

TOOLKIT FOR THE LOCALISATION OF THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

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Section 1. Introduction

AIM OF TOOLKIT

This toolkit aims to help local government and their communities become actively involved in meeting the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals (MDG).

The toolkit proposes that local governments need to develop and implement a local approach outlining how they will contribute to the MDGs in their local area. This approach should be seen as a driving focus for a wider local development strategy and describe the main aims, policies and activities that will be carried out, in partnership with their local communities and other stakeholders. An 'MDG-linked' local development strategy should therefore see the MDGs and poverty as a core aspect of the everyday work of local government - integral to each city, town, or municipal development strategies, plans and policies.

This toolkit should not be read as a set of rigid rules. Rather it aims to provide general guidance and pulls together a range of resources and examples to help to get things started.

What are the Millennium Development Goals?

“We will spare no effort to free our fellow men, women and children from the abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty, to which more than a billion of them are currently subjected. We are committed to making the right to development a reality for everyone and to freeing the entire human race from want.” Millennium Declaration, 2000

At the turn of the millennium, 189 heads of state from across the world gathered in New York and signed the Millennium Declaration. The declaration sets an agenda for the new millennium – to fight against the abject poverty and the inequalities that continue to affect so many of the world’s people. The declaration outlines some of the fundamental values which governments agree are the basic principles essential for international relations in the twenty-first century, including:

- **Freedom** - Men and women have the right to live their lives and raise their children in dignity, free from hunger and from the fear of violence, oppression or injustice. Democratic and participatory governance based on the will of the people best assures these rights.
- **Equality** - No individual and no nation must be denied the opportunity to benefit from development. The equal rights and opportunities of women and men must be assured.
- **Solidarity** - Global challenges must be managed in a way that distributes the costs and burdens fairly in accordance with basic principles of equity and social justice. Those who suffer or who benefit least deserve help from those who benefit most.
- **Tolerance** - Human beings must respect one other, in all their diversity of belief, culture and language. Differences within and between societies should be neither feared nor repressed, but cherished as a precious asset of humanity. A culture of peace and dialogue among all civilizations should be actively promoted.
- **Respect for nature** - Prudence must be shown in managing all living species and natural resources, according to the precepts of sustainable development. Only in this way can the immeasurable riches provided to us by nature be preserved and passed on to our descendants. Current unsustainable patterns of production and consumption must be changed in the interest of our future welfare and that of our descendants.
- **Shared responsibility** - Responsibility for managing global economic and social development, as well as threats to peace and security, must be shared among the nations of the world and should be exercised multilaterally. As the most universal and representative organization in the world, the UN must play the central role.

To meet the aims of the declaration governments signed up to a set of international goals aiming to eradicate key aspects of poverty by the year 2015 – these global goals were called the ‘Millennium Development Goals’ (MDGs). Table 1 outlines the eight main Millennium Development Goals and their associated targets.

Table 1. MDG goals and targets

Goals	Targets
Goal 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	1. Reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a \$ a day 2. Reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger
Goal 2. Achieve universal primary education	3. Ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling
Goal 3. Promote gender	4. Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education

equality and empower women	preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015
Goal 4. Reduce child mortality	5. Reduce by two thirds the mortality rate among children under five
Goal 5. Improve maternal health	6. Reduce by three quarters the maternal mortality ratio
Goal 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	7. Halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS 8. Halt and begin to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases
Goal 7. Ensure environmental sustainability	9. Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes; reverse loss of environmental resources 10. Reduce by half the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water 11. Achieve significant improvement in lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers, by 2020
Goal 8. Develop a global partnership for development	12. Develop further an open trading and financial system that is rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory. Includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction—nationally and internationally 13. Address the least developed countries' special needs. This includes tariff- and quota-free access for their exports; enhanced debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries; cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous official development assistance for countries committed to poverty reduction 14. Address the special needs of landlocked and small island developing States 15. Deal comprehensively with developing countries' debt problems through national and international measures to make debt sustainable in the long term 16. In cooperation with the developing countries, develop decent and productive work for youth 17. In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries 18. In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies—especially information and communications technologies

Why does the local level matter?

“The main challenge we face now is not one of developing plans but of ensuring implementation of this development agenda” UN Economic and Social Council President Munir Akram

FIVE YEARS AFTER THE SUMMIT VARIOUS GLOBAL REPORTS HAVE BEEN RELEASED THAT SHOW THERE HAS BEEN SOME PROGRESS TOWARDS ACHIEVING THE GOALS. HOWEVER DESPITE MANY POSITIVE SIGNS, KEY COUNTRIES, ESPECIALLY IN THE SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA REGION, LOOK AS IF THEY MAY BE UNABLE TO ACHIEVE ANY OF THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS BY 2015 UNLESS CURRENT CONDITIONS CHANGE.

A NUMBER OF COUNTRIES, WITH SUPPORT FROM DONORS AND UNITED NATIONS AGENCIES, HAVE BEEN ACTIVELY PROMOTING THE MDGs THROUGH NATIONAL PUBLIC AWARENESS CAMPAIGNS AND HAVE PRODUCED NATIONAL REPORTS TO INDICATE THE PROGRESS THEY HAVE MADE TO DATE IN THEIR COUNTRIES. HOWEVER THE NEXT CRUCIAL STEP – MOVING FROM REPORTING TO PRACTICAL ACTION - HAS BEEN SLOWER TO GET UNDERWAY. THE MDG GOAL 8 AND JOHANNESBURG AGREEMENT BOTH RECOGNISE THAT THESE INTERNATIONAL COMMITMENTS CANNOT BE ACHIEVED BY GOVERNMENTS ALONE – THEY NEED TO WORK IN PARTNERSHIP WITH ALL MAJOR STAKEHOLDERS, INCLUDING LOCAL GOVERNMENT, IF REAL PROGRESS IS TO BE MADE.

Many now recognise that it will be at the local level where real action on the MDGs will be achieved – through locally owned, driven and assessed strategies and plans – that set the goals as central aims for improving the lives of local communities. At a meeting of local government leaders in Brazil in August 2004, the UN Secretary General acknowledged that as many as 70% of the MDGs and the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation targets would be achieved primarily through local governments working in consultation with national governments and other stakeholders.

“As with the Agenda 21 process, and its flowering into Local Agendas 21, the level of the city and local authority may become the most suitable for successful implementation, because of the increasing importance of decentralization, and the closeness of this sphere of government to citizens” Millennium Project Task Force on Improving the Lives of Slum Dwellers, 2005

ALTHOUGH THE MDGs ARE ESSENTIALLY GLOBAL AND NATIONAL TARGETS, LOCAL GOVERNMENT HAS BOTH A STRATEGIC AND PRACTICAL ROLE TO PLAY. WHILST POLITICAL LEADERS SHOULD CREATE A NATIONAL APPROACH TO THE MDGs THIS NEEDS TO TAKE INTO ACCOUNT THE LOCAL DIMENSION. THE POOR FACE DEPRIVATIONS ACCORDING TO THE PROBLEMS OF A SPECIFIC LOCALITY. AS IS SO OFTEN SAID – LOCAL GOVERNMENT IS THE SPHERE OF GOVERNMENT THAT IS ‘CLOSEST TO THE PEOPLE’ AND THEREFORE BEST PLACED TO ADAPT POLICIES TO MAKE THE GOALS LOCALLY RELEVANT ACCORDING TO LOCAL PRIORITIES AND NEEDS AND TO HELP IMPLEMENT SUCH POLICIES ON THE GROUND. LOCAL GOVERNMENT CAN HELP FACILITATE LOCAL PARTNERSHIPS, INVOLVING COMMUNITIES, LOCAL BUSINESSES AND NGOs, AND MOST PARTICULARLY THE POOREST GROUPS, IN THE PROCESS. THEIR INVOLVEMENT CAN HELP MAKE LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES MORE CONSISTENT WITH NATIONAL PLANS AND SECTORAL PRIORITIES, AS WELL AS CONTRIBUTE TO IMPROVED DELIVERY OF PUBLIC SERVICES. IT CAN STRENGTHEN LOCAL GOVERNANCE AND FOSTER PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES, AS WELL AS REDUCE SOCIO-ECONOMIC DIFFERENCES. LEARNING FROM LOCAL EXPERIENCES CAN ALSO IMPROVE POLICY MAKING AT NATIONAL AND GLOBAL LEVELS THROUGH SHARING EXPERIENCES OF GOOD PRACTICE AS WELL AS HIGHLIGHTING BARRIERS TO IMPLEMENTATION.

As basic service providers and planners local government has a key role to play in eradicating poverty. Inadequate access to basic services remains the most critical problem for achieving the MDGs in low income countries. For example this is probably one of the most important factors in high infant and child mortality rates. Inadequate access to services also creates non-health problems, especially for women, who are most inconvenienced by lack of access to sanitation and typically have to fetch the household's water and care for sick children. Services, such as water for agriculture, are also of critical importance for low-income households who depend on growing food and raising livestock to supplement their diet and income (UN HABITAT 2005).

Who is the toolkit for? From local to global links

The toolkit is designed for politicians and practitioners at the local level, typically in local government, to equip them with some resources for meeting the MDGs. However, it is also

appropriate for regional/provincial authorities, central government, as well as international donors and agencies to read as throughout the toolkit there are examples of the vital need for cooperation, institutional support and a partnership approach across the different spheres of governance. In particular many governments now actively promote decentralisation as a part of their development programmes, through establishing new legislation and assigning additional local powers. However, additional responsibilities are not always accompanied by the necessary resources and training to build up local capacity and financial means required to take on additional roles and autonomy. Even when sufficient resources are supplied decentralisation alone cannot guarantee that the needs of the poorest will be met. Central governments therefore have a vital role to play in providing a supportive national framework to encourage and enable both regional and local authorities to adopt a more pro-poor approach to local development. Similarly international donors need to ensure development programmes provide sufficient flexibility and coherent policies to support both national and local governments in adopting a coherent framework of work.

The toolkit discusses the importance of good governance – both horizontally across organisations and groups at the same level but also vertically across different sphere of governance. In particular it outlines some mechanisms to support greater learning from the ‘bottom-up’ as well as the more typical ‘top-down’ interaction between different spheres of government – aiming at establishing a more coherent system of governance in support of meeting the MDGs.

Geographical focus of the toolkit

Various bodies in the UN - the UN Millennium Campaign, UN Development Programme, UN Habitat - along with global partners such as United Cities and Local Government (UCLG), as well as national partners, are already encouraging local government in developed countries to promote awareness and action in their local communities. However it is in developing and transitional countries where real action needs to take place.

The focus of this toolkit is to target local governments in low to middle income countries across the five UN ‘regions’:

- Europe & the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)
- Arab States
- Latin America and Caribbean
- Africa
- Asia

INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL CONTEXT - CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

Why are the MDGs important?

The following section highlights the importance of the MDGs by outlining some of the current global and regional trends for each of the MDGs.

Table 2. Summary of global trends - 1990-2005

Goal 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger - Poverty rates are falling in all countries led by Asian countries, with the exception of South-East Europe and the former Soviet Union. Millions more people have sunk deep into poverty in sub-Saharan Africa, where the poor are getting poorer. Progress has been made against hunger, but slow growth of agricultural output and expanding populations have led to setbacks in some regions. Since 1990, millions more people are chronically hungry in sub-Saharan Africa and in Southern Asia – where half the children under five are malnourished.

Goal 2. Achieve universal primary education – Most regions are approaching universal enrolment but in sub-Saharan Africa under two thirds of children are enrolled in primary school. Regions such as Southern Asia and Oceania, also have a long way to go. In these regions and elsewhere, increased enrolment must be accompanied by efforts to ensure that all children remain in school and receive a high-quality education.

Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower women - The gender gap in primary school enrolment is closing - albeit slowly - in the developing world. This is seen as a first step towards easing inequalities between women and men. In almost all developing regions, women receive a lower level of wage than men, often relegated to insecure and poorly paid jobs. Though progress is being made, women lack equal representation at the highest levels of government, holding only 16% of parliamentary seats worldwide.

Goal 4. Reduce child mortality - The death rates of children under five are dropping but not fast enough. Eleven million children a year — 30,000 a day — die from preventable or treatable causes. Most of these lives could be saved by expanding existing programmes that promote simple, low-cost solutions.

Goal 5. Improve maternal health - More than half a million women die each year during pregnancy or childbirth. Twenty times that number suffer serious injury or disability. Some progress has been made in reducing maternal deaths in developing regions, but not in the countries where giving birth is most risky.

Goal 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases - AIDS has become the leading cause of premature death in sub-Saharan Africa and the fourth largest killer worldwide. In the European Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) and parts of Asia, HIV is spreading at an alarming rate. Though new drug treatments prolong life, there is no cure for AIDS, and prevention efforts must be intensified in every region of the world if the target is to be met. Malaria and tuberculosis together kill nearly as many people each year as AIDS, and represent a severe drain on national economies. 90% of malaria deaths occur in sub-Saharan Africa, although prevention and treatment efforts are being scaled up. Tuberculosis is on the rise, partly due to HIV/AIDS. A new international protocol to detect and treat the disease is showing promise.

Goal 7. Ensure environmental sustainability - Most countries have committed to sustainable development but this has not resulted in sufficient progress in reversing the loss of the world's environmental resources. Achieving goal 7 will require greater attention to the plight of the poor, whose day-to-day existence is often directly linked to the natural resources around them. We need an unprecedented level of global cooperation. Action to prevent further deterioration of the ozone layer shows that results are possible. Access to safe drinking water has increased, but half the developing world still access to toilets and basic sanitation. Nearly 1 billion people live in urban slums because the growth of the urban population is outpacing improvements in housing and the availability of productive jobs.

Goal 8. Develop a global partnership for development - The United Nations Millennium Declaration represents a global social compact: developing countries will do more to ensure their own development, and developed countries will support them through aid, debt relief and better opportunities for trade. Progress in each of these areas has already begun to yield results. But developed countries have fallen short of targets they have set for themselves. To achieve the Millennium Development Goals, increased aid and debt relief must be accompanied by further opening of trade, accelerated transfer of technology and improved employment opportunities for the growing ranks of young people in the developing world.

Source: United Nations 2005

Goal 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

In 1990, more than 1.2 billion people (28%) lived on less than \$1 a day. By 2001, the proportion of extremely poor people fell to 21%. From 1990 to 2001, extreme poverty fell rapidly in much of Asia, more slowly in Latin America, changed little in Northern Africa and Western Asia, and actually increased from fairly low levels in South-Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union. In central Europe groups at highest risk of poverty are single mothers, long term unemployed and the Roma communities – National actions plans are therefore focusing on reducing poverty and social exclusion as part of their accession process to the European Union. In sub-Saharan Africa, already with the highest poverty rates in the world, millions more have fallen into deep poverty.

[insert Figure 1.1 MDG1 - Change in population living below \$1 (purchasing power parity) a day (1990 - 2001)]

Source: UN Stats 2005

The proportion of people going hungry was lower in 2000-02 than in 1990-92 in all regions, except Western Asia. However the absolute number has increased. Over 150 million children under five in the developing world are underweight, contributing to over half of child deaths. Child malnutrition is caused not only by poor access to food, but also by infectious diseases and lack of care. The proportion of children who are malnourished is lower than a decade ago, with the greatest progress in Eastern Asia. Almost half the children in Southern Asia continue to be underweight. Little progress has been made in sub-Saharan Africa, where the number of malnourished children has increased, partly due to an increase in population size. The majority of the world's hungry live in rural areas. They are typically people without lands, smallholder farmers, or people dependent on herding, fishing or forest resources. However hunger is becoming a growing reality in rapidly growing urban slums as well.

Declining agricultural productivity and the inability to meet the needs of growing populations are the main reasons for food shortages in many countries in Africa and Southern Asia. Conflicts and economic failures are also a source of food crises. Since 1992, the proportion of food emergencies due to human-related factors (rather than drought) has doubled. In 2004, 35 countries required emergency food assistance – the majority were in Africa and most were in conflict or post-conflict situations.

However, overcoming hunger is possible, as demonstrated by over 30 countries that have reduced hunger by at least a quarter in the last decade, including through strengthening agricultural production, targeted poverty reduction, and increasing opportunities for decent and productive employment.

Goal 2. Achieve universal primary education

Basic education is a human right. It is also fundamental tool to reduce extreme poverty and achieving other MDGs. Most developing regions have made progress towards universal primary education, but an estimated 115 million children are still out of school. More than half of these (65 million) are girls, especially in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia. If current trends continue, sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Asia and Oceania are not expected to achieve the MDG. Substantial improvement in primary school enrolment between 1990 and 2000 in some sub-Saharan African countries demonstrates that success is possible however.

Enrolment is only half the battle. Drop out rates, repeated years and poor quality education mean that many of those who do attend school fail to obtain the skills needed to function as literate individuals. In the developing regions, only 85% of young women and men are literate. Women

continue to be less likely to learn to read and write than men. In the least developed countries, a large proportion of girls do not complete primary school and less than 60% of young women are literate.

Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower women

The Millennium Declaration resolves to promote gender equality and empowerment of women as basic human rights. The Declaration states gender equality is the only way to effectively combat poverty, hunger and disease and to stimulate development that is truly sustainable. Global progress has been assessed by measuring gender equality in three areas: education, employment and political decision-making.

Enrolment of girls and boys in primary school has reached nearly equal levels in many regions in 2005. The exceptions are sub-Saharan Africa and Southern and Western Asia. These regions are experiencing even less progress in secondary education - fewer than 80 girls per 100 boys enrolled. Gender disparities in tertiary educational enrolment favour girls in the developed regions, in the European countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), in Latin America and the Caribbean and in South-Eastern Asia.

Women's access to secure paid employment is lower than men in most developing countries. Women in Southern Asia, Western Asia and Northern Africa hold only about 20% of the paying jobs in sectors outside of agriculture. After steady improvement in Latin America and the Caribbean, women hold over 40% of paying jobs. In the CIS, equality in wage employment hides a deteriorating job situation for both women and men. In Central European countries, significant gender inequalities have been found in the labour market in terms of wages, opportunities and compensation.

Women's share of seats in parliament has increased since the early 1990s. Nevertheless, women only hold 16% of parliamentary seats worldwide (only Rwanda and the Nordic countries have come close to parity). As of 1 January 2005, only 17 countries met the target of at least 30% representation by women in parliament, as set by the UN Social and Economic Council in 1990. However by the end of 2004, 81 countries had adopted some form of affirmative action, such as party quotas or reserving seats for women in parliament to ensure their political participation.

Goal 4. Reduce child mortality

Almost 11 million children die before the age of five every year - that's 30,000 children a day. Most of these children live in developing countries. They die from preventable or treatable diseases such as pneumonia or diarrhoea. In 1960, one in five children died before their fifth birthday. By 1990, this rate had fallen to one in ten. This progress makes the MDG target more hopeful but advances slowed in the 1990s. Only Northern Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean and South-Eastern Asia maintained their rapid pace, partly due to economic growth, better nutrition and increased access to health care. In sub-Saharan Africa, where almost half of all deaths in children under five occur, progress slowed. There are many reasons, including lack of preventive care and treatment, socio-economic stagnation, conflict, instability and AIDS. Elsewhere countries in conflict, such as Cambodia and Iraq, have experienced sharp increases in child mortality or no improvement since 1990.

[Insert Figure 1.2. MDG 4 - Change in mortality rate of infants under five (1990 – 2003)]

source: UN Stats 2005

Five diseases account for half of all deaths in children under five. Measles is the leading cause of child deaths, despite a safe, effective and relatively inexpensive vaccine to protect against measles being available for over 40 years. This highly contagious disease strikes 30 million children a year,

killing 540,000 and leaving many blind or deaf. Coverage for measles immunization has risen slowly, but lags behind in sub-Saharan Africa, where more than a third of all children are still unprotected. With adequate resources and appropriate policies, millions of young lives could be saved through simple, proven, low-cost prevention and treatment measures. If current trends continue the reduction in under-five mortality worldwide from 1990 to 2015 will be around 15%, well short of the two-thirds reduction target agreed by world leaders in 2000.

Goal 5. Improve maternal health

Complications during pregnancy and childbirth are a leading cause of death and disability among women of reproductive age in developing countries. Over half a million women die each year from complications, and 20 times that many suffer serious injuries or disabilities that, if left untreated, can cause lifelong pain and humiliation. Recent estimates indicate high levels of maternal mortality in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia. Of an estimated 529,000 maternal deaths worldwide in 2000, 445,000 were in those two regions. A recent analysis of the limited data available suggests significant declines have occurred in countries with already moderate to low levels of maternal mortality. In sub-Saharan Africa there is no evidence that maternal mortality ratios are declining. Women die in pregnancy and childbirth partly due to poor health systems – especially in rural areas. There are too few health facilities, medicines and professionals to assist in deliveries. Reducing maternal deaths is not only a health issue. It is an issue of social justice and human rights because most of these deaths are preventable. Data on the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel in 2003 indicate progress in South-Eastern Asia and Northern Africa. There was no change in Sub-Saharan Africa, where maternal mortality is highest. Coverage is lower in rural than in urban areas in all countries.

[insert Figure 1.3 MDG 5 - Maternal mortality ratio in 2000]

source: UN Stats 2005

Preventing maternal deaths requires the right combination of investment and public health policies to keep women healthy during pregnancy and to deliver basic health information. This means investments in health facilities, but also in water and sanitation and women's education. The presence of skilled health attendants is essential to help women through labour and to anticipate problems. Access to fully equipped emergency obstetric care is also critical, so that complications can be treated when they arise.

Goal 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

In 25 years AIDS has become the leading cause of premature death in sub-Saharan Africa and the fourth largest killer worldwide. More than 20 million people globally have died of AIDS since the epidemic began. By the end of 2004, an estimated 39.4 million people were living with HIV – the highest number on record. Nearly two thirds of these live in sub-Saharan Africa. The epidemic shows no signs of slowing: 4.9 million people were newly infected with HIV in 2004, and there were 3.1 million deaths due to AIDS (500,000 in children under 15). In southern Africa, AIDS is an increasingly significant cause of death for children under five. An increasing level has also been noted in CIS countries, as well as Russia.

Nearly half of all people living with HIV are women. As the epidemic worsens, the share of infected women and girls is growing. In sub-Saharan Africa, 57% of those infected with HIV are female. AIDS is not only a source of extreme human suffering. It also strains social services, exacerbates gender inequalities, drains the labour supply and increases child labour. In the absence of access to treatment workforce losses due to HIV/AIDS are expected to reach 28 million by 2005, 48 million by 2010, and 74 million by 2015.

[insert Figure 1.4 MDG 6 - HIV prevalence]

source: UN Stats 2005

Malaria claims the lives of a million people a year, mostly young children. There is little evidence of improvement in malaria-endemic regions. Tuberculosis is also making a comeback due to the emergence of drug-resistant strains and the vulnerabilities created by HIV/AIDS. Global estimates are rising, although it is estimated that prevalence and mortality rates are falling as an increasing number receive treatment under an internationally recommended strategy known as "DOTS". Whether reductions in tuberculosis can reach the MDG target by 2015 depends on how rapidly such control programmes can be implemented, and how effectively they can be adapted to meet the challenges presented by HIV co-infection (especially in Africa) and drug resistance (especially in Eastern Europe).

All three of these diseases – AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis – are concentrated in the poorest countries. They could all be controlled through education, prevention and, when illness strikes, intervention.

Goal 7. Ensure environmental sustainability

"If we do not acknowledge that the environment is central to sustainable development and ending poverty, we run the risk of missing all the MDGs and further degrading the resource base on which future development depends" Kenya's Assistant Minister for Environment, Wangari Maathai, 2004

Most countries have committed to the principles of sustainable development and to incorporating them into their national policies and strategies. They have also agreed to implement relevant international agreements. However, good intentions have not translated into sufficient reversal of our impact on the natural environment. Even regions that have made significant progress towards other MDGs, such as parts of Asia, have a much poorer record on environmental issues. Reversing the loss of critical environmental resources, such as forests, biological diversity and the ozone layer, are among the targets for MDG 7, along with provision of safe water, adequate sanitation and decent, affordable housing for the world's poor. Progress has been made in some areas but the general outlook is grim. Forests cover one third of the earth's surface and are one of the richest ecosystems. From 1990 to 2000 forests shrank by 940,000 square kilometres, an area the size of Venezuela, due to conversion into farmland and other uses. But there are positive signs. Sustainable forest management practices, including agroforestry and planted forests, are increasingly being used to reduce pressure on the land and to improve the livelihoods of communities living in and around forests. Over 13% of the earth's land surface, 19 million square kilometres, are designated as protected areas. This is an increase of 15% since 1994. This expansion is encouraging, but management of these areas does not always meet conservation goals. Marine environments are less protected, with less than 1% of key marine ecosystems protected. Loss of habitats and biological diversity continues, more than 10,000 species are considered under threat.

[Insert Figure 1.5 MDG7 - Proportion of land area covered by forest]

source:

Per capita carbon dioxide emissions, the main source of the "greenhouse effect" causing climate change, have increased in developing countries and remained stable in the group of industrialized countries (known as "Annex I Parties") that have ratified the Kyoto Protocol. Globally, per capita emissions have slightly decreased mainly as the result of a decline in industrial production in transitional economies in the 1990s. Progress in energy efficiency and clean technology and fuels is ongoing. But the transfer of new technologies to the developing countries is not occurring at a

fast enough rate. Changing consumption among the richest countries will also help. In contrast, nearly half the world's population depend on solid fuels, including wood, dung, crop residues and coal, to meet their basic energy needs. Indoor air pollution from cooking with such fuels is responsible for more than 1.6 million deaths annually, mostly among women and children.

Access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation is a vital aspect of primary health care and human development. Progress was made in the 1990s to increase access to improved drinking water sources. However, over a billion people are still unserved. Coverage remains low, especially in rural areas of Africa and in urban slums. Much slower progress has been made globally in improving sanitation coverage. An estimated 2.6 billion people – half of the developing world – lack toilets and other forms of sanitation. If trends continue, close to 2.4 billion people will still be without improved sanitation in 2015, almost as many as there are without improved sanitation today. The situation is most severe in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia.

[insert Figure 6 on drinking water and Figure 7 on Sanitation]
source:

Rapid urbanization in the developing world is challenging countries' capacity to keep up with demand for decent, affordable housing. Nearly 1 billion people – almost 1 in 3 city dwellers – live in slums. About 200 million new slum dwellers were added to urban communities between 1990 and 2001, representing an increase of 28%.

[insert Figure 8 on slum population size]

source:

Goal 8. Develop a global partnership for development

The Millennium Declaration calls for partnerships between developed and developing countries. It represents an agreement where developing countries will work to maintain sound economies, ensure their own development and address human and social needs. Developed countries have agreed to support poorer countries through aid, trade and debt relief. MDG 8 addresses how developed countries can assist developing countries in achieving the other goals. It calls for more official development assistance (ODA); measures to ensure long term debt sustainability; an open, equitable, rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory multilateral trading and financial system; and to address the special needs of least developed, landlocked and small island developing states.

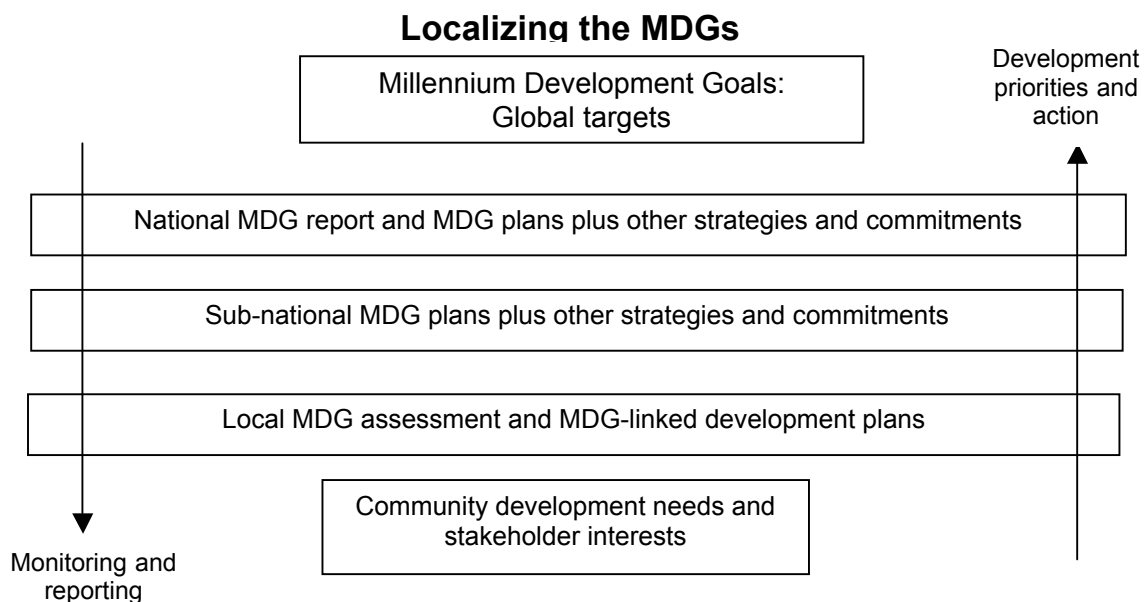
The international community at large and donor countries in particular have strengthened their support to developing countries. ODA has begun to increase and some donor countries have made further commitments over coming years. The total ODA commitment by the donor community in 2003 was still below the 0.33% reached in 1990 and falls far short of the agreed 0.7% target. There has been progress in implementing Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) debt relief initiative. In June 2005, a group of developed countries agreed to the full cancellation of \$40 billion owed by 18 countries that had reached "completion point" in the HIPC process. The importance of central European aid for the Balkans and CIS countries also looks to be increasing.

While aid is critical for the poorest countries, all countries would benefit from more free and fair trade, as the primary source of foreign revenue. The lack of willingness by some developed countries to make substantial concessions has slowed down the Doha trade talks, especially on agricultural trade and movement of people. In 2004 the World Trade Organization ruled that certain subsidies by developed countries adversely affect developing countries and should be eliminated (UN Statistics Division 2005).

Achieving the goals

This broad summary of the global picture is somewhat daunting. It also highlights how different aspects of poverty impact upon each other. Not all of these global goals or targets may be of direct relevance to the local community where you live and work. However, looking at these overall trends gives a sense of the scale of the global problem and why the international community is calling for urgent action.

Over 70 countries have produced national MDG reports outlining the progress that they have made towards achieving the goals. However considerable gaps in terms of information remain. Poverty data, especially once it is disaggregated to the sub-national level, as well as by gender, age, and ethnicity, indicates that there are large socio-economic differences and disparities within countries. Should local government take a more active role in contributing to the MDGs it would be of considerable value to both national governments and international agencies. It could improve the understanding of the progress being achieved within countries in a more accurate way as well as highlight the many successful local examples and experiences that offer opportunities for good practice to be adapted and applied more widely elsewhere.



Source: Urban Millennium Partnership - Localizing MDGs. UN Habitat, UNDP, UCLG (2005)

Section 2: Steps for strategy development

- [STRUCTURE](#)
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- STEP 5 - [DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING ACTION PLANS](#)
- STEP 6 - [MONITORING AND REVISION](#)

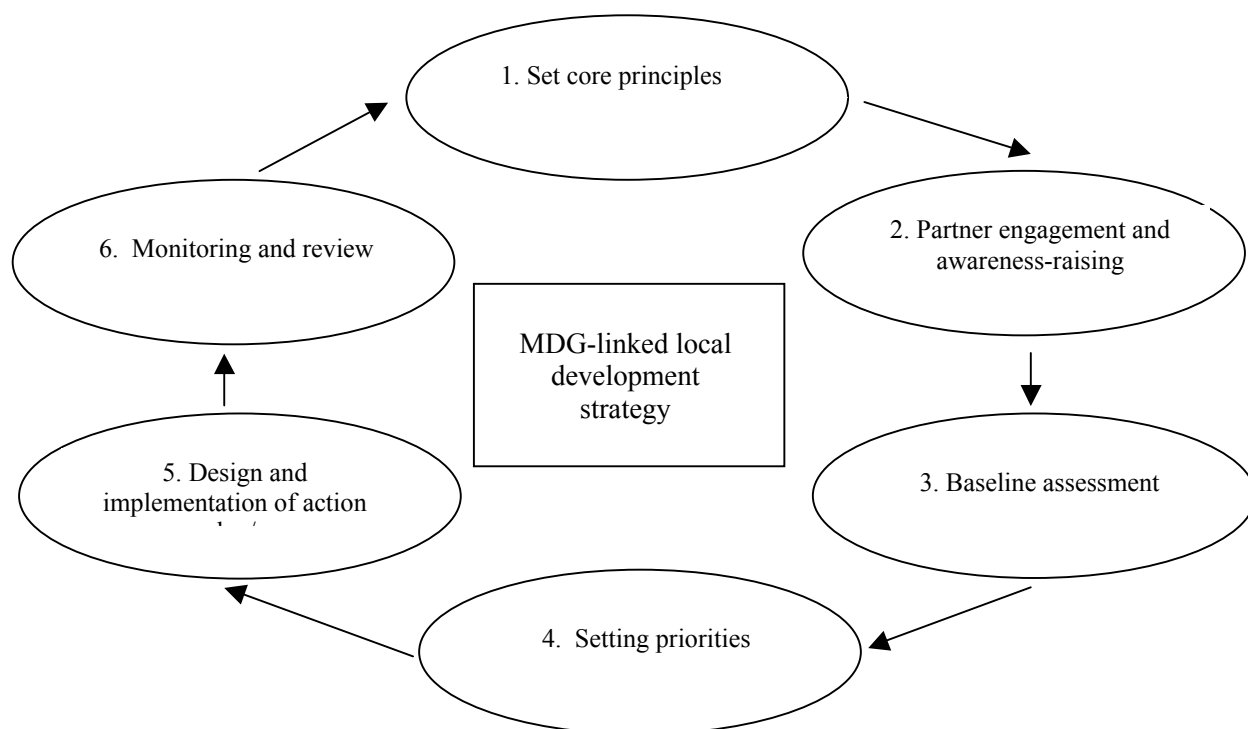
STRUCTURE

This section of the toolkit outlines the main phases for developing an MDG-linked local development strategy.

- Step 1. Establishing core principles / aims
- Step 2. Partner engagement and awareness-raising
- Step 3. Baseline assessment
- Step 4. Establishing priorities
- Step 5. Designing and implementing action plan/s
- Step 6. Monitoring and revision

These steps should not be seen as separate activities and do not even have to be applied in the order as listed above because it is possible even necessary for different steps to take place at the same time. In particular the inclusion and participation of partners and different local groups – as outlined in step 2 – should be adopted in each of the other steps, including Step 1 during the setting of aims and principles. Equally monitoring and revision should be undertaken at various intervals throughout the development and implementation of a strategy.

Figure 2.1 Steps in a MDG-linked local development strategy



As indicated in the introduction, this toolkit aims not to be too prescriptive in how an MDG-linked local development strategy is formulated but rather it should be read as a guide and resource to help get things started. The toolkit also emphasises the value of adopting a flexible approach to strategy formulation – to allow opportunities for refining and adjusting of the strategy to take account of changing circumstances and as understanding of the different issues develop.

Focusing on the MDGs should not require the development of a separate local strategy, but rather the aims should be integrated within local policies and planning. The approach should also provide a means to ensure better tie-in between local policies and actions with national and international objectives.

Obstacles to local implementation

Before developing an MDG-linked local development strategy it is important that a local government is aware that they may face various challenges along the way. Possible obstacles include:

- Weak local capacity, in terms of a knowledge and skills, to implement the MDGs
- Lack of disaggregated local information and public awareness about the MDGs
- Weak capacity to undertake integrated and participatory planning (horizontal coordination)
- Limited skills in introducing performance budgeting for effective implementation
- Limited capacity for creating a framework of MDG indicators and monitoring mechanisms
- Blocks to fiscal decentralization, such as weak local capacity to adopt pro-poor elements, or a lack of training in budgeting and expenditure impact tools
- Weak local procurement capacity which acts as an impediment for high quality and the efficient delivery of public services
- Lack of a national enabling environment for effective local development (e.g. legal and regulatory framework supporting decentralisation, financial resources, organisational systems and mechanisms, values, norms and social practices that influence people's decision and behaviour).
- Weak vertical coordination with poor alignment of local priorities to national plans and policies
- Inconsistent support from international agencies and donors to promote local governance and local poverty reduction activities

The following strategic steps outline some principles and resources which may help to address these challenges.

STEP 1 - ESTABLISHING CORE PRINCIPLES / AIMS

This section outlines the importance of:

- Establishing systems of good local governance and integrated local development
- Regional, national and international supportive frameworks

Good local governance

Good governance at the local level is a fundamental requirement for ensuring an effective strategic and practical response to the MDGs. As providers of key services, improved local governance and management can contribute significantly to poverty reduction. Local government therefore requires sound financial management and administrative procedures, as well as skilled staff to effectively manage, plan and deliver services, ensuring good accountability to political representatives and wider community (DFID 2001).

Core principles of good local governance¹ have been defined by various different organisations, as well as mechanisms to help introduce them. One example is the United Nations Human Settlements organisation (UN-HABITAT) 'Campaign for Urban Governance' which proposes some core principles of good local governance. These 'norms' of good local governance are defined as "*sustainability, subsidiarity, equity, efficiency, transparency and accountability, civic engagement and citizenship, and security*" – Table 1 outlines these principles in more detail. The UN-HABITAT Campaign is actively promoting these principles of good governance through piloting an 'Urban Governance Index' in a number of cities – further information about this can be found in Section 4.

An effective MDG-linked local development strategy needs to seek better 'horizontal' coordination across processes, institutions and actors at the local level. Adopting an integrated approach to strategy development and implementation is a crucial ingredient of good governance. Internally within an authority, each local government department and division needs to be involved and engaged in the process including the political representatives of the local council, to planning and economic development divisions, through to management and financial administration. Externally, the local government must ensure coordinated approach is also adopted with local actors – from the business community, to households, NGOs, faith communities and so on. An example of applying an effective integrated approach can be found by looking at the Local Agenda 21 process. Over 6000 local governments have implemented Local Agenda 21 globally – providing a framework that ties together social, economic and environmental factors, in partnership with local actors, as a part of the local government response to the 1992 Rio Earth Summit call for a sustainable approach to development at all levels. Within a local government, the MDG strategy should therefore directly relate to general local development strategies, plans, policies and activities. It should not be seen as a separate activity but integral driver to the every workings of a local authority. However, adopting an integrated approach is not a simple task. To effectively integrate the strategy and systematically promote greater empowerment, improved governance, and more effective service provision at local level, several significant challenges are likely to be confronted, including:

- changing attitudes and practices in both public sector organizations and in civil society towards applying good governance values;
- managing complex processes involving many different actors, both governmental and non-governmental, at several levels;

¹ Local governance comprises a set of institutions, mechanisms and processes through which citizens and their groups can articulate their interests and needs, mediate their differences and exercise their rights and obligations at a local level. The building blocks of good local governance are many: citizen participation, partnerships among key actors at the local level, capacity of the local actors across all sectors, multiple flows of information, institutions of accountability and a pro-poor orientation (UNDP 2003).

- surmounting institutional boundaries that separate sectoral, local government and community-based actors and organizations due to divergent interests and values;
- realigning power relations to favour local actors along side national actors and to favour communities and civil society rather than public officials.

Table 2.1 UN Habitat's Principles of good urban governance

Norms	Objectives	Operational Principles
Sustainability	Balanced social, economic & environmental priorities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Undertaking consultations with stakeholders within communities to agree on a broad-based, long-term strategic vision for the city • Engaging in consultative environmental planning and management processes that are geared to reach agreement on acceptable levels of resource use, applying the precautionary principle in situations where human activity may adversely affect the well-being of present and/or future generations • Ensuring financial viability by promoting economic activity through the participation of all citizens in the economic life of the city
	Stakeholder Involvement	
Decentralisation	Local Autonomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing clear frameworks for assigning and delegating responsibilities and commensurate resources from the national to the city level and/or from the city level to the neighbourhood level, and establishing participatory monitoring systems for resource use • Creating transparent and predictable intergovernmental fiscal transfers and the development of administrative, technical and managerial capacities which are responsive, transparent and accountable • Protecting financially weaker local authorities through systems of vertical and horizontal financial equalisation agreed to in full consultation with local authorities and all stakeholders
Equity	Resource allocation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishing equitable principles for prioritising infrastructure development and pricing local services • Establishing investment incentives for targeted sectors and geographic areas • Removing unnecessary barriers to secure tenure and the supply of finance • Creating social pacts and fair and predictable regulatory frameworks
	Empowerment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensuring that women and men have equal access to decision-making processes, resources and basic services and that this access is measured through gender disaggregated data • Creating rules governing freedom of access to local authority information • Providing civic education • Creating enabling legislative framework for traditional economic and social institutions and informal sector operators
Efficiency	Management & service delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating codes of conduct for leaders and officials • Establishing "Best Value" approaches to target setting • Developing and implementing fair and predictable legal and regulatory frameworks that encourage commerce, minimize transaction costs, protect human rights and legitimize the informal sector • Removing unnecessary barriers to secure tenure and to the supply of finance • Adopting clear objectives and targets for the provision of public services • Popularising service standards and complaint procedures • Undertaking transparent contracting and procurement systems
	Efficient investment in infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Utilising participatory strategic planning to address the needs of all groups in society • Improving the effectiveness and efficiency of local revenue collection • Undertaking delivery and regulation of public services through partnerships with the private and civil society sectors

Table 2.1 UN Habitat's Principles of good urban governance

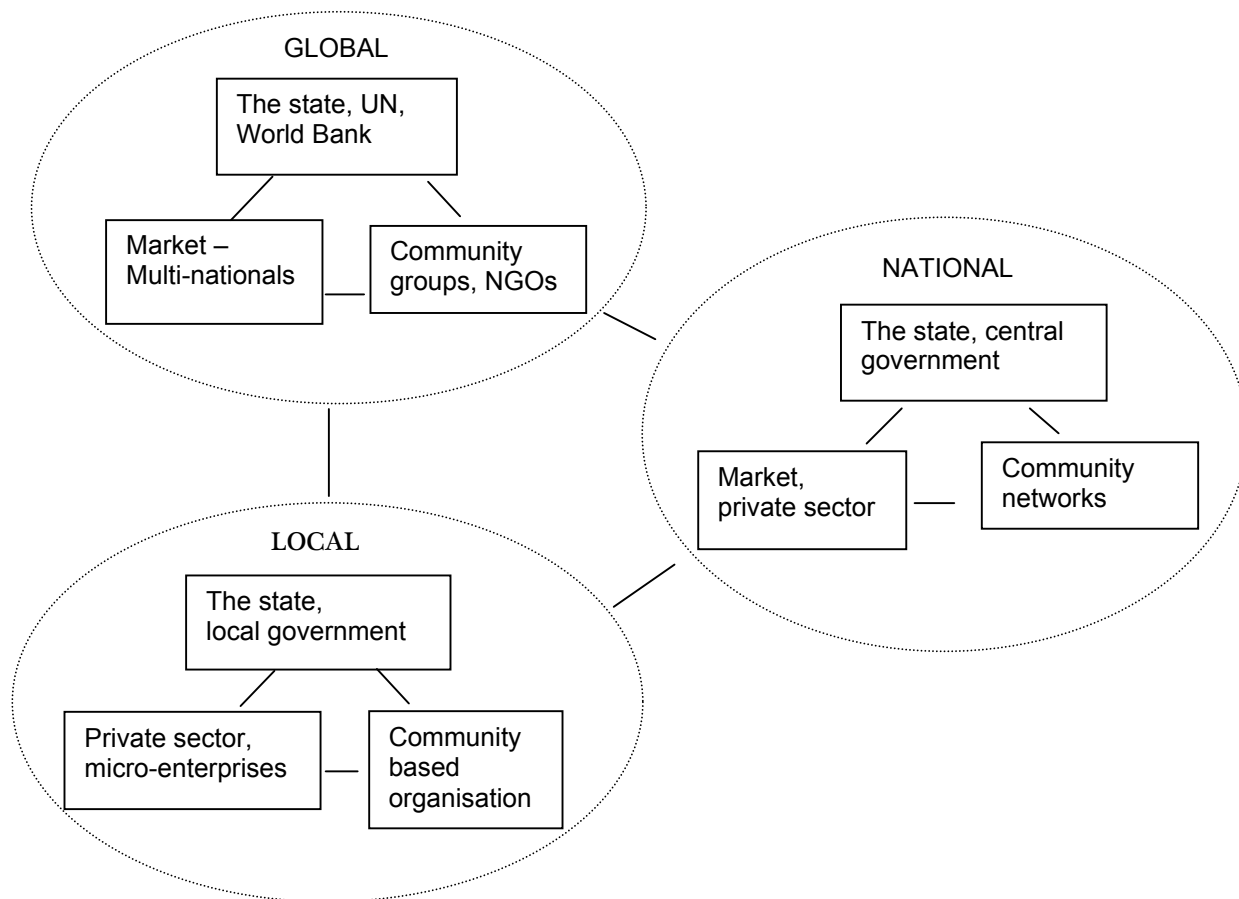
Norms	Objectives	Operational Principles
Transparency and Accountability	Transparent & accountable decision-making processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using participatory planning and budgeting Holding free and open consultations of citizens on city budgets Establishing transparent tendering and procurement procedures publishing independent annual audit reports
	Access to information High standards of ethics & professional conduct	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Encouraging open, timely and free debate about urban issues in the media Promoting an ethic of service to the public among officials Creating local integrity networks and establishing codes of conduct for public officials Removing administrative and procedural incentives for corruption Creating public feedback mechanisms such as an ombudsman, "citizen report cards" and procedures for public petitioning and/or public interest litigation
Civic Engagement and Citizenship	Leadership for public participation, stakeholder involvement & responsibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Developing a culture of civic solidarity wherein all residents and stakeholders treat each other on the basis of respect and acceptance of diversity of opinion Promoting an ethic of civic responsibility among citizens Making use of mechanisms such as public hearings, town hall meetings, citizen's forums, city consultations and participatory strategy development Undertaking city referenda concerning important urban development options Ensuring the existence of processes for conflict mediation
	Building democratic culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enabling legislative framework to protect the rights and entitlements of all groups in society Ensuring women's participation
	Enablement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Undertaking affirmative actions for marginalised groups Establishing procedures for public petitioning Establishing the legal authority for civil society to participate effectively Enabling the equal contribution of men and women and the full participation of citizenry in civic life
Security	Environmental management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Implementing environmental planning and management methodologies based on stakeholder involvement
	Disaster preparedness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Raising awareness about the risk of disasters and formulating vulnerability reduction and preparedness plans for natural and human-made disasters
	Personal safety, crime control & prevention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Creating safety and security through consultative processes based on rule of law, solidarity and prevention Developing metropolitan-wide systems of policing as a means of realizing more inclusive cities Ensuring a safe and healthy environment for children Creating a culture of peace and encouraging tolerance of diversity Resisting all forms of abuse against the person, including abuse within the home and family

Supportive frameworks at regional (sub-national), national and international levels

When describing good governance systems, it can be helpful to look at a simplified governance model with three major 'sectors' - the state, the private sector and community groups / networks that relate to each other on a range . Each sector can be broken down into additional actors – community networks for example are made up of women and men, young people, elderly, indigenous groups, different faiths, trade unions etc. The private sector is made up of informal industry, small to medium local businesses, national companies, multi-national companies and trade associations. The state incorporates national government, national public agencies, provincial and local authorities. The relationships between each sector will display different levels of power, capacity, and voice. For good governance to work there is a need for greater 'mutuality' between these groups – equality and respect to be sought, to establish shared objectives, assign respective rights and responsibilities, as well as mechanisms for cooperation. This mutuality needs

to be sought *horizontally* across institutions and groups at the same level, but also *vertically* between actors at different levels (UNDP 2003, Hamdi 2004, Callway 2005). Figure 2 outlines these linkages.

Figure 2.2. Seeking horizontal and vertical coherence in different spheres and sectors of governance



Source: Hamdi, 2004

An effective MDG-linked local development strategy needs to clarify how it will contribute to relevant provincial, national and international processes, this will include linking local action plans, targets and indicators to national and global targets (Giguère 2002, World Bank 2004).

As the following case study (Box 2.1) highlights how good governance on a range of levels is essential for the provision of basic services – in this instance for water and sanitation. Support for strengthened local governance from the national level through effective decentralisation processes is a key part of this process, as outlined further below.

Regional (sub-national) coordination - balancing rural and urban needs

UN projections indicate that 98% of global population growth between 1995 and 2020 will occur in the developing world. The majority of this growth is predicted to take place in cities (through natural increase and rural-urban migration). However, present levels of poverty are highest in rural areas, and the absolute number of these rural poor will continue to grow (Coirolo et al 2001).

There is therefore a need to work more effectively in both rural – urban areas. As Mrs. Anna Kajumulo Tibaijuka, Executive Director of UN-HABITAT argued “*sustainable development can only be achieved if rural and urban areas are considered part of an inter-dependent, mutually reinforcing economic and social order.*” However, these interdependencies are still poorly

understood at both local and national levels, in terms of the consumption and production of goods and services, investment links, migration of people. The traditional complementary relationship between towns and cities with rural areas, where towns provide a service centres for rural communities and rural areas provide raw and processed materials, labour and demand for urban goods and services has become increasingly blurred. Smaller towns in particular face considerable challenges of low income, poor employment as the focus is increasingly on the regions around larger urban areas. It has been easier to focus on mega-cities than secondary towns where most urban growth is occurring or on rural areas where prosperous agriculture can support urban development. With better regional coordination it may be easier to reduce poverty and local economic development in both urban and rural areas. This will require careful regional spatial planning (DFID 2001, DFID 2002) as well as effective coordination between local and regional institutions.

Inter-municipal cooperation between local governments regionally within a country is another important approach. Such exchanges can support better regional coordination and addressing of inequalities between local governments but also, through collaborative working and shared learning, it can improve local government decision-making and good practice.

Box 2.1 - Governance for good water and sanitation provision

Adequate water and sanitation provision usually requires effective coordination between different local governments within the same water catchments. Upstream and downstream authorities need to take account of each other – where adequate water quality and supply are necessary. Many urban areas develop close to a water source as a basic component for development but this does not necessarily result in clear measures to manage or safeguard water supply or quality. Good local water management therefore also requires regional and national supportive frameworks in terms of regulation and financing to ensure such coordination takes place.

In Africa, Asia and much of Latin America it is common for between a third and a half of a city's population to live in illegal or informal settlements with little or no infrastructure in place for piped water, sanitation and drainage. Such informal settlements exist wherever low income groups hope to avoid eviction which is usually poor quality and dangerous land such as on steep slopes or floodplains because their homes would have risked being bulldozed if they had chosen more valuable, better quality land.

Effective water management places a considerable burden on local government – especially when an authority faces rapid population growth, weak economies and limited possibilities for raising funds to deal with water management. Effective management requires training of personnel and adequate funding, as well as good planning and charge collection systems. Two key factors the limit local government in water management are:

- Weak, under-funded and under-representative local institutions, including water and sanitation utilities with little or no investment capacity
- Higher levels of government that are unwilling to supply local government with the resources and revenue generating powers that they need to become more effective.

Good governance in water and sanitation is an essential component to improving quality and quantity of supply, it includes the need for effective administration; integrated water resource management systems; economic viability; political support; and technical competence.

Source: UN Habitat 2003

National frameworks – supporting decentralisation

“Decentralised governance for development (DGD) encompasses decentralisation, local governance, and urban/rural development...DGD is a key area of democratic governance which is crucial to attaining human development and the MDGs” UNDP 2004

One of the 'norms' of good governance described in Table 2.1 is the need for decentralisation. It is clear that to achieve the MDGs better governance is needed not only at the state level but also locally (van Klinken 2005). Decentralisation refers to a system of co-responsibility between institutions at central, regional and local levels, adopting the principle of subsidiarity i.e. where responsibility can be most effectively applied (UNDP 2003). An ideal decentralized system according to UNDP (1997) has the following main characteristics:

- Local units of government are autonomous and clearly recognised as separate levels of government over which central authorities exercise little direct control;
- The local authorities have clear and legally recognized geographical boundaries within which they exercise authority and perform public functions;
- Local authorities have corporate status and the power to secure resources to perform their functions;
- Devolution addresses the need to develop local governments as institutions and as service providers;
- Devolution is an arrangement in which reciprocal, mutually beneficial and coordinated relationships between central and local government should exist.

A number of governments have embraced decentralisation as a means to promote good governance and fight poverty in their countries. However, in many instances despite broad national support local governments are not given more targeted support in terms of sufficient powers and resources to permit them to deliver even essential services effectively (Blomquist et al 2005, Kanyinda 2004, Mody 2004, World Bank c. 2004).

“Devolving power and the provision of services to local units and layers of government has potential as an effective means of bringing politicians and policy makers closer to clients and making services more effective. However at the local level, institutions and participatory development mechanisms are often weak, resulting in poor service delivery” UK Commission for Africa 2005.

Decentralisation can help improve more cost effective delivery of basic services and economic efficiency (UNDP 2003). However, neither good local governance nor decentralisation can guarantee poverty elimination or sustainable development – such processes require sufficient political backing to empower the poor and ensure accountability at the local level (DFID 2001). Establishing good systems of local governance that support inclusion of the poor is therefore only likely when higher levels of government provide sufficient political, technical, legal, and financial support to local government. National governments need to set the context in which local authorities operate including making policy goals, legislation, and procedures more consistent at higher levels to encourage better horizontal coordination in the public sector at the local level, as well as adapt national and regional frameworks to better reflect local needs. They also need to provide flexibility in the management of public programmes – allowing sufficient autonomy and local jurisdiction to define local development plans and strategies that are appropriate to local circumstances (World Bank 2004).

Governments can provide positive incentives aimed at improving local government performance – through targeted budget allocations. They can seek to educate and empower local citizens about their right to be represented locally, the types of services they should expect from local government, their responsibility to participate in local decisions and how to hold local officials accountable. National government can act as the 'watch dog' ensuring that the interests of weaker groups are addressed – the voices of marginalised groups, such as women and indigenous peoples, can be promoted through stipulating a reserved number of seats for them on local councils. The government can also institute minimum standards (attached with the necessary resources), e.g. on environmental management, social safety nets, to ensure the core MDGs are met. It can also strengthen the justice system, ensuring it is independent and accessible to the public (World Bank 2004, UNDP and UNEP 2004).

For example, the Government of Tanzania National Environment Policy has recognised the indispensable role of local government in achieving its objectives and calls of local government to protect and manage the natural environment. The government acknowledges that local government is best placed to target local concerns and implement locally sustainable outcomes – through constructing, operating and maintaining economic, social and environmental infrastructure and policies. It also sees that local government is better able to educate, mobilise and respond to local communities (Mniwasa and Shauri 2001). The Turkish government has similarly promoted this approach through supporting MDG-orientated Local Agenda 21 processes (outlined in Step 5 of this section).

Table 2 outlines some principle recommendations to central government to help promote effective decentralisation – decentralisation that targets the needs of the poorest in a sustainable way.

TABLE 2. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ‘EFFECTIVE’ DECENTRALISATION

Aim	Recommendation
Good governance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Instituting the right values</i> – Core principles of effective decentralisation, such as good local governance, human rights, sustainability and pro-poor orientation, should be recognised and encouraged • <i>Enabling local government</i> – Decentralisation is required in both regulatory powers (ability to enforce local guidelines, policies, and create revenue through taxation and fees) and resources (finance, technical, management and governance capacity) • <i>Local to national links</i> – Involvement of the local level in regional and national processes, policies, strategies, reporting and planning is strongly advised
Engaging the poor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Involving the poor</i> – Directly engaging the poor in decentralisation processes is vital for effective poverty eradication. This recognises that it is the poor that need to own and be a part of finding their own solutions. • <i>Participatory approaches</i> – Building participation skills in local government is required, to support active community involvement in planning, decision-making and service delivery. It is especially important to build up skills for involving poor and marginalised groups in local governance. Training should focus on: transparent participatory decision-making; civic dialogues; negotiation skills; conflict management; and consensus building
Local capacity development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Capacity development of local leadership</i> – Capacity development of local government leaders is crucial to achieve full understanding of the implications of various options for service delivery, including about privatisation and partnerships • <i>Political and governance skills</i> – enabling local officials and officers to be effective in sustainable governance and tackle locally relevant MDGs in the short to longer-term • <i>Technical practitioner support</i> – targeted capacity development is needed by key local practitioners e.g. planners, environmental health officers, sanitation and waste service providers, financial administrators • <i>Information for decision-making</i> – Support is required to strengthen local capacity for data collection and analysis to enhance monitoring, reporting and decision-making. This would also help provide better information for national government analysis and decision-making
Finance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Development of tools and mechanisms</i> – is urgently needed to increase financial investment in local infrastructure (water, sanitation, housing etc) • <i>Access to finance</i> – Mobilised access to finance locally and local revenue creation (e.g. capacity to raise taxes and fees) should be enabled and supported • <i>New mechanisms</i> – Support for new local finance mechanisms, e.g. coordinating local government bonds regionally to increase access to local funds

Long term sustainability

- *Decentralisation and participation* – Local Agenda 21 (LA21) participatory processes need greater support at all levels to ensure that sustainable local action is achieved involving all groups in a community, especially the poorest
 - *Sustainable consumption and production* – National policies should encourage local governments to purchase essential goods and services (e.g. transport, shelter, water and sanitation delivery) that meet sustainability criteria
 - *Urban – rural links* – National strategies need to foster dialogue and cooperation between urban and rural jurisdictions, encouraging greater regional coherence and an integrated approach
 - *Inter-municipal cooperation* – Governments and international agencies should encourage local government networking, technical exchange, and study visits to support learning and capacity development for sustainable development. Bilateral, regional and international programmes require additional recognition and support
 - *Supportive institutional framework* – Governments and international agencies need to provide consistent policy and regulatory frameworks and greater encouragement for sustainable local action
-

Source: adapted from UK Local Government Alliance for International Development 2004 and UNDP 2003

The potential to co-ordinate policies at local level can be affected impacted by those policies pursued by the various government departments at national level. It is common for national governments to be faced with a variety of similar and conflicting requirements from numerous international and national obligations: environmentally, by Multilateral Environmental Agreements (MEAs) and national legislation; socially, by development agreements, human rights law and labour standards; and economically, by multi- and bi-lateral trade agreements and national trading standards. Such complex national agendas can result in burdensome requirements being pressed onto regional and local levels (Commonwealth Secretariat 2005).

The national level therefore needs to aim at establishing common or compatible objectives, which can then be pursued more concretely and efficiently in partnership with local or regional levels (Giguère 2002). Clearly defined national development strategies e.g. Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRS) or National Sustainable Development Strategies (NSDSs) are important mechanisms to support greater coherence in that they can help to clarify how various national obligations can work towards common aims in a more coherent format – establishing strategic objectives that are common across different sectors and levels (Commonwealth Secretariat 2005).

In addition, as promoted in the PRS approach, the national level needs to establish and support mechanisms through which local and regional experiences can be fed back to the centre to highlight positive areas and deficiencies in the national strategy and policy framework, as well as to secure financial resources and appropriate budget reallocations for implementation. Recent experience in Indonesia (see Box 2.2) highlights the fact that they have used decentralization to try and improve participation and be more responsive to the poor.

Supporting greater local financial autonomy is also a crucial aspect of decentralisation where a lack of finance has been shown to greatly constrain the ability of local government to deliver services to poor people. Supporting financial autonomy is significant as it can enable greater:

- Efficiency: better reflecting local priorities
- Accountability: establishing closer relationships between service providers and recipients
- Manageability: encouraging competition and innovation in service providers (Ebel 2001)

Decentralisation of finances therefore is vital for supporting an effective MDG-linked local development strategy. However, fiscal decentralisation has been held back in many countries – due to advantages of central control and political weight of centralists but the case for decentralization is growing, along with the call for increasing citizen participation (UNDP 2001). In many countries, municipal capacity has been undermined through central government control and removal of functions to special agencies. As such public expenditure on housing, education, health and water are not locally accountable (Blore, Devas and Slater 2004). The following Box 2.3

outlines some core principles that central governments will need to undertake to support financial decentralisation.

Engaging international institutions

Just as for regional and national levels, a supportive international framework approach is also essential. The UN, World Bank, and Regional Development Banks, as well as other donor agencies can play a strong role encouraging countries to meet their poverty reduction targets and enabling them to meet the needs of poorest locally. For example in Albania the UNDP has supported the preparation of MDGs regional reports and strategies in all 12 regions of the country (DFID 2001). International donors have begun to recognise that they need to be much more consistent in how they support development financially, including at the local level. In March 2005 heads of multilateral and bilateral development institutions, agreed the 'Paris Declaration on Aid effectiveness - Ownership, Harmonisation, Alignment, Results and Mutual Accountability' at a meeting in Paris. The declaration calls for increased aid efficiency and harmonisation between donors to contribute to achieving the MDGs. It recognises that there needs to be greater ownership and accountability of aid for the receiving or 'partner' countries and their citizens, as well as more predictable and coordinated sources of international funds so that donors rationalise their activities and avoid duplication (Paris Declaration 2005). International agencies can also take a strong role in monitoring local developments and disseminating good practice and policy to enable effective local development, as well as to better understand how development aid can better enable local action (DFID 2001).

As mentioned earlier, there are a number of regional and international local government associations and networks that bring together local governments across a range of countries. These bodies have a significant role to play in promoting the interests of local government to central governments, as well as enabling the exchange of good practice and sharing knowledge between local government and their national associations within each region. Globally there is the United Cities and Local Government (UCLG) world organisation that is working in partnership with the UN to promote action on the MDGs. Regionally there is a number of associations, for example, the United Cities and Local Government Africa (UCLGA) in Africa; CityNet for the Asia-Pacific; Congress of Local and Regional Authorities in the Council of Europe (CLRAE) a Pan-European network that includes local government beyond EU member states; the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR) for local government in the EU; and the Federation of Latin American municipalities, Cities and Associations of local government (FLACMA) for Latin America as well as the Caribbean. There are also thematically networks such as 'ICLEI - local governments for sustainability' that supports capacity development in local governments globally, focusing on sustainable management approaches, tackling climate change, sustainable tourism development, amongst other areas, through training programmes, exchanges and events.

The Millennium Cities Partnership is an example of this approach – focusing on the MDGs – which brings together local governments, as well as national, global local government associations and the United Nations to help plan and implement the MDGs locally. The 'Partnership for managing HIV/AIDS at the local level' as an issue-specific example, that aims to strengthen community and local government capacities in order to establish local strategies which target HIV/AIDS (UN Habitat & WACLAC 2003).

At a Local Governance Forum in Bali, Indonesia in 2002, local government representatives along with a range of donors and international agencies recommended the following areas of work to promote the wider adoption of good governance:

- **Documentation of good local governance practices** - including dissemination and comparative studies to motivate replication
- **Advocacy and awareness raising** - to promote adoption of good governance, including through establishing a common monitoring system e.g. report cards to monitor performance
- **Networking** – information should be shared and support a common purpose through alliances at different levels and across stakeholders

- **Influencing policy making** – national and local policies should be grounded in the local context through feedback mechanisms allowing suggestions and complaints to be received and acted on e.g. through polls, public hearings and local media.
- **Development of local capacity** – local governments need to build skills in planning, investment, microfinance, monitoring, evaluation, reporting and other areas
- **Facilitation of behavioural change** – institutionalizing good governance requires a change in people's mindsets e.g. through sharing new approaches in public administration training and well as through peer-to-peer exchanges (UNDP Indonesia 2002)

International agencies can also play an important contribution to support financial decentralisation. They can help enable financial partnerships to be established between local government and poor communities. For example, the UNDP has supported fiscal decentralization as a core governance component of its poverty programmes, such as in Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bolivia, Georgia, Ghana, Nepal and Uganda. Their work highlights the need to improve mechanisms for mobilising local fiscal resources and local spending, including through training around local financial administration, revenue generation and accountability (UNDP 1998). Another example is the City-Community Challenge fund or 'C3' initiative in Uganda and Zambia, set up by the UK Department of International Development and now managed by UN-Habitat. C3 aims to specifically target and involve the poorest in local communities. It is unusual in that it seeks to ensure direct access to funds to small community groups, supplied with clear partnership and accountability mechanisms to central government, national local government associations, local government, local businesses and communities (DFID 2003).

Section 3 also outlines some of the key international organisations and networks that work with local government on poverty reduction.

Box 2.2 CASE STUDY - INTRODUCING GOOD LOCAL GOVERNANCE – EXPERIENCES IN INDONESIA AND ALBANIA

INDONESIA

In 2001 the Indonesian government introduced laws on decentralization and regional autonomy that led to a shift in service delivery. Previously authorities paid little regard to transparency, accountability, and professionalism – government was not fully responsive to the needs of the people and the people's faith in the public sector was eroded. Changes in municipal management such as modifying planning, programming, budgeting and financial management procedures have helped local government become more responsive, participative, transparent and accountable to citizen's needs. This process has been supported by the UNDP's Breakthrough Urban Initiatives for Local Development (BUILD) programme. At a meeting of central and local government and civil society organizations ten core guiding principles for good local governance were established and these principles were later adopted by the Association of Municipalities at their annual meeting.

1. **Participation** – encourage all citizens to exercise their right to be involved in decision-making of direct or indirect public interest
2. **Rule of law** – realize fair and impartial law enforcement – honouring basic human rights and social values
3. **Transparency** – building mutual trust between government and communities
4. **Equality** – provide equal opportunities for all people to improve their welfare
5. **Responsiveness** – increase the sensitivity of government administrators to public aspirations
6. **Vision** – develop a clear vision and strategy, in participation with communities to ensure shared ownership and responsibility in the development process
7. **Accountability** – increase accountability of decision-makers to decisions in the public interest
8. **Supervision** – increase supervision of operations by involving general public and private sectors
9. **Efficiency and effectiveness** – guarantee effective service delivery through optimal and responsible use of resources
10. **Professionalism** – enhance the capacity and moral stance of administrators to ensure easy, fast and affordable service delivery

During the meeting participants agreed that *“the welfare of the people constitutes the most important objective for achieving sustainable development, to bring relief to those in poverty, who are disempowered, and who are dispossessed socially”*.

Albania

Albania has been moving from a nationally-driven poverty reduction process to adopting localised regional MDG strategies, with the aim of encouraging local residents to identify the needs and priorities of their own region. The government has sought to raise awareness and involvement in MDG activities; to encourage local and provincial ownership of MDG; strengthen decentralised government capacity; linking regional development plans to the national poverty reduction process. Some of the benefits of adopting a more localised approach have included:

- Increase regional awareness and mobilization around the MDGs
- Strengthen decentralized government capacity, including using regional training workshops
- Linking regional development plans to national plans, including the National Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRSP equivalent) and the EU Stabilization and Association process,
- Developing trust and social cohesion amongst the citizens in local villages
- Building trust, ownership and cooperation between local government and citizens
- Increasing transparency and accountability at the local level – through local reporting, indicator development and target setting
- Linking community priorities with local government's planning and budgeting processes.
- Focusing donor attention on local needs

The work has mainly focused on the regional level but has included involvement of local actors including local government e.g. in the region of Kukes local capacity building has been an important component of the work, especially where participatory planning is not the norm. In Kukes the UNDP supported local officials to overseeing the process of regional strategy development and supported the development of key skills such as communicating the MDGs effectively, setting targets, facilitating discussions and seeking consensus. Local and regional consultation processes were conducted.

Box 2.3 Principles for financial decentralisation

Rule 1 – Fiscal decentralization should be viewed as part of comprehensive decentralisation -

Basic conditions should be in place, including: Elected local councillors; locally appointed Chief Officers; discretion to raise revenue, set budgets and over expenditure; transparency. Desirable conditions include: Freedom from tough central mandates; unconditional central transfers; Borrowing powers

Rule 2 - Finance follows function - Functional responsibilities should be assigned first after which revenues can be defined, this helps expenditure to be more efficient as it is based on clear requirements.

Rule 3 - There must be a strong central ability to monitor and evaluate decentralization - Central government should determine the sequencing of the process, as well as assess and provide technical assistance, especially for smaller authorities, in accounting, tax administration, data processing and project evaluation. A central government unit for fiscal analysis is needed to monitor the situation.

Rule 4 – One system does not fit all – especially the urban and rural areas - Local government has different capabilities to deliver financial services as well as borrow. The national system needs to recognize such differences and assign appropriate financial powers and responsibilities. Smaller authorities may depend more on grants while larger authorities may rely more on local taxation.

Rule 5 – Significant local government taxation powers are required - Voters will hold their elected officials more accountable if local public services are financed to a significant extent from local taxes – rather than central government transfers e.g. Individual income tax or property taxes. Other possible areas include motor fuel taxes, user charges for service provision, borrowing.

Rule 6 – Central government must keep to the same rules - Sometimes governments don't keep to the rules they have established – imposing unfunded expenditure mandates, under-fund programs, reassign expenditure without revenue; abolish local taxes. Governments should need to match responsibilities with revenue generating opportunities.

Rule 7 – Keep it simple - Central government needs ensure fiscal arrangements are not overly complex and impose a heavy administrative cost to local and central government. Complicated grant systems; excessive reporting; expenditure responsibilities with tough compliance requirements should be avoided. Disclosure of local financial accounts is vital but simplicity requires being mindful of local and central government administrative capacity.

Rule 8 - The central transfer system should match the objectives of decentralization reform- Central transfer of funds can aim to stimulate local spending, substitute local revenue, equalize local / regional differences etc. Some grants are more decentralizing than others e.g. revenue-sharing carries no conditions as to how money is spent.

Rule 9 – Fiscal decentralization should address all levels of government - Many regional / state / provincial levels can be too large to ensure adequate citizen accountability thus fiscal decentralization should be more local. Central government should decide whether provinces will have autonomy in the allocation of local funds – implying different provinces may adopt a different approach. It may also mandate some uniformity, requiring all states to give local grants within set limits.

Rule 10 – Impose a 'hard' budget constraint - A hard budget constraint means that local governments need to balance their budgets without unexpected additional financial support being required to make ends meet. Bailouts or deficit grants risk retaining a paternalistic approach from central government. Local governments need to develop self-reliance.

Rule 11 – Central recognition that fiscal systems are always in transition and plan ahead - Central governments need to be flexible, adjusting to changing requirements, whilst also retaining a transparent fiscal system. The government could set clear graduation procedures when local authorities shift to the next level of fiscal transparency.

Rule 12 – There must be a champion for fiscal decentralization - Fiscal decentralization often lacks

STEP 2 - PARTNER ENGAGEMENT AND AWARENESS-RAISING

This section examines:

- The importance of partnership engagement in developing and implementing an MDG-linked local development strategy
- Who to involve and principles to sustain commitment throughout planning, implementation and monitoring processes
- Methods of engagement

Why are participatory approaches important?

Again and again experience has shown that involving the local community and other key stakeholders in local decision-making and implementation produces lasting results. Participatory governance is about making institutions more inclusive and effective in achieving poverty reduction (IIED 2004),

Greater community 'ownership' in the development and implementation strategy can promote improved the efficiency in the delivery of services, and bring more sustainable outcomes and investments. Community-developed facilities like health centres, schools, and water supply systems, tend to be used more often and are better maintained than when investment decisions have been made by actors outside of the community. For example a study of 1,875 households in rural communities in six countries (Benin, Bolivia, Honduras, Indonesia, Pakistan, Uganda) suggests that water system durability is significantly higher when communities control investment decisions and contribute part of the investment costs, ensuring that they both get what they want and are willing to pay for it (World Bank 2001).

Direct community involvement is also a means to build social capital. Through collective action, 'learning by doing', capacity development, and interaction with other agencies, communities have an opportunity to expand the range of their skills and social networks. In addition it can promote transparency and accountability reducing the risk of 'elite capture' by dominant local elites and set up a system of checks and balances through the exchange of information between Community Based Organisations (CBOs) and other formal institutions (World Bank 2001).

It is common that those actors who generally find it harder to engage in formal 'representative' democracy such as women, young people, indigenous peoples, disabled people and the elderly are also the same groups who are more likely to be at risk of being poor. Participative democracy adds an extra dimension in that it seeks to particularly target these more marginalised groups. It can therefore also be a means to increase the legitimacy of both local and central government (IIED 2004, Satherwaite 2005).

Who to reach and how?

"What is it that the poor reply when asked what might make the greatest difference to their lives? They say, organizations of their own so that they may negotiate with government, with traders and with NGOs. Direct assistance through community driven programs so they may shape their own destinies. Local ownership of funds, so that they may put a stop to corruption. They want NGOs and governments to be accountable to them." James D. Wolfensohn, World Bank/IMF Annual Meeting, 1999

The focus of the MDGs is on the poorest in our communities. Poor people need to be able to participate in the identification of their needs and priorities in their local areas if sustained poverty reduction is to be attained. Obstacles to improving basic service provision for low-income households seem to be mainly institutional rather than technical. Traditional local governance can be bureaucratic and expert-driven rather than accessible and collaborative. Criticisms laid on traditional public utilities that adopt this format is that they can be unaccountable, inefficient,

unresponsive to consumer demands or environmentally unsustainable. There is a growing acceptance that, to meet the hundreds of millions of people in low income, service providers and those who work with them should be more accountable to those low-income groups (UN HABITAT 2005).

Service delivery to poor people can be improved “*by putting poor people at the centre of service provision: by enabling them to monitor and discipline service providers, by amplifying their voice in policymaking, and by strengthening the incentives for providers to serve the poor*” World Development Report 2003. Their direct involvement will help identify key areas where ‘safety nets’ are required to avoid key problems of poverty e.g. homelessness; unemployment; ill-health; eviction and generally improve their security and quality of life (DFID 2001).

The level of improvement will depend on the influence that poor people can bring to bear on service providers. By placing the influence of the poor at the centre, a pro-poor approach provides a corrective means of giving them a stronger voice in the face of other ‘stronger’ stakeholders who can more easily claim their interests. Community-driven improvements to service provision has demonstrated to local government and service providers the possibilities of improving or extending provision to the un-served by working in partnership with community groups (UN HABITAT 2005).

Various studies globally have provided a number of ways that local government can play a vital role in reducing poverty through providing the right institutional framework, including:

- **Enabling access to land for housing** – through zoning and planning controls, allocation and use of public lands. Provision of secure tenure is a vital part of this. Improved legal housing and land rights can not only confer legitimacy but can also increase residents’ capacity to negotiate with service providers and increases their willingness to invest time and resources in infrastructure development.
- **Provision of basic infrastructure and services** - All local authorities have a responsibility to supply infrastructure and services to their citizens, with some variation in responsibility at different levels of government. The critical role of basic service provision cannot be overestimated. For example, in terms of health, many illnesses and premature deaths could be avoided through better housing and provision of water, sanitation and drainage, as well as health care and education.
- **Combining support for a prosperous economy with pro-poor focus** - All local authorities are challenged with attracting inward investment whilst seeking benefits for low income groups. Economic growth does not guarantee increased incomes and can even increase impoverishment for those whose settlements and work places are cleared for economic development projects. Government funds and land allocation often target the corporate sector whilst the local economy receives little public support. Local government needs to build capacity to: attract new investment; increase local revenue, encourage investment in infrastructure and services for poorer groups; stimulate economies from which low-income groups can obtain their livelihoods.
- **Establishing opportunities for the poor**– authorities can provide direct support to expand employment and income opportunities for poor groups e.g. labour-based public works and community-based initiatives. Increasing incomes can enable people to pay more for services, live in better served locations, as well as have greater political influence. Whilst local government may have little direct capacity to increase local incomes, targeted infrastructural development and service delivery, e.g. slum-upgrading programmes, not only improves basic welfare but can also improve local business, reduce flood risks, and improve transport and communications systems. They should also work with NGOs that support the poor and excluded.
- **Access to justice** - The impacts of lawlessness and violence on poverty cannot be underestimated. Local government plays an important role in ensuring access to justice, law and order, and in supporting legal institutions through which low income and other groups can protect their rights, as well as ensure pollution control, labour standards, health and safety.

- **Access to local political and bureaucratic systems** - The degree to which low-income groups can influence policy makers will affect the nature of pro-poor policies and activities. Some local authorities can feel wary of the idea of handing over some decision-making to local groups. Care must be taken to ensure that resources are not siphoned off by NGOs or other parties, to ensure that the money reaches the people it is meant to. However such participation is crucial to ensure appropriate resource allocation, ownership and accountable responses to the needs of the poorest (IIED 2000, UN HABITAT 2005, UNDP 2002).

It is important to note that poor communities have especially benefited when they have organised themselves to present their needs. Better organised communities are in a stronger position to negotiate with local government and service providers, and potentially better able to make local investments in infrastructure development (UN HABITAT 2005). The case study on Urban Slum Federations below (Box 2.4) highlights what a valuable role such organisations can make to improving quality of life for the poorest, in partnership with both local and central government. However it is only in partnership with local government can the poor ensure that the plans they formulate are taken forward at a sufficient scales in order to benefit a city or local community as a whole (UN HABITAT 2005).

Box 2.4 Federations of the urban poor are making a difference

Federations of the urban poor are made up of community-managed savings and credit groups that provide their members with quickly accessible emergency. Recognizing the urban poor as active agents of development loans and develop upgrading programs or new housing programs, especially in partnerships with local government. Many of these federations have large scale programs, some have improved housing or access to basic services for hundreds of thousands or even millions of people. Some have led to changes in the development policies of city and national governments.

Civil society groups which are able to get organised in advance clearly helps support an effective process. For example, in Cambodia and Thailand federations of the urban poor work with national and municipal government in designing and implementing programs to improve the lives of slum dwellers on a national scale. In India federations have changed the way city and national governments support improved provision of sanitation for slum dwellers. In Namibia, the Philippines, and Zimbabwe, federations have changed the way municipal governments work with the urban poor in developing land for housing and providing infrastructure. Such groups can help ensure that their needs are more effectively presented. In addition they can offer local governments information that the authorities may not have access to such as through community designed and managed 'slum' surveys. This active engagement offers mutual benefits to the community groups and the authorities and it can promote more equal partnerships. As the vice governor of Phnom Penh, Cambodia, stated "*this city doesn't only belong to the rich. It belongs to all of us, so we should all be involved in improving it...now we have a lot of work to do. We have to sit down and set concrete plans for this upgrading programme together.*"

The federations have high standards with regard to internal democracy, participation, inclusion, and accountability to their members. All strive to ensure that the solutions they promote serve the poorest groups and those facing discrimination. They seek to keep down unit costs in order to stretch limited resources. Federation programs are typically less costly than conventional government programs and many include significant cost recovery. Their upgrading and new housing projects are not intended to replace public projects but to demonstrate what can be achieved through federation-government partnerships. Each federation includes hundreds or thousands of local savings groups, indicating significant potential for these partnerships to go to scale. Federations of the urban poor or homeless have been identified in at least 12 countries. Savings groups that have the potential to form federations are developing in many others.

Source: IIED 2004, Millennium Project 2005

A rural example of community self-organisation has been the use of Community-Based Natural Resource Management. For example, in Malawi, village trusts with legal status have been established. Once recognised as 'formal' community groups, which they do through registering under the country's 'Trusts and Corporations Act', the trusts seeks 'co-management' agreements

with the local government. Various national government policies and legislation place considerable importance on community involvement in decision-making, management of natural resources including their wildlife policy (2000) as well as more generally in their decentralisation policy (1998) and Local Government Act (1998). These policies recognise that participation adds to the sustainability of the work but also that local communities should benefit from the country's natural assets (COMPASS 2002).

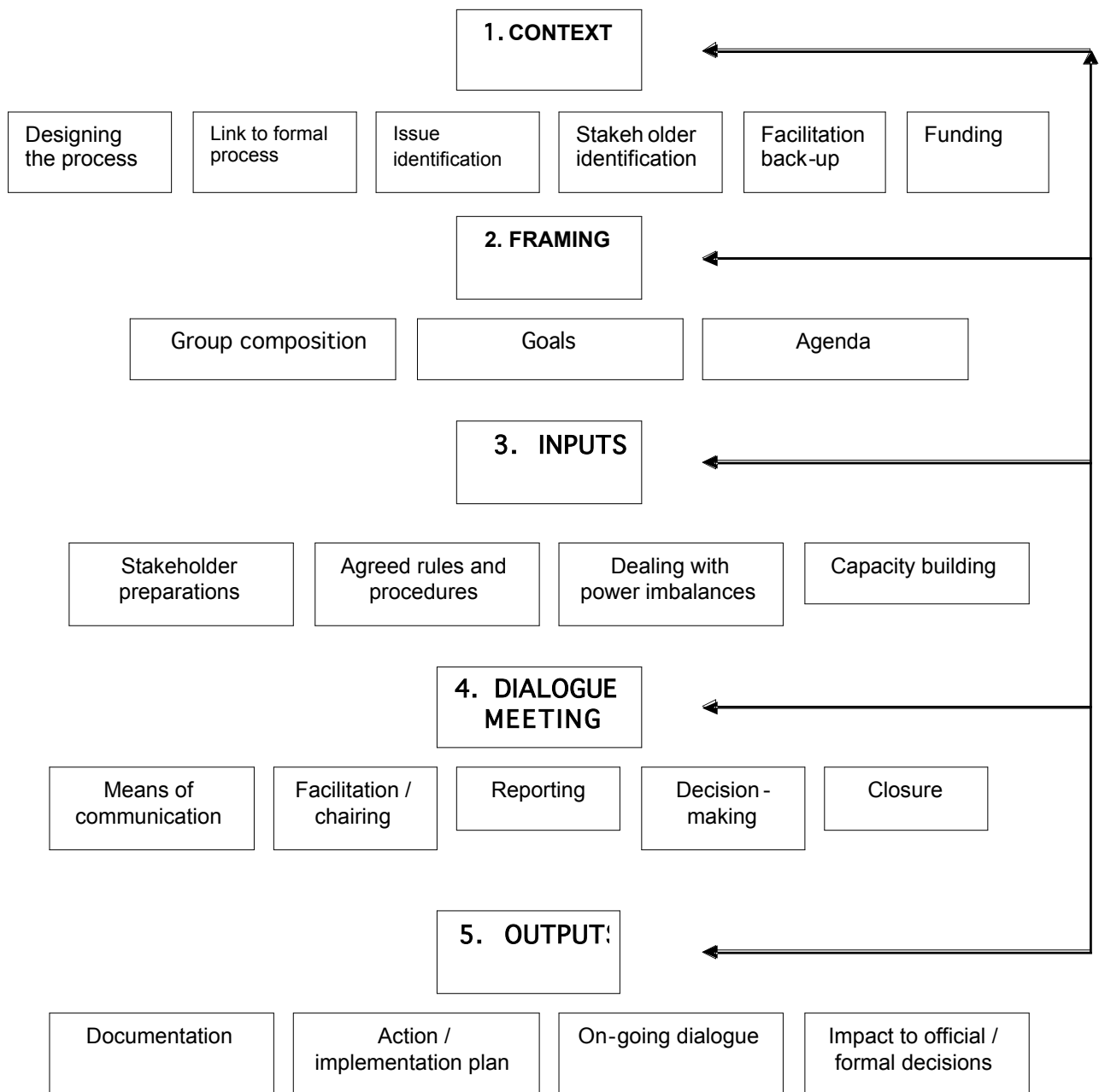
Methods for effective participation

Targeting the poorest people in a community requires just that – a more targeted approach – meeting people where they are rather than expecting them to come to you. When identifying the most appropriate methods of participation a local government should use round-tables and workshops with key stakeholders to agree which methods of participation are most appropriate to address the issue in question. Some participative techniques for targeting key groups are outlined below.

Multi-stakeholder processes

A recent guide produced by Minu Hemmati, a stakeholder consultant, outlines some core principles and approaches for conducting strategic planning and implementation processes which involve different stakeholders or interest groups. The guide indicates how best to ensure a well designed, managed, accountable, equitable, inclusive, learning and flexible process – one that is accessible to all including the poorest groups. Figure 2.3 describe the main steps that need to be carried out for an effective multi-stakeholder process (Further resources about this approach can be found in Section 4 of this toolkit).

Figure 2.3 Key steps in a Multi-stakeholder process



The arrows indicate that throughout the process there is ongoing review, communication to interested non-participants as well as wider public

Source: Hemmati and Stakeholder Forum 2002

Community-based methods

Another set of tools aim to specifically to engage community groups.

Community surveys, such as of slum areas, can be very useful for local authorities as this information is often hard to obtain. The municipality of Phnom Penh, in Cambodia, worked with an urban poor federation and local NGOs using community surveys to develop a strategic plan of the city – the work also included shared management of a social fund.

Community-managed savings and credit groups provide an important participative financial tool for local development projects. Women are especially attracted to these savings groups because they provide crisis credit quickly and easily, they can develop savings accounts that help fund housing improvement or new housing and local facilities for income generation. When money goes into community savings it not only builds community organisations but also circulates many times in the neighbourhood economy – it helps build houses and starts small businesses, helps people in crises, pays for school fees and doctors bills – it generate assets and options for people's future.

Community exchanges and events can enable local groups to share ideas, problem solving and ways of working – building collective and individual understanding. Poor people, especially women, may be sceptical of solutions presented by technical experts and where there is little opportunity to make their own suggestions. Community exchanges promote mutual learning and give individual and groups more opportunity to adopt and control the outcomes. International exchanges add a new dimension to building community knowledge and ideas, and can bring a entirely new perspective to a situation. Such exchanges can be valuable to municipal staff and national governments e.g. senior officials from Kenya Railways and planners from Nairobi visited Mumbai to learn about the resettlement programme in April 2004. The visit showed Kenyans the possibilities of community managed resettlement, the benefits to those who are resettled and the contribution to the train system and planners' objectives. In South Africa the national minister for land went on an exchange with a slum federation to India; the secretary of housing for Sao Paulo went with community leaders to South Africa. Exchanges attract media, political and public attention.

A similar technique is *Community Based Rural Development* (CBRD) used in rural development projects, outlined in the case study below (box 2.5). The study also indicates that, whilst community action is vital, it is not the sole answer to achieving poverty reduction and should participative approaches take account of the principle of subsidiarity (World Bank 2001).

Box 2.5 Community Based Rural Development (CBRD)

Community Based Rural Development (CBRD) is a technique that aims to give the rural poor a stronger voice in their local community and with government agencies. CBRD is seen as an important vehicle for increasing participation, reducing corruption, improving governance, and effectively targeting poor and marginalised groups. It can increase sustainability of projects and build social capital. It is not a panacea to poverty eradication however. The principle of subsidiarity (which asserts that public functions should occur at the lowest appropriate level of government, unless those functions can be performed more efficiently at higher levels of governance) indicates that some processes are better organised at regional and national levels. As such CBRD does not advocate a solely bottom-up approach but calls for greater coordination between different levels of governance.

Activities supporting an effective CBRD approach include:

- **Creating a supportive environment** – Local and national government need to define key roles and responsibilities for key stakeholders in each sector. They need to provide (i) legal status for CBOs and NGOs; (ii) decentralized decision-making powers to local governments; enforceable contract law; user and tenure rights over community and individual assets.
- **Pilots and study tours to build awareness and demonstrate effects** – Pilots can be used to test alternative institutional arrangements and policies. Study tours can enable officials to directly witness the benefits of community approaches e.g. state officials visited community-driven and micro-finance programs in a 'District Poverty Initiatives' project in Madhya Pradesh, India.
- **Communication and training** - Advocacy of a pro-poor approach can be supported through the media, publications and training, as well as workshops and information sharing opportunities.
- **Encourage innovation and learning through flexibility** - Flexibility is essential for systems to evolve and adapt to local demand and capabilities e.g. In Moldova and Albania, local pilots were used to help refine operational procedures before programs went nationwide.
- **Streamline and decentralize** - Most successful CBRD programs have decentralised approval and financial processes to local government. Decentralization reduces delays, encourages better access to program benefits, and program momentum is maintained.
- **Adopt clear and simple procedures** – Clear development procedures help reduce the administrative burden of projects. A resource like an Operational Manual can reduce complexity, and facilitates wider adoption of CBRD programs e.g. a Brazil CBRD programme used standard designs and technical recommendations for its subprojects with considerable success.
- **Regular monitoring and evaluation** - Systematic monitoring and evaluation of processes and outcomes helps ensure programs to adapt to changing conditions. This is valuable to help scaled up programmes as monitoring systems give information on progress, help the early identification of potential bottlenecks or problems. Most programs monitor physical and financial progress, but should also assess the quality of participation, local institutions and economic impacts.
- **Create information channels** - Communities and stakeholders should be provided sufficient information to assess trade-offs, and be realistic in their selection of which options

Practical examples indicate that CBRD can support improved efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery. For example in:

- **Natural Resource Management** – A forest management programme in Andhra Pradesh (India) led to over 5,000 community organisations rejuvenating more than 1.2 million hectares of degraded forest. Soil and local water resources improved, timber smuggling has almost stopped, cattle grazing has come under control, new employment opportunities have arisen and out-migration has declined.
- **Education** - Empirical evidence suggests that public spending on education is only weakly related to educational outcomes, but community management and accountability can improve this e.g. greater parent involvement can increase school attendance and encourage providers to improve services. It can also lift financial support.
- **Infrastructural services** - Community management of infrastructure investments commonly result in lower costs and more productive assets. Studies of community-organised irrigation systems in Asia have shown that systems constructed and operated by the farmers themselves, generate higher agricultural productivity than more modern systems constructed solely by government agencies with some external assistance e.g. a study in Zambia compared community-managed and contractor-managed approaches to provide school infrastructure. It showed costs to the contractor were more than twice the community approach. Studies in Brazil and South Africa indicate similar savings.

Gender equality

Local government needs to proactively ensure the both women and men are fairly represented in the development and implementation of the MDG-linked local development strategy.

Gender inequality directly contributes to poverty because women's access to resources can be constrained by cultural norms and practices which reinforce their subordinate status. Women suffer disproportionately the burden of poverty. Their choices are limited by discrimination in public life, in the workplace and at home. Some estimates suggest 70% of the global poor are women. Across the world, including the so-called 'developed' world, a lack of gender equity can be seen. For example: about two-thirds of the illiterate people in developing countries are women; globally women form only just over 10% of representatives in national governments; and domestic violence is a leading cause of injury and death to women worldwide. Without addressing gender discrimination we cannot bring about an improvement in overall well-being and meet the MDG targets for poverty reduction (Reeves and Baden 2000, UNIFEM et al 2003).

The MDG 3 challenges discrimination against women, and seeks to ensure that girls as well as boys have the chance to go to school. But the issue of gender equality is not limited to a single goal — it applies to all of them. Without progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women, none of the MDGs will be achieved (UNIFEM et al 2003).

Unfortunately participatory approaches do not automatically guarantee gender-sensitivity. 'Community' priorities do not necessarily reflect the priorities of women in that community. Whilst participatory initiatives can question and address the power relations behind the idea of 'community', they have been less successful in understanding and tackling gender power relations. Socio-cultural and practical barriers can limit women's participation – for example it may be unacceptable culturally to allow women to speak in public, or poor timing and location of meetings that fail to fit women's timetables or relative lack of mobility. Whilst legal reforms, effectively implemented are crucial, women also need to be aware of their rights, of the legal structures and processes open to them, as well as have access to sufficient financial resources and emotional support to fully exercise their legal rights. Local education programmes - such as that supported by donors in Zimbabwe – combined with legal aid initiatives, can go some way towards facilitating legal access (UNDP.b 2004). Various tools and activities can be applied to promote gender equality and the inclusion of women. They include:

- Supporting participation of women in local strategy development, as part of a multi-stakeholder process (as described above)
- Use of gender disaggregated data for planning, monitoring and impact assessment
- Gender budgeting (outlined in more detail in Step 5).
- Reform of legal systems and social systems to provide greater security and protection for women, including on social programmes on health and reproductive health, rights, protection against violence and sexual harassment
- Targeting public services towards the needs and rights of girls and women
- Provision of technical training and education programmes

Broad-based actions to bring women's interests into reforming public services and in legal and policy formulation to support their empowerment can all bring development benefits of relevance to all the MDGs (UNIFEM et al 2003).

Indigenous peoples

Another key group that often faces the brunt of the affects of poverty is indigenous peoples – again they are often marginalised by formal representative democracy and their voices are lost by better resourced and adept groups. The case study below (Box 2.6) looks at efforts to support the Roma people in Europe. The work highlights the importance of training and capacity development of such

groups to build confidence and self-sufficiency. It has meant that the Romani can play a direct role in reducing poverty in their own communities.

Box 2.6 Combating Socioeconomic Exclusion among Roma (Gypsies) in Central and Eastern Europe—The Pakiv European Roma Fund Initiative

There are between 7-9 million Roma (Gypsies) in Europe – representing the largest minority in the region. They are the main poverty-risk group in the region suffering low education, high unemployment, lack of steady income, lower life expectancy, higher birth rates, unequal access to services and opportunities owing in part to every day discrimination. Some Romani groups have been integrated into more mainstream economy as low skilled agricultural and industrial workers – however there is a preference to recruit non-Romani applicants. Many Romani are not eligible or have been treated unfairly regarding right of access to land. They suffer from weak self-organisation, negotiating skills and confidence to build consensus between key actors. However some governments in the region, with support from EU and other donors, have developed comprehensive national strategies to improve the quality of life for the Romani people – dealing with discrimination, social, economic, and health aspects, as well as Romani participation. The ‘Pakiv (meaning trust, confidence, response in Romani) European Roma Fund’ operates in four countries to promote the development of Roma civil society and intercultural understanding. It has four objectives:

- Building capacity of young Romani community facilitators
- Supporting local income generating and employment activities
- Converting the programme’s development fund into local revolving funds for Romani communities
- Creating national and international networks for discussion, learning and advocacy

Facilitators train and mentor local Romani groups – especially youth. Training includes: communication skills, team building, SWOT analyses, human rights education, Romani history and identity, and strategy building. Micro-lending mechanisms have been applied e.g. community banks in Romani neighbourhoods. This facilitates self-organisation and introduces a new source of income for local families, including stimulation of start-up initiatives for income generation and employment that are promoted, planned and realised by local Romani communities e.g. farming, vocational training and small business start-up, job orientation for marginalised youth and town maintenance.

All the projects focus on establishing a new relationship of self-reliance within a local Romani group rather than dependency on external support. The work has helped develop their understanding of the choices available to them, to be more positive and recognise their own abilities to change their lives for the better. For example, Romani trainees have become longer term resources / social capital as researchers, trainers in their own right, advisors, consultants and spokespeople to donors and policy-makers. *“The sustainability of the efforts to combat exclusion among the Romani requires that the Roma themselves become effective organisers, managers, negotiators, decision-makers, fundraisers and advocates.”*

Youth engagement

In many countries young people under 25 years make up a large proportion of local populations. Young people can be powerful agents of change but they need to be encouraged to take on this role. Countries like the Ukraine have conducted awareness raising programmes to promote better understanding of the MDGs amongst young people. The MDG Youth Summit in Kiev in October 2002 is an example of this. The event sought to tap into the ideas and voices of young people and recognised that the 2015 targets are of direct relevance to today’s young people who by then will be adults.

Youth leadership development programmes are also important to build sustained capacity development in young people. The Asian Regional Governance Programme (ARGP) is an international programme, part of the UNDP Capacity 21 initiative, which aims to support youth through a ‘Youth Leaders in Governance’ programme. The programme seeks to establish youth leaders in parliament, civil servants, law, journalism, NGOs, universities, as well as locally elected

representatives. The programme will use regional meetings, distance learning, training of trainers, as well as pilot country-level learning events. Training will be organised through an NGO – LEAD International – who will hold training workshops that focus on how to localise the MDGs – encouraging young people to take an active role in addressing key questions such as: what capacity deficiencies exist that are preventing effective local development and good local governance? How localisation can improve service delivery and promote decentralisation? How to align local strategies to national priorities and expenditure aims such as contributing to the development of PRSPs, supporting EU accession, amongst other national aims?

Establishing youth networks is a valuable approach to help learning and exchange of ideas. In Turkey the Local Agenda 21 process has directly targeted key groups, including young people, to involve them in promoting sustainable development and the MDGs locally. Young people have been elected as representatives from local youth councils onto a Local Agenda 21 National Youth Parliament (established in 2004). The national youth parliament has also selected regional youth facilitators to promote LA21 activities in their respective regions and to support the creation of new local youth councils where they don't exist. The national body also provides an important push for youth policy at the national level regarding youth-related issues such as the MDG-related topics of education, employment, participation (UNDP 2005).

STEP 3 - BASELINE ASSESSMENT

This section addresses:

- Aims of assessment
- Assessment methodology

Aims of assessment

A baseline assessment should seek to obtain an accurate picture of the main poverty challenges in a local area. Crucially an initial assessment should not be too burdensome for a local government to carry out - in terms of the time and resources (human, financial and technical) required. Keeping an assessment fairly simple will help produce information that will be more easily communicated to local government officers and politicians, as well as the wider public, facilitating decision-making and consultation processes. It will also be important to ensure that the local government involved has a good understanding of any national priorities that may already exist in relation to the MDGs – to ensure that these areas are addressed – even if only to discount them – as part of the baseline assessment.

Very broadly a baseline assessment should seek to identify the main:

- Poverty challenges
- Causal factors
- Policy options, practical responses and resources required

Poverty challenges should be identified according to the core MDG targets. A local authority should seek to assess each of the MDGs and their associated targets to pull out which of the MDG targets are most problematic for their local area. It will be valuable to use the MDGs as a basis for an assessment in that the information obtained will be more useful at higher levels of government.

Causal factors can take two forms. *Direct issues* may be leading to poverty problems such as poor infrastructure maintenance, natural factors (housing on floodplains). *Indirect factors* will also need to be identified. These will typically be related to more underlying governance issues, for example insufficient local autonomy, lack of revenue generating powers, poor training opportunities for public sector staff resulting in low technical capacity in service delivery, weak administration, lack of public engagement in local decision-making.

Possible policy options may include changes to internal working of a local authority, it may require policy recommendations to national government and / or international agencies. The main aim is to develop a range of possible options through which preferred actions and policy responses can themselves be assessed and selected – as outlined in Step 4 'Establishing priorities'.

Assessment methodologies

There are four broad phases in a baseline assessment:

1. Definition of information
2. Data collection
3. Data analysis
4. Communication

1. Definition of information

A baseline assessment of local progress towards the MDGs should seek to identify suitable indicators that are 'SMART' – Simple, Measurable, Accurate, Reliable, and Timebound (these

principles are discussed in more depth in Step 6). The UN in partnership with the World Bank has suggested a set of possible national indicators to measure each of the MDGs. These are valuable for local government to know so that the local indicators that they develop reflect and even match the data that their central government will need to collect. One set of local MDG indicators has recently been developed by the Government of the Philippines, described in the case study below (Box 2.7).

Box 2.7 Local MDG indicators in the Philippines

The Government of the Philippines has promoted a list of 14 'Core Local Poverty Indicators' (CLPIs) that it says should be used as a minimum for monitoring local poverty trends:

MDG	Core Local Poverty Indicators (CLPIs)
Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proportion of households with income less than the poverty threshold • Proportion of households with income less than the food threshold • Proportion of persons aged 15 years and above who are not working but are actively seeking work • Proportion of children (0-5 years) who are moderately and severely underweight • Proportion of households who eat less than three full meals a day • Proportion of household members victimized by crime
Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proportion of 6-12 year-old children who are not in elementary school
Goal 3: Promote gender equality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proportion of 13-16 year-olds who are not in secondary school (This can be generated from indicators Goal 2 since data are gender disaggregated)
Goal 4: Reduce child mortality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proportion of children under five years old who have died
Goal 5: Improve maternal health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proportion of women who have died due to pregnancy related causes
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other infectious diseases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proportion of households without access to safe water • Proportion of households without sanitary toilets
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proportion of households who are squatters • Proportion of households with makeshift housing
Goal 8: Global Partnership for development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unemployment Rate of 15-24 year olds, by gender

Source: Government of the Philippines 2005

The selected baseline indicators need to provide information not only about progress towards the MDGs but also to identify the causes and effects of these key areas of poverty. Therefore there needs to be a second set of indicators that seek to reveal local environmental, social, economic and institutional factors that may have a bearing on each MDG target.

When selecting these indicators an authority should outline the *types* of information required (qualitative, semi quantitative, quantitative) and consider *how feasible* it will be to collect and analyse. Institutional indicators will include identifying those key stakeholders that may relate to a particular MDG e.g. slum dwellers and planners for housing MDG. It should also identify those policies and actions that may impact on a particular MDG e.g. planning regulations or environmental standards.

2. Data collection

Collection of data relating to these indicators is required in order to assess main poverty challenges and causal factors. This can be conducted through a range of different approaches. If

there is sufficient time and resources a local authority may conduct their own assessments such as through household surveys, censuses, internal auditing e.g. of budget expenditure, staff skills. However, it may be recommended to use / verify such data with independent secondary sources such as from NGOs and academic organisations, bringing in a more neutral assessment of the situation. Use of secondary data may also be useful and more affordable than primary research, and speed up the assessment process, but use of such data will require a robust assessment of whether the data is sufficiently up-to-date, accurate, and reliable to use.

Community assessment techniques are important tools that can be applied. As argued in Step 2 (on partnerships), the involvement of local communities and stakeholders, especially the poorest, is a crucial aspect for an effective assessment. It may not be feasible for a local authority to obtain the relevant data alone, especially in relation to more informal settlements. Therefore it may be more appropriate to use that with a combination of primary and secondary research along with applying community-based assessments. Such community consultations carry a number of benefits. They can:

- Strengthen relations with poor communities and encourage a sense of partnership
- Enable dialogue between actors at different levels who might never listen to each other otherwise Develop trust and cooperative relationships among NGOs, officials and citizens
- Bring a public commitment from stakeholders to advance the goals agreed
- Increase awareness of civil society about their responsibility to demand accountability from their local and national governments (SIPA 2003).

One example is where a local government works collaboratively with slum dweller federations and/or a local NGO, inviting them to conduct *community surveys*. For example, in Nairobi, Kenya, half the population lives in informal or illegal settlements with poor water, sanitation and drainage and low access to other basic services. An NGO (Pamoja Trust) and the local government have been developing consensus between local inhabitants about how to improve basic services and housing provision. Detailed and accurate slum assessments were carried out and checked by community organisations enabling these groups to identify their key needs and plan their own solutions (UN HABITAT 2005).

Another approach is for the local government to facilitate *community benchmarking via participatory workshops*, as has been used in Bulgaria and Russia. Participatory workshops were used to identify community priorities which have then been fed into national MDG processes. Community benchmarking can be a powerful tool, creating local ownership of the MDGs by translating them into a local context. Workshops can facilitate a dialogue among various community actors and help them to agree to realistic short and long-term targets (benchmarks) for their communities, based on differing perspectives and experiences related to the development issues at stake (SIPA 2003).

A similar tool - *Community-Based Monitoring Systems (CMBS)* - is outlined in Step 6. However it is important to point out that community assessments require the following actions:

- **Engagement** - Develop links between the poor throughout a local area, including through local NGOs and organised groups of poor people such as urban slum federations
- **Specification** - Clarify the differences between different poor areas and their causes in order to tailor solutions to specific circumstances, avoiding a 'one size fits all' set of measures.
- **Prioritisation** - Allow the poor to help select priority areas that need to be up-graded first – exclusion risks lack of sustainability and ownership (see Step 4) (World Bank 2001)

3. Analysis

Once the data has been collected it is then necessary to understand how different factors are impacting the poor, categorising the *types* (outline which MDG is affected) and level of *impact* (the

scale) and whether they are positive or negative. The analysis can be consolidated into a matrix that pulls together all the information collected and analysed - the key factors, institutions, policies, level of impact. Table 2.2 displays a general example of the kinds of key information that might be collected and analysed.

Table 2.2 Baseline assessment matrix

MDG	Indicator / target	Potential causal factors / indicators				
		Environmental / physical	Social	Economic	Stakeholders	Policy and action frameworks
1. Poverty	Hunger – Prevalence of children with malnutrition	Drought - % rainfall	Local population density	Local market price for key crop National market price	Farmers Women Local authority Local market National and international market	Nutritional health policy (present or lacking, positive or negative)
	PPP Income per capita	Natural disasters – increase / decrease in annual frequency of storms, droughts etc	% Local unemployment	% inward investment retained in local area	Local private sector – formal and informal National and international Local authority	Business training and employment programmes (present or lacking, positive or negative)
2. Education	Proportion of 6-12 year-old children who are not in elementary school	Presence / lack of public / private transport to school	Average distance between households to nearest school	Cost of travel School fee Public investment in school infrastructure and resources	Children Schools Parents Local Authority	Local / national provision of education grants (present or lacking, positive or negative)

Analysis of institutional and policy frameworks and their impact on each of the MDG targets is an important part of examining the causal factors behind existing trends. Conducting procedures like *regulatory audits* can be a useful approach to revealing the potential links between regulations and poverty – see case study below (Box 2.8).

4. Communication

The outcomes of the analysis need to be clearly presented to key decision-makers and stakeholders in order to identify possible policy options and activities, as well as to begin the prioritisation process. The use of a matrix – as outlined above – as well as graphical displays of information such as through bar charts can help present information.

Clear communication is important to help local mayors and elected representatives understand the current situation and to begin to identify policy options, as well as for practitioners to develop more technical responses. Equally community groups and other stakeholders need to be presented with the outcomes so that they can contribute to finding responses, as well as to allow them to verify the assessment – to agree as to whether the findings are accurate and consistent with their own experiences.

Box 2.8 Regulatory audits

Regulatory audits are useful tools to assess institutional factors influencing pro-poor development. They use the four baseline assessment steps to assess and seek alternative regulatory policy options:

- List – define all the general indicators, key stakeholders, and regulations
- Collect – support independent surveys of stakeholders and legislation to highlight problems such as costs, delays, number of agencies involved, complexity of procedures e.g. the number of administrative steps are required by the end user to access adequate shelter.
- Analyse – weigh up the costs and benefits of regulatory frameworks and identify options for change
- Presentation – present outcomes of analysis to key stakeholders, including local politicians

Benefits: Regulatory audits provide local managers with an objective basis for assessing different regulations. They provide civil society and others working with the poor with information to assess what changes may need to be introduced, such as to improve access to legal shelter. They can help monitor the impact of changes in regulation as part of a planned development, reducing the need for squatting and other forms of unauthorised development.

Limitations: The quality of the audit, like any assessment, is dependent on access to accurate and sufficient information. Data collection or legislation, building and planning codes can be time consuming although may not be difficult. However, assessing how such regulations impact upon communities may be best achieved through obtaining the views of those directly involved – it may therefore be preferable for an independent group – an NGO or academic groups undertakes the audit.

STEP 4 - ESTABLISHING PRIORITIES

This section describes the priority setting process, including:

- Core activities
- Reflecting regional and national goals

Focusing the strategy

Priority-setting seeks to establish a clear direction and purpose for the MDG-linked local development strategy by identifying those areas that require immediate attention, in terms of policy responses and action, as well as clarifying less urgent issues that can be addressed in the medium and longer term. In this way, priority setting can enable a strategy to be more action-focused.

Key activities in priority-setting should include:

- **Robust baseline assessment** - The selection of appropriate *policies* and *actions* should be based on the outcome of a participatory baseline assessment, as outlined in 'Step 3', through which a range of possible options should have been identified.
- **Transparency and participation** - Priority-setting and selection of options should be done in consultation with local stakeholders, regional and national actors, as well as possibly global agencies. Local engagement can be supported through a variety of techniques, such as through public meetings, workshops, and surveys.
- **Impact assessment** – As with the baseline assessment, each of the policy and action options need to be assessed, not only for their poverty impact (contributing to the MDGs), but also for their wider social, economic, environmental and institutional costs and benefits. Conducting broad 'impact assessments' is important to identify which policies are going to realistically achieve the desired aims as well as highlight where trade offs and counter-measures may be required where policies are adopted.
- **Assignment of timeframe** – each policy and action needs to be defined within an ideal timeframe. This is not only to focus on poverty areas that need to be addressed more urgently than others but also to clarify which options that can be more easily carried out in the short term (1-2 years), medium term (3-5 years) and those which may take longer to introduce and implement (5-10 years). For example, infrastructural investments may be quicker to introduce, once finances have been raised, than potential changes in legislation and regulatory requirements which may require a period of capacity-building and technical support to enable community groups, private sector etc to work towards meeting new standards.
- **Flexibility and piloting** - Priority setting needs to allow a certain degree of flexibility and adaptation to allow for changing conditions and unforeseen challenges. The importance of monitoring and ongoing review is discussed in more detail in Step 6 however it is clear that local governments need to reflect – at intervals – on the priority responses that have been selected and whether these require adaptation. Piloting projects is an important tool where flexibility can be applied. Pilots in a local area involving poor groups enables the testing of possible options and their predicted impacts. As well as an important learning tool, the observation of successful pilots can encourage others to adapt and initiate their own programmes elsewhere locally (IIED 2005).

Regional and national priorities

Local strategic priorities need not only to reflect locally identified needs and objectives but should also complement wider regional and national agenda. Regional / provincial authorities need to assist a process of dialogue between localities within their region to seek economies of scale in responding to the MDGs. The following case study (Box 2.9) of water and environmental management in Rio Grande, Brazil, highlights how better coordination between local and regional institutions can be used to achieve MDGs, as well as enhance national policy structures.

Box 2.9 Capacity development for managing water and the environment in the Rio Grande

Brazil has a National Environmental System (SISNAMA) for planning and managing environmental resources different levels. It includes a system of environmental licensing to evaluate and authorize any project with a potential impact on the environment. The current licensing system has been limited by a lack of technical skills and unclear roles and responsibilities. In addition the national water management system uses a different approach and is led by a different authority making coordination between the two systems more problematic.

The State of Rio Grande do Sul (RS) in southern Brazil has responded to these governance problems. RS established an integrated environmental management system, linking water and other environmental aspects, as well as licensing processes. The state developed core environment guidelines in 2000 involving participatory events across the region. Roles and responsibilities are shared between the regional state and local municipalities based on three guidelines:

- Cooperation and complementarity - between state and municipal actors to solve environmental problems;
- Capacity development – recognizing that solving local problems requires sufficient legal structures and capacity at the municipal level;
- Collective action - With support from regional state institutions, municipalities each decide on actions that will contribute to the joint regional strategy.

Key elements to the success of the system include:

Allocation of roles and responsibilities - The regional authority takes a more strategic role: evaluation and planning, licensing, regional activities and coordinating a regional strategy. Municipalities are responsible for licensing activities with local environmental impact and local strategic approaches.

Increasing capacity – There is a regional capacity-building programme for 497 municipalities. As a result nearly 40% of the region's people now live in municipalities operating environmental licensing systems. Eight municipal consortia have been established to deal with solid waste management. Environmental issues have gained greater importance in the public arena, as well as within municipalities, opening up opportunities for broader environmental strategies and action at the local level.

Linking water and environment – Integration of water and environmental strategies was brought about by redefining roles and resources in the broader environmental strategy. The state environmental licensing body is empowered to conduct strategic environmental assessments of water systems – evaluating the social and environmental impacts to the watershed. Operating licensing at this scale reinforced the need for integrating environmental management with watershed planning. It also created new opportunities for coordinated dialogue between different local water basin management committees.

Governance barriers – The process highlighted various governance obstacles. Deep inequalities (social and economic) were highlighted between municipalities, as well as problems of administrative fragmentation between state and municipal governance. Such problems are inherent to the federal system in Brazil and not exclusively to the RS region. Many municipalities have populations of less than 5,000 people making it a real capacity challenge to provide even basic services (housing, water, education transport). The context is therefore a challenging one in which to try and move towards a more integrated and effective system.

Scaling-up good practice – The application of an integrated and decentralised environmental planning and management system – linked to integrated water assessments – has had a national impact. It has highlighted the need to restructure the national environmental system (SISNAMA). Scaling-up these experiences continues to be a major political task, disseminating the experiences at the national level, as well as encouraging exchanges with other state secretariats of the environment.

The example illustrates how a coordinated regional approach can help bring together local actors to meet the needs of communities throughout a region – not just in a few successful localities. It also indicates that vertical coordination can require a dynamic process of policy development, implementation, mutual assessment and adaptation to ensure that the systems elaborated at the national sphere properly support other levels and do not create unnecessary institutional barriers.

STEP 5 - DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING ACTION PLANS

This section outlines:

- Elements of an action plan
- Moving from planning to implementation

Elements of an action plan

“If you want to go places start from where you are. If you are poor, start with something cheap. If you are uneducated start with something simple. If you live in a poor environment, and poverty makes markets small, start with something small. If you are unemployed, start with using your own labour power, because any productive use of it is better than letting it lie idle”

George McRobbie and Fritz Schumacher, Intermediate Development Technology Group, 1966

As a part of integrating the MDGs into a local development strategy each local government will need to produce a series of thematic action plans that will define how each of the priority areas identified from Steps 3 and 4 will be achieved. For example, a plan for improving urban water infrastructure – for drinking water, sanitation and wastewater drainage may have been identified as a priority for meeting MDG 7 and its associated target 10.

Each action plan can be broken down into:

1. Aims and objectives
2. Desired outcomes
3. Key actions and policy requirements
4. Key actors and institutions – roles and responsibilities
5. Timeframe – short to long term plans
6. Financial forecasting
7. Accessing resources – local to international sources
8. Monitoring and review

These elements are outlined in more detail below.

1. Aims and objectives

The core aims of an action plan should relate to achieving a specific MDG goal and associated targets. The plan should also highlight those aims that the community and stakeholders have indicated as core drivers for the work e.g. supporting greater social cohesion through better integration of poorer communities.

2. Outcomes

Each action plan will have to specify its desired or expected outcomes, possibly including broad targets for each plan, as this can assist the process of monitoring of progress. For example, a poverty / income-focused action plan might define a desired outcome to be ‘reducing the proportion of unemployed people by 50% within the next five years’. These outcomes might be intermediate targets or steps towards contribute to the longer term MDG goals and targets.

3. Key actions and policy requirements

The plan should outline each key activity required to meet the specified priorities (from Step 4) and those activities required to achieve the desired outcomes. Taking the income generation / poverty

reduction target as an example the local authority, with local stakeholders, might decide to set up a community credit scheme along with employment training programmes to improve local economic development.

This part of the action plan should also include any *preparatory* activities that may have been identified as necessary to enable the implementation of a plan – such as capacity development, training and educational work, as well as fundraising activities.

Carrying out Step 4 will have identified those major areas that require specific policy responses, including whether standards and regulations need to be revised or new ones introduced in order to provide a more supportive institutional context for action to place. It will be important to ensure that each activity and policy change takes account of the implications to other aspects of the MDG-linked local development strategy e.g. ensuring that changes to sanitation and water policy take account of the potential impact / contribution to health and environment targets.

Various countries have already entered into a number of activities trying to localise the MDGs, such as the Philippines and Albania. The government of the Philippines has produced a guide, including a set of examples of local actions that could be applied towards achieving the MDGs. These activities are outlined in the case study below (Box 2.10).

BOX 2.10 IDEAS FOR LOCAL ACTION TO ACHIEVE THE MDGs

The Government of the Philippines has proposed some options towards meeting the MDGs locally. They include:

Goal 1. Poverty and hunger

- Provision of employment opportunities for marginalized groups through supporting community enterprise and skills training
- Provision of basic training for householder security e.g. home gardening, backyard livestock industry, support services (credit, seeds etc)

Goal 2. Education

- Construct, rehabilitate school facilities, buildings, supplies, libraries. Provision of transport assistance for school children in hard to reach areas
- Implementation of school nutrition programmes such as the School milk project, Breast milk feeding programme, Dental Health Programme.

Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower women

- Allocate a proportion of the LGU budget to gender development programmes . projects / activities
- Promote equal access of women and men to employment and training opportunities

Goal 4. Reduce child mortality

- Immunize children against tuberculosis, tetanus, measles, diphtheria pertussis, hepatitis b before reaching 1 year
- Provision of training of parents in food nutrition, production, and child care
- Provide infrastructure facilities such as health facilities and provision of essential drugs

Goal 5. Reproductive health

- Conduct advocacy and training on family planning, maternal and child care, prevention of violence against women, STDs,
- Develop health care worker capacity in maternal care, child birth, family planning and other health care services

Goal 6. Combat HIV/AIDs, Malaria, and other diseases

- Information campaign about STDs, especially AIDS, about prevention, dangers and values, including targeting the private sector – including nightclubs, bars, and hotels to help educate employees
- Procure and provide essential drugs and logistical support for STDs, malaria and other diseases

Goal 7 Environmental sustainability

- Rehabilitate, protect and maintain community watershed areas with other agencies and partners
- Enforce forest laws and regulations in the community watershed, and support community-based forestry management
- Allocate a proportion of budget to waste management, including solid waste and sewage water

4. Assigning roles and responsibilities

The baseline assessment will have identified many of the key institutions and groups already involved in achieving each of the MDGs, and ideally it will have clarified those additional groups which need to be brought in to respond to identified blocks and barriers. The process of assigning roles and responsibilities to particular activities will need to be inclusive of all key stakeholders, taking into account their relative resources, capacities and relevance to a particular target and activity.

Each action plan should identify and involve those parties that are required to make a decision in each policy area, as well as those who will be impacted by the change e.g. changing land tenure rights to take account of informal communities will require careful dialogue between local planners, slum dwellers, local residents and other stakeholders to ensure the system is accessible and understandable for the communities as well as realistic for the local authority to implement.

The process also needs to identify mechanisms that can be used to support horizontal (intra and inter-municipal cooperation) and vertical cooperation (regional, national and global links) are required such as through establishing local committees or working groups, joining regional networks and municipal exchanges. Such local government exchanges can assist mutual learning, the transfer of skills and scaling up of good practice. National local government associations can also assist in this exchange, as well as international networks such as UCLG and ICLEI (UN Habitat b 2003).

5. Timeframe

The prioritisation process (Step 4) will have highlighted the main activities and policies that are required. It should also have identified whether they need to be carried out in the short, medium or long term. Short term priorities will need more detailed action plans. They should specify monthly and even weekly activities and resources required to achieve the desired outcomes. Sufficient time needs to be allocated to allow for capacity and resource development, especially since the lack of skills or finance may have been identified as major barriers to progress.

6. Budgeting and financial forecasts

Each action plan should seek to calculate the financial resources required for work to be carried out. In traditional systems this would be calculated by technical officers within a local authority. However, as recommended throughout this toolkit, direct community involvement can greatly assist the process of planning ahead financially, ensuring that the needs and interests of the poorest are reflected in the process. Such involvement can also improve the effectiveness and accountability of financial management within a local government.

In Brazil *participatory budgeting* has introduced transparency and extended involvement to many more members of society. Participatory budgeting has been one of the most significant innovations in participatory governance – it is being applied in over 250 cities internationally. It enables more scope for citizens and community representatives to set priorities in local government expenditure and it means a local government budgeting system that is more transparent and open to public scrutiny – although constraints on contributions from the most marginalised people are still immense: see case study below (Box 2.11) (Satterthwaite 2005).

In other countries, such as the Philippines, sub-city-level governance and financing have become part of the local democratic system. Funds have been made available for community development projects and planning meetings are open to all residents (Blore, Devas and Slater 2004).

Box 2.11 Participatory budgeting in Brazil

Participatory budgeting initially developed over 15 years ago in Brazil – especially in the city of Porto Alegre. It spread to over 100 cities in Brazil in the 90's and then more widely since 2000. The model of participatory budgeting can vary in terms of:

- The level of participation e.g. neighbourhood participation to city-wide consultations.
- The form of participation e.g. voting rights for all citizens or through neighbourhood representatives and community organisations
- The proportion of the budget being controlled in a participatory way
- Who takes the final decisions, who manages it and who oversees it – the council, new bodies, and citizens
- The extent to which the poorest are targeted – whether there are special provisions for vulnerable groups e.g. women, children and youth, indigenous groups, the disabled, the elderly.

Participatory budgeting is a part of representative democratic systems because the municipal authority is still responsible for the overall budget and its approval but there is more scope for citizens to influence the process. Typically in Brazil a 'Council of Participatory Budget' is formed consisting of elected community delegates – chose in public meetings – who then decide on the most appropriate form of future citizen participation, identify the themes to be discussed and prepare the participatory budget for presentation to the local council. In non-Brazilian contexts, participatory budgeting is often built on existing bodies such as neighbourhood associations or parish councils.

Participatory budgeting is not easy. One has to deal with a number of challenges, including:

- Overcoming confrontational attitudes between neighbourhoods and local authorities
- Learning to govern in a depoliticized way – to ensure more sustainable outcomes
- Moving away from a top-down culture – mayors need to learn to delegate decision-making and responsibilities
- Moving to longer term visions, beyond short term demands – pooling budgets and ideas
- Moving beyond conventional 'Neighbourhood improvement' to a focus on quality
- Needing to reach all the population, especially the most marginalised and potentially hardest to reach

In the city of Porto Alegre there is an annual cycle of discussions and consultations, organised by neighbourhood and district levels and by themes or sectors. There are also city-wide forums on broad topics such as urban planning, transport, health and social welfare, economic development and taxation. It is no coincidence that Porto has amongst the highest quality of life of any city in Latin America. Average life expectancy is 76 years, the proportion of citizens with access to drinking water is 98% of the population, sanitation is 85%, and solid waste disposal is amongst the highest of the region.

In Barra Mansa, Brazil they developed a much admired participatory budget council with children. 18 boys and 18 girls were elected by their peers to ensure that the municipal council addressed their needs and priorities. The council allocated a proportion of the municipal budget (equivalent to around US\$ 125,000 a year) to addressing priorities identified by children and its child councillors were also involved in other aspects of government. For several years after 1998, more than 6,000 children took part in discussions and assemblies to elect their child councillors and discuss their own priorities. The elected children also learnt how to represent their peers in democratic structures, to prioritize based on available resources, and develop projects within the complex and often bureaucratic processes. This example encouraged similar innovations for children and youth in other cities. It was a way of involving a group that represents 40-60% of the population in cities in lower income nations. However, the initiative in Barra Mansa was not sustained, after a change in government.

Source: Satterthwaite 2005

Other approach to help target the poorest within budget allocations is *gender budgeting*. The method argues that budgets that are 'gender-blind' can widen inequalities that exist between women and men in areas such as health, income, education and nutrition. Since 1995, over 60 countries have undertaken some form of gender budget work, with the aim of improving the efficiency, economy and gender equity of development strategies in their national economies. The City of Bacolod in the Philippines offers a local example, where the budgetary know-how of municipal government officials has been used by an NGO in return for Gender and Development

(GAD) training from the NGO. The NGO, 'Development Through Active Women Networking Foundation' (DAWN) analysed both specific Gender and Developments elements within the budget and then assessed the budget as a whole, including functions, objectives, activities and decision-making of departmental programmes. This information has enabled the NGO to make suggestions to improve the gender balance of policies to government officials based on this analysis (Reeves & Baden 2000). Further resources about gender budgeting are in Section 4.

7. Accessing resources

Local funds

Each action plan will remain simply that – a plan – without the necessary resources to implement the proposed activities. Therefore an *essential* part of any plan will be to identify real and potential sources of funding in order to carry out the work. This will include local sources of funding – such as revenue generation, local taxation and charges, establishing municipal bonds, providing micro-credit and supporting the opening up local credit groups. As with other elements of the action plan, the implications of different sources need to be assessed for their potential poverty and wider impacts.

Improved financial administration and transparency can make a significant contribution to revenue generation. Simplified procedures and a progressive tariff structure, based on ability-to-pay, have allowed Kenyan municipalities to increase the revenues they have obtained from business licences. In Uganda, market fees are the main source of revenue for many local governments. Reforms allowing municipalities to contract out the collection of charges have increased councils' revenue. In the Indian city of Hyderabad – where property tax records were decades out of date – an initiative allowed residents to assess the value of their property themselves, with oversight from residents' associations, and increased revenues by 50% within six months (Blore, Devas and Slater 2004).

Public-Private, Public-NGO and Public-Public Partnerships can all help to bring additional resources to implement a local action plan, not only in terms of finance. The local government needs to take the lead in assessing the pros and cons of involving different partners for all parties and ensure that they will make an important contribution to work, especially that the focus on the poor remains at the fore of the work – it may be that a range of partners are required in order to make a project / action plan viable. For example proposed water charges to cover the cost of privately contracted water provision may not be affordable to the poorest, therefore the authority in question will need to consider alternative approaches to ensure adequate provision to these groups, such as introducing tiered-pricing mechanisms and grants which take account of the ability to pay.

External funds

The plan should also identify potential regional, national and even international funding that can support implementing the actions plans.

One international example is the Global Environmental Facility (GEF) which supports environmental projects by local government units – from the village sub-national levels – through grant funded projects and programs. GEF projects link the global environment to local sustainable development, recognizing that we cannot address the problems of hunger and poverty without finding ways to support the natural systems needed to produce food, such as good soil and water. The GEF indicates that they have benefited greatly from the efforts made by local institutions to incorporate in their own plans and budgets, through projects that benefit both the global environment while also improving the quality of life for their citizens. This includes thousands of people, particularly in rural areas, who have been made better off because of renewable energy

projects employing solar, wind, and photovoltaic energy systems to power irrigation pumps and service village health and education needs (El-Ashry 2002).

The World Bank Social Investment Funds is another international fund that supports local action. The social fund model directly supports community-led development. It has been adapted and scaled up in a number of countries in Latin America, Africa, the Middle East, Eastern Europe, and Asia. The percentage of beneficiaries beneath the national poverty line ranged from 71% in Zambia to 55% in Nicaragua. A study of the many projects globally showed these community-led funds can result in tangible benefits to key sectors, including such water and sanitation, education, health provision. It also demonstrates cost benefits – so that where social funds allowed for greater community control over decisions and resources, unit costs were lower (by as much as 25 – 40%) and community contributions to financing were greater when compared to other programs (IBRD & World Bank 2004).

A further example is the Community-Led Infrastructure Fund Facility or CLIFF which sets the community as the main decision-makers for how funds are allocated. It also aims to act as a catalyst for partnerships with the public and private sector in order to increase the amount of funds as well as technical know-how available to carry out the work (See Box 2.12).

Box 2.12 Community Led Infrastructure Finance Facility (CLIFF)

Background - As organisations of the urban poor are becoming organised, they are developing the capacity to manage slum upgrading, resettlement and infrastructure initiatives. However, loans to the urban poor are seen as high risk by financial institutions, so there is a chronic lack of medium term credit available to them to develop larger scale projects.

Grants for the poor - The British and Swedish international development agencies (DFID & Sida) have provided a large amount of capital to set up a Community Led Infrastructure Finance Facility (CLIFF). The idea is that CLIFF will provide two types of support. The first is to provide grants to federations of the urban poor, which must be used to increase and share their knowledge, operational, and technical capacity. Once these community groups have the necessary capacity to manage project development and administer large-scale finance, bridging loans are provided so that they can get slum-upgrading projects off the ground.

Public and private partners - To bolster the amount of funds available for large-scale project development, CLIFF seeks to attract further commercial, local and public sector finance. Loans from financial institutions to the urban poor may be guaranteed by funds held by Homeless International if required. On completion of the project, incomes from the project will pay back the loans to both CLIFF and financial institutions. Project incomes can take a number of forms including subsidies and contract payments from the authorities, sale of residential and commercial units, community contributions, and Transferable Development Rights (rights that are transferred to communities for environmental protection and socio-economic development). The money repaid to CLIFF will be used to finance further urban rehabilitation projects.

Pilots - CLIFF is currently being piloted in India through Homeless International by Nirman, which has taken on the role of the local CLIFF delivery organisation in Mumbai. Nirman is the construction and finance arm of SPARC. In this way, existing experience and relationships that have been gained and developed between Homeless International and the Indian Alliance (NSDF, Mahila Milan, SPARC and Nirman) can be rapidly built upon and extended to ensure that CLIFF has the best possible chance of succeeding. Homeless International plan to implement CLIFF at a global level, providing communities in other developing countries with the means to develop and manage their own large scale slum rehabilitation projects.

Achievements - By December 2004 CLIFF has supported 9 community-led housing projects benefiting more than 2,700 families and two further sanitation programmes benefiting over 215,000 families. Several other projects are under appraisal for CLIFF support, whilst Mahila Milan and the National Slum Dwellers Federation continue to conceive and develop numerous new projects which may demand CLIFF financing in future. CLIFF has been successful in helping leverage and blend financial and other resources from a whole range of actors including municipalities and the private sector (e.g. banks and land owners) to catalyse scaling-up and replication of community-led slum upgrading schemes.

Source: Jack & Morris 2005

8. Monitoring and review

Tools for monitoring and reviewing the strategy as a whole are discussed in more depth in Step 6 that follows. However, a crucial part of implementing an action plan is the periodic assessment of each plan, which should be applied as standard practice to ensure that the plan is moving towards its desired objectives as well as to assess whether it is having any unforeseen outcomes or impacts.

The production of a *logical framework* can be a useful tool throughout planning, implementation and monitoring processes of an action plan. It encourages planners to be clear about the main elements of a plan, as well as how these will be verified and monitored. It also provides a useful means to present a plan to policy-makers and other stakeholders. A 'log frame' summarises, in a matrix format, the following questions:

- What is the plan seeking to achieve?
- What activities will be carried out to achieve its outputs and purpose?
- What resources (inputs) are required?
- What are the potential problems which could affect the success of the project?
- How will the progress and ultimate success of the project will be measured and verified?

A generalised version of a logical framework is presented in Box 2.13. Further resources which explain the approach can also be found in the Section 4.

Moving from planning to implementation

Once a plan has been designed then the next phase is implementing the plan. Many case studies have indicated that this process can take longer than expected – especially where fundraising, training and capacity development are required in advance of undertaking practical action.

Tapping into and building-up social capital is a crucial part of the implementation of an action plan, throughout planning and implementation. The approach calls for working with the resources that are immediately available to the local government, using the experiences and expertise of different groups e.g. planners, community workers, private sector, as well as communities themselves, to contribute to local development activities. Sometimes it is only through such collaborative 'learning by doing', including learning from our mistakes, that we can move towards a lasting and effective process of development (Hamdi 2004).

A number of countries have already begun to make progress in implementing an MDG-based approach to local development strategies. As already mentioned in Step 2, the governments in Indonesia and Albania have been supporting strong campaigns to localise the MDGs in local government and regional departments. Box 2.14 highlights work carried out in Turkey, building directly on their Local Agenda 21 process. The Turkish experience highlights the value of working with existing community mechanisms and networks to bring partners together for ongoing implementation.

Box 2.13 The Logical Framework Analysis

A Local Framework Analysis comprises the following steps:

- form a working team
- analyze the stakeholders, the situation, objectives, and alternatives
- develop the Logical Framework Matrix or 'Logframe'

The process should allow definition of key objectives which clarify roles and responsibilities, as well as timing, milestone and triggers, and budgets.

Sample Logframe Matrix:

Hierarchy of objectives	Indicators	Means of verification	Assumptions
Goals	Quantity, Quality, and Time-based indicators	Sources of information and methods used to collect and report it.	Probable and important external conditions required for goal to be successful.
Purpose	As above	As above	As above
Outputs	As above	As above	As above
Activities	As above	As above	As above

Goals – Define how the project will contribute to the solution of a problem *after* the action plan has finished e.g. contribute to the reduction of diseases caused by water contamination.

Purpose - Define the direct impact that is expected to be achieved e.g. the rural population will apply standard hygienic practices

Outputs – Outline specific results and tangible products (goods and services) produced by undertaking a series of tasks or activities. It should be written as a finished product (installed systems, trained people, etc.) delivered during the implementation phase.

1. Community serviced with high quality drinking water;
2. Health personnel qualified in high training standard

Activities – How will the Outputs be achieved? Activities should include programming and budgeting but not in too much detail e.g.

- 1.1 Select sites for building water fountain; 1.2 Organize working teams; 1.3 Build the fountain.
- 2.1 Curriculum Development; 2.2 Recruit health personnel; 2.3 Implement training courses.

Performance indicators - Performance indicators define the quantitative, qualitative, timing, cost and place parameters of our efforts. They should mainly measure outputs and purpose. Indicators should be SMART: Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Relevant and Timebound.

Means of verification - Guiding questions for information gathering:

- How should the information be collected? e.g., sample surveys, administrative records, national statistics as the census, workshops, focus groups, observation, rapid rural appraisal techniques
- What source is the most appropriate? e.g., who should be interviewed? Does the Bureau of Statistics already collect the required information? Is the source reliable?)
- Who should do it? e.g., extension staff, supervisors, an independent team)
- When and how often should the information be collected, analyzed and reported? e.g., monthly, annually, according to seasonal cropping cycles)

Assumptions - Are there (external) conditions that could affect the success of a project but over which project managers have no direct control?

Source: Molinas 2003

Box 2.14 Local Agenda 21 and the Millennium Development Goals

Local Agenda (LA) 21 in Turkey has been praised as one of the most successful in the world. Launched in 1997 with support from UNDP and International Union of Local Authorities (IULA) the project continued into a second implementation phase in January 2000. The third phase links LA21 to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), called 'localising the UN MDGs and WSSD Plan of Implementation through Turkey Local Agenda 21 Governance Network'. The Turkish LA21 governance network includes metropolitan municipalities, provincial municipalities, district municipalities, sponsoring organisations, a youth component, plus a steering committees involving central government bodies e.g. the Prime Ministry, State Planning Organisation, Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Forestry and Environment, as well as the General Secretariat of the European Union.

'LA21 City Councils' are a unique governance mechanism in Turkey that brings together central and local government with civil society in a collaborative framework of partnerships. The City Councils have established a participatory platform from which local visions can be created coupled with action plans. Broad participation has helped the sustainability of the project from development through to evaluation. Membership in the councils can include hundreds and sometimes thousands of organisations – providing platforms to discuss and develop priorities and identify problems in a city.

At the neighbourhood level there are 'Neighbourhood houses' as well as neighbourhood committees that provide a means of facilitating participatory neighbourhood processes. Also Women's LA21 councils exist in over 30 cities with a national network to facilitate raising awareness and the involvement of women. Similarly youth LA21 Councils have been established in all partner cities to promote youth participation in LA21 policies and strategies. A Council for the Elderly and Council for the Disabled also exist. A number of cities have established 'LA21 Houses' which serve as a venue for meetings and activities by local stakeholders.

The programme has enabled a new local governance model to be established in Turkey where LA21 has demonstrated itself as a trigger for social transformation – accelerating decentralisation and democratisation in the country. The most important lesson to be drawn from the project continues to be the immeasurable value gained from the involvement of local stakeholders and wider community as 'partners' with a view to integrating social, economic, and environment policies and leading to a more open, participatory governance at the local level. Strong 'ownership' of the project amongst local authorities and stakeholders has been accompanied with real commitment from all parties to champion the process at national and local levels.

Source: *Turkey Local Agenda 21 Governance Network 2005*

To illustrate the process of moving from action plan to implementation it is helpful to look at one of the MDG targets and highlight the possible process that could be undertaken. The following section takes the example of target 11 from MDG 7 which calls for improving the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by 2020.

Implementing the slum target 11

Context - Earlier strategic baseline assessments will have indicated many of the causal factors that have led to slum appearance and growth. Slums are known to be the products of failed policies, bad governance, corruption, inappropriate regulation, dysfunctional land markets, unresponsive financial systems and a fundamental lack of political will (World Bank & UN Habitat 1999) and these factors will need to be addressed in the activities that are carried out.

Broad aims: The rationale for acting on this target is to help the urban poor, who are significant for a number of reasons:

1. **Common urban future** – in the next few years most people across the globe will live in urban areas
2. **Huge slum population** – nearly one out of three urban dwellers live in slums. There is close to a billion people who live in slums and lack basic services e.g. adequate clean water, sanitation, living space and security of tenure.

3. **Unacknowledged** – in least developed countries nearly 73% of people in urban areas live in slums but urban poverty remains largely unaddressed
4. **Excluded** – a privileged few in urban areas have access to elements of full citizenship: political voice; secure and quality housing; rule of law; safety; education; affordable health services; decent transport; adequate incomes and access to economic activities and credit.
5. **Underestimated** – the majority of the poor in developing and middle-income countries live in rural areas but reports continue to underestimate urban poverty by failing to take account of the cost of living in urban areas as well as lack of access to key services.
6. **Urban benefits beyond the city** – the links between rural and urban areas are often poorly addressed e.g. remittances from urban workers can be reinvested in rural areas
7. **Urban context is critical to all the MDGs** – If urban poverty issues are not addressed then it will be impossible to achieve the Goals. By improving the lives of slums dwellers, we can work towards the other Goals – as the world becomes more urban, the integration and synergies emerging from the potential of comprehensively addressing the Goals.

Good urban governance principles must be adopted. As such local governments should:

- Recognise the 'right to the city' and target the most excluded communities, including migrant people
- Adopt an integrated development plan – Slum up-grading is dealing with the symptoms and not the causes of the problem. Effective planning should avoid future slum appearance and therefore potential growth should be incorporated as part of a wider city development plan.
- Adopt integrated local strategies – local slum strategies can address all MDGs and should be built into national PRSs

Key actions and policy requirements – Once identified and agreed, local government and other partners need to undertake the agreed policy responses and activities to alleviate slum conditions. Examples of policy changes and activities may include:

- Implementation of legislation against forced evictions and provide security of tenure – forced eviction has never reduced poverty or slums they simply move the problem elsewhere
- Action on land rights – local authorities should provide secure tenure to men and women in informal settlements in cooperation with national governments and slum dwellers
- Provision of adequate and affordable infrastructure and services – Use appropriate design and tariffs structures to ensure affordable provision of basic services
- Enabling community contracts and partnerships – local improvement projects must be open to low-income communities, cooperatives and slum dweller organisations as partners or contractors. This may require designing contracts on a scale suitable for community level involved, as well as building up skills and transparency of municipal resources
- Building and maintaining public transport systems and services – good public transport can expand livelihood options for the poor, reduce costs, improve health and protect the environment
- Ensure water, sanitation and health services reach the poor – Slum dwellers face many barriers to these services which limits their ability to prevent and treat health problems
- Enacting building codes and regulations – establish standards that are realistic, enforceable, and reflect community lifestyle/ culture, respecting minimum plot sizes, affordability and access to economic opportunities
- Planning adequate alternatives to the formation of new slums – make land available, implement basic service provision strategies, seek to integrate residential and income earning opportunities
- Involving the private sector – local authorities need to provide the urban infrastructure and policy environment (roads, communications, power, transport and other services, as well as stable regulatory environment) to attract and sustain productive investments
- Creating jobs – access to employment can contribute to inclusion and poverty eradication. Authorities need to eliminate the restrictions and un reasonable burdens on local enterprise development, financing business start-ups, training and education can all contribute

Time-frame – although the slum target is for 2020, the action plan will need to balance the immediate demands of urban population growth, business expansion and infrastructural development, along side medium to longer term priorities such as ensuring the protection and enhancement of environmental quality.

Key actors and institutions – Local government has demonstrated that it can develop the capacity to use its mandates and resources for sound and participatory urban development policies, if such policies are rooted in political leadership that is committed to a democratic and equitable vision of civil society in all spheres of government. What is needed is the vision, commitment, and the resources to bring all the actors together and provide political and economic opportunities, improving services and quality of public space, planning for future needs, expanding local sources of revenue, attracting private sector actors and investment, in active cooperation and dialogue with all citizens including slum dwellers, and marginalised groups such as youth and women (Garau et al 2005).

It has been widely experienced that slum upgrading and local governance programmes are successful only when they are owned, managed, controlled and used by local people – the poor slum residents themselves. With appropriate and adequate capacity development efforts local people's, especially women, leadership can develop rapidly (World Bank & UN HABITAT 1999). It is therefore important to recognize that the urban poor are active agents and not passive beneficiaries of development. Local governments therefore need to work with organisations of the urban poor as equal partners in urban political and economic life, including budgeting decisions, financing practices and participatory up-grading, planning and design of basic public services. This requires a fundamental redefinition of the political relationship between government and citizens, particularly the urban poor, in order to work with local communities to upgrade slums, and to negotiate on planning decisions and the utilization of public resources.

National governments need to be encouraged to ensure that relevant country-level mechanisms, including international aid for the reduction of poverty - the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) - reflect the importance of local and urban development or the severity and alarming growth of urban poverty. They should support local poverty reduction strategies – locally driven processes should be reflected in national poverty reduction strategies, ensuring that they are built from the bottom-up (Garau et al 2005). For example in Sri Lanka local authorities have been allocated the power to prepare planning regulations and standards with community participation in the country's Planning and Building Regulations Law 1986. It has been possible to implement this law in many urban areas due to:

- A policy on urban up-grading which recognises up-grading as a way to improve livelihoods for low income people
- Government programmes that assist the formation and strengthening of community organisations in slums and informal settlements
- Participatory approaches are applied, such as community action planning (CAP) in local development. CAP is used in all urban up-grading programmes in Sri Lanka – workshops allow the communities to decide on planning standards that will meet the needs of the poor
- Implementation of urban up-grading projects using minimum standards, established in the CAP workshops
- Creation of institutional structures in the local authorities to support design and implementation of community planning and building guidelines, such as local housing and community development committees which have been established to provide policy guidance and monitor livelihood programmes (Payne and Majale 2004)

Empowering local action can be further supported through developing and strengthen networks – networks at all levels can help the exchange of knowledge and good practice, such as working with the Millennium cities campaign.

Budgeting and mobilising resources - Estimates suggest it will cost \$18billion a year globally to achieve Target 11 over the next 16 years. At the local level all actors will have assess how much is required in their locality and how they will contribute. Community groups will need to mobilise their own resources and national and local governments will need to budget for slum up-grading, new infrastructure development and as well as offer policy support to stimulate investment. Formal and informal private service providers, investors and developers will be needed; and donors need to commit resources to help leverage domestic resources. Other resources that will be required will include:

- Land resources – suitable and affordable land needs to be made available to low-income households through planning and legislation
- Human resources – building capacity and targeted teaching programmes for local government and communities in planning processes will help create better cities and improve slum dwellers conditions

Monitoring progress - This is vital to ensure progress is made both locally and nationally. Local groups should contribute to the monitoring and review process through conducting community surveys and public meetings (Garau et al 2005).

STEP 6 - MONITORING AND REVISION

The section outlines some tools of effective strategy assessment:

- Indicators
- Monitoring approaches

Indicators

The importance of establishing effective indicators for monitoring the development and implementation of an MDG-linked local development strategy cannot be underestimated.

Much of the monitoring process can be seen as a repeat of the baseline assessment process outlined in Step 3, only this time there will be a pre-existing set of data from the initial assessment from which to compare and analyse progress that has been made, highlight areas that need more targeted support, identify previously missed barriers as well as new obstacles to progress. Monitoring also provides vital information that can be communicated to regional and national government assisting their strategic assessment of progress at a national scale.

As mentioned in Step 3, indicators need to be developed that are 'SMART' and best capture the situation with the resources and data that is available. Table 2.3 outlines what SMART indicators looks like. The European Commission lists the following as desirable characteristics of an indicator. They should:

- capture the essence of the problem and be clearly understood;
- be robust and statistically validated;
- be responsive to policy interventions but not subject to manipulation;
- be measurable in a sufficiently comparable way across Member States (local authorities), and comparable as far as practicable with the standards applied (nationally and internationally);
- be timely and susceptible to revision;
- not impose too large a burden on a local authority, enterprise, or others in terms of data collection;
- be consistent and with proportionate weight given to single indicators in the portfolio;
- be as transparent and accessible as possible to citizens (Scot 2004)

Table 2.3 Recommendations for 'SMART' indicators

SIMPLE/ SPECIFIC	MEASURABLE	ACCURATE	RELIABLE	TIME BOUND
Easy to collect	Statistically verifiable, reproducible and comparable	Accurate to use	Relevance to local policies and objectives	Measure an indicator within a fixed time frame.
Easy to interpret	It is possible to combine them with other indicators to form new indicators	Verifiable	Relevance to regional policies and management objectives	Indicate change over time by making annual comparisons (2000 – 2005)
Easy to monitor	It is possible to point out at trends over time		Relevance to national policies and management objectives e.g. PRS	Or highlight a single year of measurement
Easy to map			Relevance to international agreements and commitments i.e. MDGs	

Source: Adapted from REC Slovakia 2004

As mentioned earlier the UN Statistics Division has produced a set of 48 national indicators in a 'MDG Indicators Database' which can be found on their website (see section 4 for details). These statistics need to be scaled-down to fit the circumstances at the local level. UN Habitat has developed a set of local development indicators which offer a useful illustration for linking the MDGs to local assessment of local development. They comprise 20 *key* indicators (for policy makers and reasonably easy to collect), 8 *check lists* (questions that less easily measured by a quantitative indicator) and 16 *extensive* indicators (more in-depth measure of a specific issue) as outlined in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Urban indicator set

Habitat Goal	Indicators
Theme 1: Shelter	
Promote the right to adequate housing	Key indicator 1: durable structures
	Key indicator 2: overcrowding
	Check-list 1: right to adequate housing
	extensive indicator 1: housing price and rent-to-income
Provide security of tenure	Key indicator 3: secure tenure
	extensive indicator 2: authorized housing
	extensive indicator 3: evictions
Provide equal access to credit	check-list 2: housing finance
Provide equal access to land	extensive indicator 4: land price -to-income
Promote access to basic services	Key indicator 4: access to safe water
	Key indicator 5: access to improved sanitation
	Key indicator 6: connection to services
Theme 2. Social development and eradication of poverty	
Provide equal opportunities for a safe and healthy life	Key indicator 7: under-five mortality
	Key indicator 8: homicides
	check-list 3: urban violence
	extensive indicator 5: HIV prevalence
Promote social integration and support disadvantaged groups	Key indicator 9: poor households
Promote gender equality in human settlements development	Key indicator 10: literacy rates
	check-list 4: gender inclusion
	extensive indicator 6: school enrolment
	extensive indicator 7: women councillors
Theme 3. Environmental Management	
Promote geographically balanced settlement structures	Key indicator 11: urban population growth
	Key indicator 12: planned settlements
Manage supply and demand for water in an effective manner	Key indicator 13: price of water
	extensive indicator 8: water consumption
Reduce urban pollution	Key indicator 14: wastewater treated
	Key indicator 15: solid waste disposal
	extensive indicator 9: regular solid waste collection
Prevent disasters and rebuild settlements	check-list 5: disaster prevention and mitigation instruments
	extensive indicator 10: houses in hazardous locations
Promote effective and environmentally sound transportation systems	Key indicator 16: travel time
	extensive indicators 11: transport modes
Support mechanisms to prepare and implement local environmental plans and local Agenda 21 initiatives	check-list 6: local environmental plans
Theme 4. Economic Development	
Strengthen small and microenterprises,	Key indicator 17: informal employment

particularly those developed by women	
Encourage public-private sector partnership and stimulate productive employment opportunities	Key indicator 18: city product
	Key indicator 19: unemployment
Theme 5. Governance	
Promote decentralisation and strengthen local authorities	Key indicator 20: local government revenue
	Check-list 7: decentralization
Encourage and support participation and civic engagement	Check-list 8: citizens participation
	extensive indicator 12: voters participation
	extensive indicator 13: civic associations
Ensure transparent, accountable and efficient governance of towns, cities and metropolitan areas	Check-list 9: transparency and accountability

Source: UN-HABITAT 2004

Monitoring approaches

Since 1999 UN Habitat's Global Urban Observatory (GUO) has been helping local authorities set up their own local urban observatory to gain an accurate picture of their development needs and to track progress. *Local urban observatories* (LUO) bring together city officials, citizens and businesses to ask the simple question 'how well is my authority achieving results that matter?' In Santiago Chile for example, the LUO helped the municipality develop indicators for monitoring progress against the authority's strategic plan for 2010. Baseline data and development targets were produced for 73 indicators. As a result of the monitoring system the allocation of municipal resources has become more transparent and public awareness of the impact of decisions on the economy and the environment has grown.

Data can be collected by conducting basic household surveys. LUO's also use analytical approaches such as Geographical Information Systems (GIS) to map the data collected. Graphical presentation helps planners and policy-makers to better understand where the poor live, areas of environmental pollution, living conditions and needs. "*The indicators drew to our attention some areas that we have never measured before, such as the economy of the city*" said an official from Harare, Zimbabwe. Harare is now integrating such indicators into both the physical and strategic plans for the city.

In cases where a broader range of stakeholders has been involved, LUOs have strengthened networks between citizen groups and the local authority. The city of Ahmedabad, India, set up an LUO coordinated by a local NGO, Urban Planning Partnerships. The municipality in partnership with the NGO has used the result to prepare a slum upgrading programme (Chowdhury 2004).

The following case study (Box 2.14) outlines the principles behind *Community Based Monitoring Systems* (CBMS). CBMS is useful tool which recognises that many countries are moving to a more decentralised approach to development. Decentralisation can result in increased efficiency in meeting development needs. It can provide better opportunities for local residents to participate in decision-making resulting in greater accountability of public officials and strengthened democratic processes. Information gaps are often greatest in relation to non-income related measures of poverty e.g. functional literacy, health, food security.

Participatory Impact Assessment is another valuable tool that encourages the poor to be a part of assessing the impact of strategy implementation. Key aspects for a Participatory Impact Assessment (PIA) include:

- **Measurement** – mapping out and comparing variations in community resources and wellbeing over time
- **Identifying changes** – monitoring developments in key MDGs e.g. crops, health, education, housing, income, asset ownership, status, cooperation – preferably as identified, by poor people themselves

- **Indicators** – selection, collection and analysis of indicators which address the causes and affects of poverty
- **Participation** - obtaining the views and judgments of different groups, through seminars, workshops, surveys, public meetings
- **Analysis and documentation** – capturing the variety of views, even between different groups of the poor (Davies 1997)

Further resources about how to run a PIA are available in Section 4.

Box 2.14 Overview of Community based monitoring systems (CBMS)

CBMS can play a crucial role in poverty monitoring, as it can complement efforts by central governments to institutionalise a local poverty monitoring system. The data can be used to help needs identification, as well as assessment and development of policies and programmes, and resource allocation. CBMS involves the design, pilot-test and implementation of a methodology for data collection and data processing, validation and application in policy and programme development.

CBMS is based at the level of local government using personnel as monitors and has a core set of indicators. It aims to mobilise and develop local community ability to generate and use data. It assists the process of delivering data to higher levels of decision-making, including macroeconomic planners and supports establishing a databank of key indicators. The process should include the provincial / regional level, local authority, village / district / borough level.

CBMA activities

- Orientation – allocate responsibilities to stakeholders led by provincial or municipal officials
- Data collection – two survey instruments – a household questionnaire and a community questionnaire. Data collection is recommended every year or at least every two years
- Data processing – Consolidating all the data manually or via computer at the village / borough level, then submitted to municipal level and then amalgamated at the provincial level
- Community validation – Processed data is then presented to local community groups for validation – ensuring the accuracy of the data
- Analysis – the municipal and provincial planning units should analyse the data to assess extent of poverty and its causes, as well as identify appropriate interventions
- Preparation of socio-economic profile and plan – Use data to input to: development of plans and socio-economic profiles; define resource allocation; identifying target beneficiaries in programmes and projects; develop program design, implementation and monitoring
- Dissemination (databanks) – Whilst local government may be the principal users of the data, it will also be valuable information for national government, NGOs, academia, researchers and the wider public.

CBMS networks have been established in Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Pakistan, Philippines, Nepal, Vietnam, Senegal, Sri Lanka, Benin, Ghana, India, Lao PDR and commenced in Indonesia. In the Philippines the CBMS was applied in the Provincial government of Palawan to such success that the province was able to produce its first human development report and has informed planning and monitoring processes in local government areas. The central government has since advocated the institutionalisation of CBMS throughout the countries and since 2001 has required all provinces and municipalities to employ a Local Poverty Reduction Action Officer, who are mandated to prepare a poverty action plan which will require data to diagnose poverty priorities for their local area. Having an identified officer/s provides a vital link to integrate data and plans to provincial and national levels.

Source: World Bank 2001

Another similar participatory technique is known as *Community Score Cards*. Community Score Cards (CSC) are qualitative monitoring tools that are used for local level monitoring and performance evaluation of services, projects and even government administrative units by the communities themselves. The CSC process is a hybrid of the techniques of social audit, community monitoring and citizen report cards. Like the citizen report card, the CSC process is an instrument to enhance social and public accountability and responsiveness from service providers. An interface meeting between service providers and the community allows for immediate feedback, which means that the process is also a strong instrument for community empowerment. Box 2.15 outlines the main steps involved in a CSC.

Box 2.15 Community Score Card Process

1. Preparation

- Identify scope of assessment – which sector will be examined e.g. health
- Clarify who will facilitate the process - local government, an NGO, local workers,
- Gauge community perceptions via public meetings, ensuring key groups in the community are represented, including the poorest
- In order to establish focus groups in the next step the facilitators need to divide up the community into key groups, either via field visits or social/poverty mapping based on historical data

2. Input tracking scorecard

- Collect supply-side data e.g. inventories of inputs like drugs, water quality and supply; financial records; budgets; entitlements based on national policy e.g. 1 textbook per child
- Present supply-side information to the community and service providers
- Divide participants into focus groups based on their role in service provision e.g. receivers, workers etc. Ensure there is a balance of gender, age, income etc
- Finalise a set of measurable 'supply-side' indicators based on data available and focus group discussions
- Use focus groups to collect data to fill out input indicator score card and first hand examination to assess / verify input data

3. Community generated performance scorecard

- Use focus groups to develop performance criteria through which to evaluate a facility and service provision. Organise the criteria into measurable performance indicators
- The Community Generated performance indicators should be prioritised and finalised and not exceed 5-8 main indicators
- The facilitators should invite the focus groups should give relative scores for each indicator, either through group consensus or individual voting
- Invite groups to indicate the potential causes for high or low scores
- Invite groups to suggest ways to tackle and deal with underperforming areas

Example of a community performance score card:

<i>Community Generated criteria</i>	Score					Remarks
	1 Very bad	2 Bad	3 OK	4 Good	5 Very Good	
Availability of Staff						
Availability of Drugs						
Management of health centre						
Access to care for all community groups						

4. Self-evaluation scorecard by service providers

- Choose which service facilities will undertake a self assessment
- Train facility staff in the process via a brainstorming session to develop performance indicators
- Invite staff to fill in their relative scores for the indicators they have proposed
- Invite staff to reflect on the scores and reasons, including addressing how they think the community might assess them, as well as to make suggestions for improvement

5. Interface meeting between users and providers to provide respective feedback and generate a mutually agreed reform agenda

- Prepare community and providers for interface meeting, including sensitisation to possible feelings and constraints on either side to reduce the risk of an adversarial meeting, e.g share the results of the two score cards
- Ensure adequate participation, including of key decision-makers e.g. planners, local politicians and senior officials to give greater legitimacy and chance of follow-up
- Facilitate a dialogue between the service providers and the community inviting them to come up with concrete actions in the immediate follow-up and longer term

6. Follow-up and institutionalisation

- Local government and provincial assemblies need to hold forum to allow communities to feed back progress on performance criteria
- Regional and national governments can integrate the CSC findings into their decentralisation and development processes, providing targeted performance incentives
- Community organisations can train their staff to conduct CSC to apply them periodically
- Indirect uses of the results can be encouraged through publication of the results to the local, regional and national press and TV

SECTION 3. SOME USEFUL ORGANISATIONS

United Nations and international agencies

UN Millennium Campaign – aims to encourage citizens around the world to hold governments to account for the promises they made at the September 2000 Millennium Summit.

www.millenniumcampaign.org

UN joint programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) with UN Institute of Training and Research (UNITAR) have set up the 'City AIDS project' to fight HIV/AIDS in urban areas. www.unaids.org

The **Commission on Sustainable Development** (CSD) has worked with local authorities since the 1992 Rio Earth Summit, towards meeting sustainable development commitments from Rio and Johannesburg. www.un.org/esa/sustdev

UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) works with cities to tackle urban crime prevention – examined at the 11th UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice in Bangkok in April 2005. www.unodc.org

UN Development Programme (UNDP) provides financial support for a number of country projects, the millennium Partnership (localising the MDGs), and World Alliance of Cities Against Poverty. www.undp.org

UN Environment Programme (UNEP) works with cities largely via UN Habitat programmes, including on local environment planning and management, and preparedness for emergencies www.unep.org

UN Education Science and Culture (UNESCO) has various activities - a 'Cities for Peace' prize; management of social transformation Programme; Growing up in Cities Programme; the Small Historic Coastal Cities Programme. It promotes heritage and nature conservation and tackling water conflicts. www.unesco.org

UN Food and Agricultural Programme (FAO) helps members countries develop national policies and strategies for improved agricultural productivity and food security. Activities include the promotion of agricultural extension services in rural municipalities. www.fao.org

UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) has works with local government to seek to benefit children globally, in recognition that local government has responsibilities in many areas that affect the life of children such as health, education, housing, environmental protection, culture, sports and recreation such as through the Child-Friendly Cities Campaign www.unicef.org

The **International Labour Organisation** (ILO) works with local authorities and community-based groups to promote infrastructure development. ILO assists local authorities in its Local Economic Development programme, Employment Intensive Investment Programme, Small Enterprise and Entrepreneurship Development, Public-Private Partnership Programme, and Crisis and Reconstruction. www.ilo.org

UNITAR has developed programme on decentralised cooperation supporting a number of training centres to support regional associations of local government and private sector. www.unitar.org

The five UN Regional Commissions carryout various activities on human settlements:

- Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) - www.uneca.org
- Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) - www.unece.org
- Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) – www.uneclac.cl
- Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) – www.unescap.org

- Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA) – www.unescwa.org

The **World Bank** supports numerous local and urban development projects, seeking to improve the urban environment and local governance, focusing on urban poverty and strengthening municipal management. www.worldbank.org

The **World Health Organisation (WHO)** has a Healthy Cities Programme – mostly active in Europe which promotes public health, concentrating on social aspects of health of relevance to the local sphere, as well as supporting raising awareness in citizens about non-communicable diseases e.g. Malaria. www.who.org

Local Government international and regional networks

The United Cities and Local Government world Organisation - Bringing together mayors, local councillors and local government associations from around the world, UCLG is the principle global organisation representing local government at the UN and other international bodies. Over 1000 cities across 95 countries are direct members. www.cities-localgovernments.org/uclg

Affiliated and active regional local government associations (internationally) include:

- **United Cities and Local Government Africa (UCLGA)**. www.uclga.co.za
- **CityNet** – Network of Local Authorities that Promotes Sustainable Urban Improvement Initiatives in the Asia-Pacific. www.citynet-ap.org
- **Congress of Local and Regional Authorities in the Council of Europe (CLRAE)**. www.coe.int/T/E/Clrae
- **Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR)**. www.ccre.org
- **The Federation of Latin American municipalities, Cities and Associations of local government (FLACMA)**. www.flacma.org

ICLEI 'local governments for sustainability' - an international association of local governments and national and regional local government organizations committed to sustainable development. More than 470 cities, towns, counties, and their associations are members worldwide. ICLEI works with these and other local governments on campaigns and programs. www.iclei.org

The Cities Alliance - a coalition of cities and development partners (including UN Habitat and World Bank) committed to address urban poverty through city-wide action strategies involving city development strategies and slum upgrading programmes. 145 cities are involved globally. www.citiesalliance.org

The Commonwealth Local Government Forum (CLGF) – focuses on local democracy in the Commonwealth. CLGF promotes democratic local government across the Commonwealth, and encourages exchange of best practice. It is actively involved in encouraging local elections and systems, election monitoring, and support for councillors and councils. CLGF has over 160 members in 40 Commonwealth countries. www.clgf.org.uk

SECTION 4. TRAINING RESOURCES

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Youth

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[Water and sanitation](#)

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Good governance

Tool: Principles of Good Urban Governance

Source: Global Campaign on Urban Governance, UN-HABITAT

Author: UN-HABITAT

Date: 2002

Website: www.unhabitat.org/campaigns/governance/Principles.asp

Contact: Global Campaign, Nairobi, Kenya Tel: +254-20-623216 E-mail: governance@unhabitat.org

Review: Summarizes core principles for good urban governance – as part of UN Habitat's broader Global Campaign on Urban Governance.

Tool: Tools to Promote Transparency in Local Governance

Source: Global Campaign on Urban Governance, UN-HABITAT

Author: UN-HABITAT

Date: 2004

Website: www.unhabitat.org/publication/TOOLKITGOVERNANCE.pdf

Contact: Global Campaign, Nairobi, Kenya Tel: +254-20-623216 E-mail: governance@unhabitat.org

Review: The toolkit offers resources in promoting transparency in local government, assessing corruption, improving public access to information and participation, promoting institutional reform and introduction of good conduct, ethics, professionalism and integrity.

Tool: Decentralised Governance for Development: A combined practice note on decentralisation, local governance and urban / rural development.

Source: UNDP Practice note

Author: UNDP

Date: 2003

Website: <http://www.undp.org/policy/docs/practicenotes/dgdpnitra.doc>

Contact: Gita Welch, the Democratic Governance Practice Leader gita.welch@undp.org, or Robertson Work, Principal Policy Advisor on Decentralisation, robertson.work@undp.org, or to Jonas Rabinovitch, Senior Advisor on Urban Development and Urban-Rural Relations, jonas.rabinovitch@undp.org.

Review: Outlines core concepts for promoting supporting decentralised governance that supports development with country examples based on UNDP programs and initiatives

Localising the MDGs

Tool: Local Government Unit (LGU) Guide on MDG Localization

Source: Government of Philippines

Author: Department of the Interior and Local Government

Date: 200

Website: Introduction : www.lga.gov.ph/downloads/downloadables/MDG%20-%20LGU%20Guide-Introduction.pdf

Main document <http://www.lga.gov.ph/downloads/downloadables/MDG%20-%20LGU%20Guide-Main%20Document.pdf>

Contact:

Review: This guide outlines the indispensable role of local governments in the provision of basic services and their responsibility of realizing the MDGs. If LGUs have limited resources, priority should be given to the delivery of basic services which would directly impact on poverty reduction. The guide includes a set of suggested ideas and case studies to help LGUs meet MDGs locally. It also includes baseline data of progress in the provinces within the Philippines. It proposes options towards meeting the MDGs locally.

Tool: United Nations Development Group (UNDG) MDG Toolkit

Source: UNDG

Author: UNDG

Date: 2005

Website: mdgtoolkit.undg.org/

Contact :

Review: A collection of training materials on the Millennium Development Goals. It is designed to strengthen capacity in *UN Country Teams* and provide them with training tools on the MDGs that they can use both inside and outside their team. The different tools provided can be used to train UN staff as well as others.

Module 1: Millennium Declaration and the MDGs

- To strengthen understanding of the MDGs and establish where the country is in terms of achieving them. Develop a strategic action plan.

Module 2: Operationalising the MDGs

- Learn how to place the MDGs at the heart of the PRSP.
- Learn the rights based approach and the implications for programming.
- Learn to use a participatory tool for tailoring targets to the national context with community participation.

Module 3: Monitoring and Reports

- Learn the main issues in monitoring MDGs, developing national capacities and mobilizing stakeholders.

Module 4: Advocacy and Campaigning

- Increase knowledge and improve practice of advocacy by learning definitions and concepts; learn how to develop a message, build a coalition and plan an advocacy campaign.

Module 5: MDG Needs Assessment and Financial Analysis

- Country-specific methodology for carrying out an MDG needs assessment and financial analyses and the key issue in understanding the role of the UNCT.

Tool: Supporting the Millennium Development Goals – Planning and communications resources for the launch of the ‘Millennium Towns and cities campaign’.

Source: United Cities and Local Government (UCLG), Barcelona

Author: UCLG

Date: June 2005

Website: http://www.cities-localgovernments.org/uclg/upload/template/templatedocs/ENG_toolkit.doc

Contacts:

Review: On 10 June 2005 the World Council of United Cities and Local Governments launched the "Millennium Towns and Cities Campaign" to support the UN Millennium Development Goals. The campaign toolkit is part of advocacy campaign which aims to promote the role of local government in international development. The Campaign Toolkit has been produced by UCLG to assist local governments in implementing the Millennium Towns and Cities Campaign. The materials serve simply as a reference and can be changed and adapted to the needs of individual local governments.

Tool: Benchmarking Workshops: A Tool For Localizing the Millennium Development Goals.

Source: A pilot project for UNDP in Bulgaria and the Russian Federation by ‘Segaar School for International and Public Affairs (SIPA), Columbia University, New York

Author: Clara Alemann, Philip Gounev, Farhad Imambakiyev, Katherine Lapham, Rada Noeva, & Derk Segaar

Date: May 2003

Website: http://www.cv.undp.org/Publications/OMD/benchmarking_workshops.pdf

Contact:

Review: The tool highlights the value of community benchmarking and participatory workshops. The appendix includes a facilitators’ handbook about how to conduct a workshop.

Tool: How to Make Local Development Work: Selected Practices for Europe and the CIS

Source: UNDP RSC

Author: UNDP RSC

Date: 2002

Website: <http://www.ecissurf.org/index.cfm?module=BookStore&page=Book&BookID=62>

Contact: Tel: +421-2-59337405; Fax: +421-2-59337-450; Email: denisa.papayova@undp.org

Review:

Participation

Tool: LogoLink (Website) Learning initiative on citizen participation and local governance

Author: Institute of Development Studies (IDS), University of Sussex

Date: ongoing

Website: <http://www.ids.ac.uk/logolink>

Contact: Rose Marie Nierras, LogoLink Coordinator email: LogoLink@ids.ac.uk Tel: +44 (0) 1273 877532 or 606261 ext 7532

Review: LogoLink is a global network of practitioners from civil society organisations, research institutions and governments working to deepen democracy through greater citizen participation in local governance.

Tool: ‘Multi-Stakeholder Processes for Governance and Sustainability - Beyond Deadlock and Conflict’

Source: Chapter 8 of the book. Earthscan, London

Author: Minu Hemmati, with contributions from Felix Dodds, Jasmin Enayati & Jan McHarry

Date: 2001

Website: http://www.minuhemmati.net/eng/msp/msp_book.htm

Contact: Minu Hemmati email: minush@aol.com. To order the book contact: Earthscan Tel: +44 (0)20 7387 8558 Fax: +44 (0)20 7387 8998

Review: Chapters 7 and 8 offer of the book a 'how to' guide about the principles and key steps for practitioners who would like to apply a multi-stakeholder participatory approach in decision-making, planning, project development and implementation. The guide also suggest core principles and strategies for effective multi-stakeholder processes.

Gender

Tool: Navigating Gender - A framework and a tool for participatory development

Source: Ministry for Foreign Affairs, Department for International Development Cooperation, Helsinki, Finland

Author: Arja Vainio-Mattila

Date: 1999

Website: http://global.finland.fi/julkaisut/taustat/nav_gender/index.html

Contact: Department for International Development Cooperation E-mail kyotilaus@formin.fi

Fax +358 9 1341 6375

Review: This online resource provides some basic definitions as well as tools for conducting gender analysis in planning, implementation and monitoring. It includes examples of tools such as Rapid Gender Analysis and Gender Analysis Matrixes.

Tool: Gender and Budgets - Cutting edge pack

Source: UNDP

Author: BRIDGE, Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, UNDP and SYNTAX

Date: 2004

Website: <http://www.undp.org/gender/CD-Gender-and-Budgets-2004/>

Contact: Yasna Uberoi or Mary Wong, Women, Ink Tel: +1 212 687 8633 e: wink@womenink.org

Review: The pack includes links to a number of resources outlining how to introduce a gender dimension to budget planning, implementation and monitoring. The pack also includes case studies in South Africa and Philippines of local gender budgeting.

Tool: Gender equality and the MDGs - webportal

Author: UN Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality, the OECD/DAC Network on Gender Equality, and the Multilateral Development Bank Working Group on Gender: United Nations Development Fund for Women

Date: Ongoing

Website: <http://www.mdgender.net/>

Contact: ContentManager@mdgender.net

Review: This web portal provides access to resources to promote better understanding of and sharing of tools for addressing gender equality in all of the Millennium Development Goals — from literature on gender equality as it relates to each goal, to tools for advocacy and action. The site includes: Books, Reports; Tools; Papers; Articles; Speeches, Talks

Tool: Rural households and resources: a SEAGA pocket guide for extension workers

Source: Socioeconomic And Gender Analysis Programme (SEAGA), UN Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO)

Author: SEAGA, FAO

Date: 2005

Website: <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/007/y5551e/y5551e00.pdf>

Contact: Tel: +39 06 57056751; Fax: +39 06 57052004 E-mail: SEAGA@fao.org

Review: This pocket guide aims to assist community-based workers to understand the management of resources within and between rural households. It has been developed to assist

people in applying a participatory and gender-responsive approach in their planning with and service to rural women and men. The guide promotes the SEAGA principles of giving priority to disadvantaged groups, focus on gender relations, and the use of participation and a holistic approach as essential in development work.

The guide highlights many of the major issues affecting rural households such as the key gender-linked constraints and opportunities to improving livelihoods. It provides ideas and tools for collecting, analysing and sharing information about constraints, opportunities and priorities faced by communities, households and individual household members. Tools include key questions and participatory approaches that can be used to assess and address gender-related factors in management of resources such as water, land, credit and savings, time and technology.

The SEAGA Toolbox provided in the document includes:

- Village resource map
- Resource matrix
- Economic and health ranking
- Activity matrix
- Problem analysis chart.

Youth

Tool: MDG Youth Website

Source: UN Millennium Campaign

Author: UN Millennium Campaign

Date: ongoing

Website: <http://cyberschoolbus.un.org/mdgs/index.asp>

Review: A website targeted at young people with case studies, statistics and resources to help them learn about the Millennium Development Goals and give some ideas about what they can do to help eliminate poverty around the world

Monitoring and assessment

Tool: MDG Indicators Database

Source: UN Statistics Division

Author: United Nations Secretariat, IMF, OECD and the World Bank

Date: April 2005

Website: http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mi/mi_goals.asp

Review: The database provides a framework of 8 goals, 18 targets and 48 indicators to measure progress towards the Millennium Development goals which were adopted by a consensus of experts from the United Nations Secretariat and IMF, OECD and the World Bank

Tool: Guidance Note: Monitoring and Evaluation

Source: BOND

Author: BOND

Date: 2005

Website: <http://www.bond.org.uk/pubs/guidance/4monitorandevaluate.pdf>

Contact:

Review: how to start planning a monitoring and evaluation programme for your organisation to make sure you are gathering the information you need from your work.

Tool: Guidance Note: Logical Framework Analysis

Source: BOND

Author: Laurence Taylor, Neil Thin and John Sartain

Date: 2003

Website: <http://www.bond.org.uk/pubs/guidance/logical-fa.pdf>

Contact:

Review: A guide to what Logical Frameworks are, how to use them, and why. Includes step-by-step instructions.

Tool: Revised Guidelines for Impact Assessment

Source: European Commission. SEC(2005) 791

Author: European Commission

Date: June 2005

Website:

http://europa.eu.int/comm/secretariat_general/impact/docs/SEC2005_791_IA%20guidelines-main.pdf

Review: The guidelines address the questions - Doing an IA involves answering a number of basic analytical questions: What is the nature, magnitude and evolution of the problem? What should be the objectives pursued by the local authority? What are the main policy options for reaching these objectives? What are the likely economic, social and environmental impacts of those options? What are the advantages and disadvantages of the main options? And, last but not least: How could future monitoring and evaluation be organised?

It outlines key analytical steps in impact assessment:

1. Identify the problem
2. Define the objectives
3. Develop main policy options
4. Analyse their impacts
5. Compare the options
6. Outline policy monitoring and evaluation
7. Stakeholder consultation & collection of expertise can run throughout the process.

Tool: Urban Governance Index

Source: Global Campaign on Urban Governance, UN-HABITAT

Author: UN-HABITAT

Date: 2005

Website: www.unhabitat.org/campaigns/governance/activities_6.asp

Contacts: Global Campaign on Urban Governance, UN-HABITAT, Nairobi, Kenya

Tel: (254-2) 623216, E-mail: governance@unhabitat.org

Review: The index is a set of indicators of good urban governance with two principle aims. First, it aims to help cities identify key urban governance issues and assess their progress towards the quality of city-life. Second, is to develop a global Good Urban Governance Index, drawing upon available urban indicators to assess the state of urban governance in the world.

Tool: Monitoring Country Progress Towards MDG7: Ensuring Environmental Sustainability

Source: UNDP Practice note

Author: UNDP

Date: 2005

Website: <http://www.undp.org/fssd/docs/monprogmdg7.doc>

Review: Focusing on monitoring national progress to environmental goals the paper provides a useful resource for environmental indicator development from: operation, monitoring, to reporting, as well as suggesting examples of indicators that might be appropriate to use. It breaks down indicators into those which assess:

- State of the environment
- Pressures and driving forces
- Responses to environmental issues

This is defined as the 'Pressure – state – response' model. A case study of Albania is highlighted where the country has sought to build up ownership of MDGs through working with local NGOs. They have facilitated dialogues to monitor progress on the MDGs, including assessing capacity to implement the MDGs. They have also sought to integrate the MDGs into national processes e.g. National Strategy for Socio-Economic Development.

Tool: UNEP Environmental Impact Assessment – Training Resource Manual, 2nd Edition

Source: UNEP Paris

Author: UNEP

Date: 2002

Website: http://www.unep.ch/etu/publications/EIAMan_2edition_toc.htm

Contact: Hard copy requests to: etb@unep.ch

Review: The manual includes the following elements:

Section A - The manual in perspective

Section B - Capacity building and the environment

Section C - Training needs analysis

Section D - Course design, delivery and evaluation

Section E - Training topics

- Topic 1 - Introduction and overview of EIA
- Topic 2 - Law, policy and institutional arrangements for EIA systems
- Topic 3 - Public involvement
- Topic 4 - Screening
- Topic 5 - Scoping
- Topic 6 - Impact analysis
- Topic 7 - Mitigation and impact management
- Topic 8 - Reporting
- Topic 9 - Review of EIA quality
- Topic 10 - Decision-making
- Topic 11 - Implementation and follow up
- Topic 12 - EIA project management
- Topic 13 - Social Impact Assessment
- Topic 14 - Strategic Environmental Assessment
- Topic 15 - Future directions

Tool: Guidance Notes on Increasing the Participation of the Poor in the Assessment of the Impact of Development Interventions

Source: DFID and Actionaid,

Author: Davies, R.

Date: 1997

Website: <http://www.mande.co.uk/docs/guidance.htm>

Contact: Antonella Mancini, at antonell@actionaid.org.uk, or Ros David at RDavid@actionaid.org.uk

Review: Produced for ActionAid and DFID in 1997. It summarises the result of a review of the findings produced by a joint research project by ActionAid and DFID: "Methods and Indicators for Measuring the Impact of Poverty Reduction Interventions" that took place between 1994 and early 1997. Report was the raw material for a sister publication titled "Participatory Impact Assessment: A Report on a DFID funded ActionAid Research Project on methods and indicators for measuring the impact of poverty reduction", by Goyder, Davies and Williamson. The notes outline:

- Objectives: Justifications for the involvement of primary stakeholders in impact assessment
- Identifying achievements: How efforts to do so can be assessed

- Methods: How it can be done

Environment

Tool: UN Habitat Localising Agenda 21 Programme's Environment Tools

Source: UN-HABITAT

Author: Sustainable Cities Programme, UN-HABITAT Environment Section

Date: 2004

Website: <http://www.unhabitat.org/programmes/agenda21/tools.asp>

Contact: The Programme Coordinator, Localising Agenda 21, UN-HABITAT

Tel: (254 20) 623228; Fax: (254 20) 623715; E-mail: jean-christophe.adrian@unhabitat.org

Review: This capacity-building programme started in 1995 as a response to Chapter 28 of Agenda 21 whereby local authorities are called upon to undertake consultative processes to develop and implement "Local Agendas 21" for and with their communities. The LA21 Programme offers multi-year support to local authorities and their partners to undertake such Local Agenda 21 processes. The programme aims to promote good urban governance by supporting the development and implementation of broad-based environmental action plans, focusing on context-specific aspects of municipal planning and management. The Programme also enhances the capability of local authorities to integrate these action plans into strategic urban development plans, stimulating inter-sectoral synergy. Through the implementation of the action plans tangible impact is achieved for low-income communities, leading to more sustainable urban development as a response to the challenge of the Millennium Development Goals.

For each town the programme strategy emphasises the need for a shared vision for the future development of the city. In parallel, urgent problems are addressed through action planning and environmental conflict resolution. A continuous broad-based consultative process underpins this process. Capacity-building efforts focus on setting priorities for action, targeted human resources development, institutional strengthening, development and adaptation of tools and instruments, encouraging partnerships, mobilisation of resources, and promoting exchange between cities facing similar problems. Countries supported are: Kenya, Senegal, Morocco, Vietnam, Brazil, Cuba and Peru. Country-specific projects can be seen online at:

<http://www.unhabitat.org/programmes/agenda21/projects.asp>

The Localising Agenda 21 Programme includes a range of tools prepared in the by the Sustainable Cities Programme:

Process tools

- Establishing and Supporting a Working Group Process (The SCP Source Book Series, Vol. 3, 1999)
- Formulating Issue Specific Strategies and Action Plans (The SCP Source Book Series, Vol. 4, 2000).
- Institutionalising the Environmental Planning and Management (EPM) Process (The SCP Source Book Series, Vol. 5, 1999).

Topic tools:

- Urban Air Quality Management - Handbook, (The SCP Source Book Series, Vol. 6, 2001)
- Building an Environmental Management and Information System (EMIS), (The SCP Source Book Series, Vol. 7, 2001)
- Measuring Progress in Environmental Planning and Management (The SCP Source Book Series, Vol. 9, 2002)

Tool: Agenda 21 – Methodological manual based on experiences from Slovakia.

Source: REC

Author: REC Slovakia

Date: August 2004

Website: http://www.tur.sk/aa/files/b6576ec93a6069f3d9c174fb09e14e08/LA21_angl.pdf

Contact:

Review: The manual provides a background to Local Agenda 21 in a European context. It outlines the role of 'major groups' or stakeholders and describes the procedural steps required to undertake an LA21 process. It also outlines how to manage and monitor the process, including indicator development.

Human settlements

Tool: The urban housing manual – making regulatory frameworks work for the poor

Source: Earthscan London

Author: G Payne M Majale

Date: 2004

Review: Conceptual and practical tool for those involved in regulation of housing and urban development in developing countries. The manual focuses on planning regulations, standards and administration in urban development. It recognises that many millions currently live in informal and even illegal settlements and encourages means to change regulatory frameworks to up-grade existing slum areas, as well as establish new ones that will assist the provision of access to more affordable housing. It does not call for reducing standards but rather to establish clear guidelines for what people are and are not able to do. To be enforced such rules or guidelines require local acceptance and legitimacy, this means making regulations more accessible and meaningful to the communities they are seeking to address.

The manual includes a CD-ROM with country case studies, plus papers on housing, infrastructure, property rights, finance and home-based economic activities.

Water and sanitation

Tool: Tool Box for Integrated Water Resources Management

Source: Global Water Partnership (GWP)

Author: Global Water Partnership (GWP)

Date: March 2003

Website: www.gwpforum.org/servlet/PSP?chStartupName=_water

Contact:

Review: The Global Water Partnership has undertaken a lot of work in the area of Integrated Water Resource Management. This resources outlines the outcomes of various discussions with governments and other stakeholders through which it has build up some core principles for water governance, providing a useful framework for managing water issues.

Finance

TOOL: GUIDANCE NOTE: PROJECT BUDGETING AND ACCOUNTING

Source: BOND

Author: John Cammack

Date: 2003

Website: <http://www.bond.org.uk/pubs/guidance/4budgaccount.pdf>

Contact:

Review: A simple guide to the process of budgeting. Explains what the jargon means and how to plan and monitor a budget. Also looks at how to make sense of an income & expenditure statement or budget vs. actual statement.

Tool: Implementation rules for fiscal decentralization

Source: UNDP Fiscal Decentralization workshop, NEPAL 2004.

Author: Roy Bhal

Date: 2001

Website: <http://isp-aysps.gsu.edu/training/nepal2004/bahl1999.pdf>

Contact: International Studies programme, Andrew young school of public policy, Georgia state university. ispaysps@gsu.edu tel: + 1 4040 651 1144

Review: This paper outlines broad guidelines establishing a financial decentralization strategy:

- Rule 1 – Fiscal decentralization should be viewed as a comprehensive system
- Rule 2 - Finance follows function
- Rule 3 - There must be a strong central ability to monitor and evaluate decentralization
- Rule 4 – One system does not fit the urban and rural sector
- Rule 5 – Significant local government taxation powers are required
- Rule 6 – Central government must keep to the same rules
- Rule 7 – Keep it simple
- Rule 8 - The intergovernmental system should match the objectives of decentralization reform
- Rule 9 – Fiscal decentralization should address all levels of government
- Rule 10 – Impose a hard budget constraint
- Rule 11 – Recognise that intergovernmental systems are always in transition and plan ahead
- Rule 12 – There must be a champion for fiscal decentralisation

Bhal, R. (2001) *Implementation rules for fiscal decentralization*. UNDP Fiscal Decentralization workshop, NEPAL 2004. <http://isp-aysps.gsu.edu/training/nepal2004/bahl1999.pdf>
Contact: International Studies programme, Andrew Young School of Public Policy, Georgia State University. ispaysps@gsu.edu tel: + 1 4040 651 1144

Blomquist, W.; Tonderski, A.; Dinar, A. (2005) *Institutional and policy analysis of river basin management: the Warta River Basin, Poland*. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper
http://econ.worldbank.org/files/41413_wps3528.pdf Contact: Kavita P. Watsa Email: kwatsa@worldbank.org;
Tel: + 202-458-8810

Blore, I., Devas, N., Slater, R. (2004) *Can local governments generate enough revenue to deliver services?* ID21 Urban poverty <http://www.id21.org/urban/u1nd1g1.html>
Contact: Nick Devas Tel: +44 (0) 121 4145036 Email: c.n.devas@bham.ac.uk

Callway, R. (2005) *Introduction – setting the scene*. Ch. 1 of 'Governance for Sustainable Development – A foundation for the future' (eds Ayre and Callway). Earthscan publications, London

Commission for Africa (2005) *Our Common Interest*. Report of the Commission for Africa.
<http://www.commissionforafrica.org/english/report/introduction.html>

Commonwealth Secretariat (2005) *Policy Coherence and Co-ordination for Water and Sanitation, and Human Settlements*. Commonwealth Consultative Group on Environment, Provisional Agenda Item 4 CCGE(05)2 New York, 19 April 2005
http://www.thecommonwealth.org/shared_asp_files/uploadedfiles/0DFB3646-1C4E-4BBF-A46B-C7107931DD06_CCGE_05_2-policycoherence.pdf

Chowdhury, T. (2004) *Helping to monitor and manage cities more effectively*. Habitat debate. Vol. 10 N. 1 March 2004. <http://www.unhabitat.org/programmes/guo> Contact: infohabitat@unhabitat.org Tel: + 254 020 621234

Coirolo, L., McLean, K., Mokoli, M., Ryan, A., Shah, P., and Williams, M (2001) *Community Based Rural Development - Reducing Rural Poverty from the Ground Up*. World Bank.
[http://lnweb18.worldbank.org/ESSD/ardext.nsf/11ByDocName/CommunityBasedRuralDevelopment/\\$FILE/cbrddraft.pdf](http://lnweb18.worldbank.org/ESSD/ardext.nsf/11ByDocName/CommunityBasedRuralDevelopment/$FILE/cbrddraft.pdf)

COMPASS (2002) *Community-based Natural Resource Management Best Practice and Model Sites in Malawi*. Community Partnerships for Sustainable Resource Management in Malawi (COMPASS)
<https://tamis.dai.com/compass.nsf/0/fe722e99a8d38a7342256c2b003dd419?OpenDocument>
Contact: Andrew Watson Tel/Fax: (265) 622-800 andrew_watson@dai.com

Davies, R. (1997) *Guidance Notes on Increasing the Participation of the Poor in the Assessment of the Impact of Development Interventions*. DFID and Actionaid <http://www.mande.co.uk/docs/guidance.htm>
Contact: Antonella Mancini, at antonell@actionaid.org.uk, or Ros David at RDavid@actionaid.org.uk

Department of the Interior and Local Government, Government of Philippines (2005) LGU guide on MDG localization. <http://www.lga.gov.ph/downloads/downloadables/MDG%20-%20LGU%20Guide-Main%20Document.pdf>

Devas, N. and Grant, U. (2003) *Decentralisation: do poor people benefit from local government expenditure decisions?* University of Birmingham publication summarised in 'ID21 Society and Economy'
<http://www.id21.org/society/s8and1g1.html>; contact: Nick Devas. Tel: +44 (0) 121 414 5038 Email: c.n.devas@bham.ac.uk

DFID (2001) *Meeting the challenge of poverty in urban areas*. UK Department for International Development (DFID) Target strategy paper. strategies for achieving the international development targets
www.dfid.gov.uk/pubs/files/tsurban.pdf Contact: email: enquiry@dfid.gov.uk; Tel: +44 1355 84 3132

DFID (2002) *Rural – urban linkages*. Paper 10. Policy planning and implementation. July 2002. UK Department for International Development. www.dfid.gov.uk

DFID (2003) City Community Challenge Fund Pilot Project. http://www.c3f.org.uk/pages/what_intro.htm

DPU (2002) *Capacity building for managing water and the environment in the Rio Grande*. Sustainable Urbanisation – bridging the green and brown agendas. Development Planning Unit (DPU) of University College London (UCL) produced in collaboration with UN Habitat and the UK Department for International Development, pp 222-223 Contact: Pascale Hofmann Email: p.hofmann@ucl.ac.uk Tel: +44 (20) 7679 1111

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www.worldbank.org/wbi/publicfinance/documents/PowerPoint.pdf

El-Ashry, M. (2002) *Financing Local Sustainable Development*. Global Environment Facility (GEF), ECLEI Speech by Mohamed T. El-Ashry, Chief Executive Officer and Chairman of GEF, August 29, 2002
http://www.gefweb.org/participants/Secretariat/CEO/Financing_Local_Sustainable_Development.pdf
Contact: Julie Ann Waller, Team Assistant +1 202 458 8863 secretariat@TheGEF.org

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