ran as candidates for the national parliament, the municipal councils and mayorships. In July 2006, the interim government of Mauritania had changed the election law requiring all candidate lists to include a minimum quota of 20% women. GTZ supported broad sensitisation, information and training campaigns in two regions involving the public administration, political parties, imams, traditional leaders, civil society, and the media. Women candidates were trained in workshops preparing them for office. As a result, social acceptance of women in politics increased: more than the required 20% women ran for office and an even higher share got elected. The trust in women in leadership positions was facilitated by the high rate of internal migration among men. Voters felt women were better connected to the region.

Overall, the country-wide rate of women representatives in municipal councils rose to 30% up from only 3% in 2001. Also, women's representation in the national parliament increased to 17% (up from 4%). One immediate consequence: social issues such as health are being given higher priority in parliament.

Source: Hildegard Schörry-Klinger, Mauritania Good Governance Programme / Gender Component

Transparency and accountability

Transparency implies that political and administrative procedures follow clear and publicly known rules, that decisions by state organs are comprehensible, and that information on issues of public concern is publicly available (from tariffs for public services to parliamentary debates). Transparency is closely linked to the right to seek, receive and impart information. An essential element is the obligation of the state to inform citizens and residents about their rights and entitlements.

Accountability is the process which requires a government to show, explain and justify how it has discharged its duties. Where rights are infringed, right-holders are entitled to effective remedies. Without accessible procedures for complaint and redress, human rights (or other rights under national law) are not enforceable. Yet accountability is not just retrospective but also concerned with improving present and future government performance.¹⁹

Transparency and accountability in international human rights law

Transparency is a cross-cutting principle in all human rights treaties. In addition, various General Comments, e.g. the ones on health and water, specifically spell out the right to seek, receive and impart information. Accountability in human rights law is the right to an effective remedy in national courts should human rights have been violated (ICCPR Art. 2). Should national remedies be insufficient or exhausted, a number of human rights treaties give individuals the possibility to lodge individual complaints with the UN treaty bodies.

An effective accountability process is inclusive and participatory and is comprised of three elements: monitoring, accountability mechanisms, and remedies.

A critical element of accountability is the existence of effective and participatory monitoring and evaluation systems, which allow systematic monitoring of progress towards poverty reduction and the fulfilment of human rights. The HRBA supports the trend in development cooperation to develop the capacities and

¹⁹ For in-depth information on accountability and the right to health, see: Potts (2008), *Accountability and the highest attainable standard of health*. The publication provided the basis for parts of this section.

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systems in our partner countries for results-based monitoring and evaluation instead of just having programme-based monitoring and evaluation systems.

Accountability mechanisms are fora of explanation and justification. These are not confined to formal settings such as courts, national human rights institutions or parliamentary enquiries but also include informal settings such as public hearings, complaints desks, or citizen health watch committees. The media also have a crucial role to play.

Five types of accountability mechanisms can be identified:

- Judicial e.g. judicial review of executive acts and omissions, constitutional redress, public interest litigation;
- Quasi-judicial e.g. national human rights institutions, regional and international human rights treaty bodies;
- Administrative e.g. opposition proceedings, complaints desks at public services, ombudspersons;
- Political e.g. parliamentary committees, elected health or education councils; and
- Social e.g. the involvement of civil society in policy or budget monitoring, public hearings, social audits.

Remedies for violations can take a number of different forms including adequate compensation or an informal settlement that satisfies the person or group whose rights have been infringed. In the case of economic, social, and cultural rights, violations are often the result of systemic problems rather than individual action. In these cases, effective remedy requires changes in legislation, policy, and budget allocations that address the root causes of the problem.

The HRBA entails making monitoring and accountability mechanisms accessible to disadvantaged individuals and groups, tailoring them to their needs, and, where applicable, enhancing their participation in these processes.

6 Summary: Implications of the HRBA for German development cooperation

As set out in the BMZ's Development Policy Action Plan on Human Rights, an HRBA has implications for all aspects of its development cooperation.

6.1 The HRBA pertains to all levels of development cooperation

The HRBA requires consideration of human rights at policy and operational levels.

- At the international and regional level, an HRBA implies support to the further development of mechanisms to promote and protect human rights. In addition, it entails giving greater consideration to human rights issues in multilateral institutions and in other areas of international policy.
- In the policy dialogue with partner countries and donors and in deciding on aid modalities, the HRBA implies taking human rights into account more systematically and raising human rights issues in government consultations and negotiations. In general, recommendations of the UN treaty bodies and the UN Special Rapporteurs as well as those of the regional human rights protection system will be used to this effect.
- In the area of policy formulation the HRBA requires aligning policy as formulated in sector concepts and country strategies to human rights standards and principles. The HRBA becomes increasingly relevant for donor harmonisation, including in Joint Assistance Strategies, SWAPs and pool funds.²⁰

²⁰ In this respect the Accra Action Agenda (2008) contains an important and far reaching political statement: "Developing countries and donors will ensure that their respective development policies and programmes are designed and implemented in ways that are consistent with agreed international commitments on gender equality, human rights, disability and environmental sustainability." (AAA, paragraph 13 c).

- The HRBA affects the portfolio of development interventions in extending specific measures for the promotion of human rights. These measures include assistance to national human rights institutions, local human rights NGOs or national complaint mechanisms, support for ministries and civil society groups to monitor human rights, compile respective reports and to engage in human rights education. In addition, the ability to claim rights of women and social groups particularly affected by discrimination or marginalisation, such as children, migrant workers, refugees, or indigenous peoples is continuously strengthened.
- At the operational level, implementing agencies of development cooperation need to adjust their programmes and methods to contribute to the realisation of human rights. This implies addressing human rights in policy advice and capacity development with partner institutions, working with a broader array of partner institutions, using human rights standards and reference documents as guidance for setting priorities and defining strategies, and applying human rights principles to orient development processes towards greater inclusivity and sustainability.
- At the level of development agencies, an HRBA reinforces commitments to ensure gender equality and diversity among staff and leadership, and supports initiatives for internal ethics and accountability.

6.2 Human rights are relevant in all sectors and areas of action

Many development practitioners still associate human rights with civil and political rights, and the good governance agenda. However, this view is a legacy of the Cold War, and thinking about human rights has evolved. Overall, development cooperation is maybe the single most important policy area where the indivisibility of human rights can bear fruit, for poverty reduction, gender equality, and democratic freedoms. Accordingly, an HRBA is relevant to all sectors of development cooperation such as education, water and sanitation, private sector development, energy, environment, governance and democracy, health and

social security, food security and agriculture, and crisis prevention.²¹ Its key concerns are:

- Active inclusion and empowerment of the most marginalised groups in society with a view to shifting power relations.
- Sustainable access for all to basic services and resources – such as water, shelter, education, health, and the justice system.
- Focus on the quality of processes and good governance in all sectors through use of human rights principles.

An HRBA does not imply a complete shift in objectives, but enriches and strengthens existing approaches by its systematic emphasis on addressing the underlying causes of poverty and violent conflict. This can help make programmes more coherent, and detect unused potential for outcomes to have greater impact and become more sustainable. It can also infuse political processes with added dynamic.

6.3 Human rights need to be considered in the entire programme cycle

An HRBA implies consideration of human rights in each step of the programme cycle - analysis, planning, budgeting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This includes selecting staff and consultants with appropriate human rights expertise, working with strategic partners such as national human rights institutions or parliaments, and including a human rights perspective in policy advice and capacity development for partner institutions.

Working with an HRBA is challenging and at times time-consuming like working with participatory approaches and hard-to-reach target groups is in general. Yet the effort is worthwhile: evidence to date has demonstrated that an HRBA

²¹ See for example BMZ (2009): Applying human rights in practice: Fact sheets on a human rights-based approach in development cooperation, which also contains links to sector-specific resources on human rights.

considerably improves the quality, impact, and sustainability of development interventions.²²

Working with an HRBA is an on-going learning process. While there is considerable experience in some sectors, the HRBA is still novel in others. A growing community of practitioners is accumulating their experiences and good practices.²³

7 Resources

7.1 Publications

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<http://www.bmz.de/en/service/infothek/fach/konzepte/konzept167.pdf>

BMZ (2009): Applying human rights in practice: Fact sheets on a human rights-based approach in development cooperation, BMZ Topics Nr. 195, Bonn.
<http://www.bmz.de/en/service/infothek/fach/materialien/Materialie195.pdf>

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<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/35/24/38284443.pdf>

²² See UK Interagency Group on Human Rights Based Approaches (2007), The Impact of Rights-based Approaches to Development; GTZ (2009a), Human Right to Water and Sanitation.

²³ For example in the OECD/DAC Governance Network Task Team on Human Rights and Development <http://www.oecd.org/dac/governance/humanrights>.

Gready, Paul/ Jonathan Ensor (eds.) (2005), Reinventing Development? Translating Rights-Based Approaches from Theory to Practice, Zed Books, London. <http://www.zedbooks.co.uk/book.asp?bookdetail=3715> (publisher)

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Kenyan Ministry of Water and Irrigation (2007), Water Sector Reform in Kenya and the Human Right to Water, Nairobi. As PDF: <http://tinyurl.com/ybcty7>

OECD/DAC (2001), The DAC Guidelines on Poverty Reduction, Paris. <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/47/14/2672735.pdf>

OECD/DAC (2006), The Development Dimension: Integrating Human Rights into Development: Donor Approaches, Experiences and Challenges, Paris. http://www.oecd.org/document/24/0,3343,en_2649_34565_37045656_1_1_1,00.html

OECD/DAC (2007), DAC Action-Oriented Policy Paper on Human Rights and Development, Paris. <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/50/7/39350774.pdf>

OECD/DAC (2007), Human Rights and Aid Effectiveness, DAC Update, Paris. <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/15/12/38713028.pdf>

See OECD/DAC (2008a), Human Rights and Aid Effectiveness: Key actions to improve inter-linkages, Paris. <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/13/63/43495904.pdf>

OECD/DAC (2008b), Strengthening the Development Results and Impacts of the Paris Declaration through Work on Gender Equality, Social Exclusion and

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Human Rights, Paris. <http://www.oecd.org/dac/effectiveness/resultsandimpacts>
(webpage of workshop with link to concept note)

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<http://www.undg.org/?P=221> (webpage with link to document)

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Bloomfield.

<http://www.kpbooks.com/books/BookDetail.aspx?productID=186499>
(publisher)

7.2 Links

Bayefsky, data base for all UN human rights treaties and related documents
<http://www.bayefsky.com>

BMZ, Issues and Priorities, Human Rights
<http://www.bmz.de/en/issues/HumanRights/index.html>

German Institute for Human Rights, Information portal on Human Rights and
Development Cooperation
http://www.institut-fuer-menschenrechte.de/webcom/show_page.php/ c-573/ nr-1/ lkm-807/i.html (in German)

GTZ project “Realizing Human Rights in Development Cooperation”
<http://www.gtz.de/human-rights>

International Labour Organization (ILO), Conventions and Recommendations
http://www.ilo.org/global/What_we_do/InternationalLabourStandards/Introduction/ConventionsandRecommendations/lang--en/index.htm

International Network for Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ESCR-Net),
Case law Database, a database of economic, social and cultural rights
related jurisprudence, cases and other decisions
<http://www.escr-net.org/caselaw/>

Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR)
<http://www.ohchr.org>

- Link “Human Rights Bodies”: texts of human rights conventions, ratifications, general comments, concluding observations and other treaty-body related documents
- Link “Countries/Human Rights in the World”: state reports, concluding observations, special procedures and other country-related human rights information
- Link “Your Human Rights/Human Rights Issues”: legal documents, tools, reports of Special Rapporteurs and other issue-specific human rights information



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