TOOLKIT FOR LOCALISING THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

A UNDP Capacity Development Resource

Capacity Development Group
Bureau for Development Policy
United Nations Development Programme

New York, Bratislava 2005

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This toolkit has been prepared jointly by United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and Local Government International Bureau (LGIB) within the context of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals World Summit held in New York on 14-16 September 2005. The toolkit is a part of a broader initiative aiming at mobilizing local capacity and unleashing opportunities for leaders to realize the MDGs at the local level. The UNDP Bureau for Development Policy/Capacity Development Group in partnership with Capacity 2015 for Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States and UNDP Bratislava Regional Centre has conceived and funded this project.

CONTENTS

Glossary

SECTION 1. INTRODUCTION

- FOREWORD 6
- AIM OF TOOLKIT 7
  - THE MILLENNIUM DECLARATION
  - WHAT ARE THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS?
  - WHY DOES THE LOCAL LEVEL MATTER?
  - THE LOCALISATION OF THE MDGS
  - WHO IS THE TOOLKIT FOR?
  - GEOGRAPHIC FOCUS OF THE TOOLKIT
  - ACHIEVING THE MDGS

SECTION 2: STEPS FOR STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT

- STRUCTURE 20
  - OBSTACLES TO LOCAL IMPLEMENTATION
- STEP 1 - ESTABLISHING CORE PRINCIPLES / AIMS 23
  - GOOD LOCAL GOVERNANCE
  - SUPPORTIVE FRAMEWORK AT REGIONAL (SUB-NATIONAL), NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL LEVELS
    i. REGIONAL (SUB-NATIONAL) COORDINATION – BALANCING RURAL AND URBAN NEEDS
    ii. NATIONAL FRAMEWORKS – SUPPORTING DECENTRALISATION
    iii. ENGAGING INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTIONS
- STEP 2 - PARTNER ENGAGEMENT AND AWARENESS-RAISING 37
  - WHY ARE PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES IMPORTANT?
  - WHO TO REACH AND HOW?
  - METHODS FOR EFFECTIVE PARTICIPATION
    i. MULTI-STAKEHOLDER PROCESSES
    ii. COMMUNITY-BASED METHODS
      1. GENDER EQUALITY
      2. INDIGENOUS PEOPLE
      3. YOUTH ENGAGEMENT
- STEP 3 - BASELINE ASSESSMENT 50
  - AIMS OF ASSESSMENT
  - POVERTY CHALLENGES
  - CAUSAL FACTORS
  - POSSIBLE POLICY OPTIONS
  - ASSESSMENT METHODOLOGIES
    i. DEFINITION OF INFORMATION
    ii. DATA COLLECTION

iii. ANALYSIS
iv. COMMUNICATION

- STEP 4 - ESTABLISHING PRIORITI ES 57
  - FOCUSING THE STRATEGY
  - REGIONAL AND NATIONAL PRIORITIES

- STEP 5 - DESIGNING AND IMPLEME NTING ACTION PLANS 60
  - ELEMENTS OF AN ACTION PLAN
    i. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES
    ii. OUTCOMES
    iii. KEY ACTIONS AND POLIC Y REQUIREMENTS
    iv. ASSIGNING ROLES AND R ESPONSIBILITIES
    v. TIMEFRAME
    vi. BUDGETING AND FINANCIAL FOREC ASTS
    vii. ACCESSING RESOURCES
    viii. MONITORING AND REVIEW
  - MOVING FROM PLANNING TO IMPLEMENTATION

- STEP 6 - MONITORING AND REVISI ON 73
  - INDICATORS
  - MONITORING APPROACHES

SECTION 3: USEFUL ORGANISATIONS 78

SECTION 4: TRAINING RESOURCES 81

SECTION 5: BIBLIOGRAPHY 93

GLOSSARY

C3	City Community Challenge programme
CBO	Community Based Organisation
CBRD	Community Based Rural Development
CEMR	Council of European Municipalities and Regions
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
CSC	Community Score Cards
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
DESA	United Nations Department for Social and Economic Affairs
ECA	UN Economic Commission for Africa
ECE	UN Economic Commission for Europe
ECLAC	UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
ECOSOC	United Nations Economic and Social Council
ESCAP	UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
ESCWA	UN Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia
EU	European Union
FAO	United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization
FLACMA	Federation for Latin American municipalities, Cities and Associations of local government
G8	Group of 8 (industrialized countries, including the Russian Federation)
GA	United Nations General Assembly
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GNP	gross national product
GUO	Global Urban Observatory
GWP	Global Water Partnership
HIPC	Highly Indebted Poor Countries initiative (World Bank)
HDR	Human Development Report
HPI	Human Poverty Index
ICLEI	International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IIED	International Institute for Environment and Development
IDT	International Development Targets
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IWRM	Integrated Water Resources Management
JPOI	Johannesburg Plan of Implementation
LA21	Local Agenda 21
LGIB	Local Government International Bureau
LUO	Local Urban Observatories
MDB	multilateral development bank
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MEA	Multilateral Environmental Agreement
MSD	multi-stakeholder dialogue
MSP	multi-stakeholder participation/process
NCSD	national committee (or council) for sustainable development
NEAP	national environmental action plan
NEHAP	national environmental health action plan
NEPAD	New Plan for African Development
NGO	non-governmental organization
NSDS	national strategies for sustainable development
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategies Paper
SID	Small Island Developing State
SMART	Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Relevant and Timebound

SME	small- and medium-sized enterprise
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
UCLG	United Cities and Local Governments
UCLGA	United Cities and Local Government Africa
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	Joint UN Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP	UN Development Programme
UNEP	UN Environment Programme
UN-Habitat	UN Human Settlements Programme (formerly UNCHS (Habitat))
UNHCHR	UN High Commissioner for Human Rights
UNICEF	UN International Children's Fund
UNIFEM	UN Development Fund for Women
UNITAR	UN Institute for Training and Research
UNU	UN University
UNV	United Nations Volunteers
TB	tuberculosis
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WTO	World Trade Organization

SECTION 1. INTRODUCTION

- FOREWORD
- AIM OF TOOLKIT
  - THE MILLENNIUM DECLARATION
  - WHAT ARE THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS?
  - WHY DOES THE LOCAL LE VEL MATTER?
  - THE LOCALISATION OF THE MDGS
  - WHO IS THE TOOLKIT FOR?
  - GEOGRAPHIC FOCUS OF THE TOOLKIT
  - ACHIEVING THE MDGS

FOREWORD

At the 2005 World Summit, Heads of State and Government reaffirmed their determination to ensure the timely and full realisation of the MDGs[1]. They placed strong emphasis on the importance of partnerships and capacity development as essential drivers of development effectiveness and cooperation in this process. These political commitments need to be translated into action and resources at country and local level, based on clearly articulated national development strategies and alignment of donor resources with these national priorities.

"Localising the MDGs" refers to the disaggregation of nationally adjusted global goals at the sub-national and local levels, combined with capacity development for strategic planning, implementation, and monitoring. The localization agenda helps countries combat poverty and social exclusion, enables full participation and open space for social mobilization and develops a greater capacity to deliver basic service to those most in need. The focus on the local level combined with appropriate linkages to national poverty reduction strategies supports bridging regional disparities, socio-economic, gender and ethnic inequalities and thus fosters more rapid, equitable and sustainable development. To be achieved the MDGs must reflect local realities, engage people and be locally owned.

The purpose of this toolkit is to develop capacities of local governments and their communities to ensure a strong MDGs focus in their local development strategies and effective and efficient conversion of public funds into public benefits. The toolkit draws on the ample evidence of creative local strategies for achieving the MDGs across the globe. The toolkit argues that the circumstances under which the MDGs must be implemented differ not only from region to region, and country to country, but also within each country. Therefore there can be no blueprint but rather a flexible approach that reflects local realities and goals and associated capacity development challenges. The toolkit does not provide a rigid set of rules, but rather aims at providing background context, general guidance on how to prepare MDG-based local development strategies, along with more practical advice and case studies of what works.

As a follow up to the 2005 World Summit, UNDP is aligning its resources to provide an Integrated Package of Services to support countries in developing capacities to attain the MDGs. Capacity 2015, as the local development arm of this package, provides a partner programme for scaling up and sustaining capacity development investments and results at the local and sub-national levels, with linkages to national policy and strategic frameworks. This toolkit is a tangible product of the work of Capacity 2015. We recommend this document to local governments and their communities in the hope that it will help foster concerted local action towards attainment of the MDGs.

Terence D. Jones
Director
Capacity Development Group
Bureau for Development Policy - UNDP

[1] Point 17, UN World Summit, Outcome Document

AIM OF TOOLKIT

This toolkit aims to help local governments and their communities get 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 describes 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 alleviation as a core aspect of the everyday work of local government - integral to the municipal development strategies, plans and policies of every town, district or city.

The Millennium Declaration

"*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.

What are the Millennium Goals?

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). Whilst the focus of this toolkit is the MDGs, the Millennium Declaration contains fundamental values which should also be striven for, including good governance and the protection and advancement of human rights, which – even though they are not explicitly included as separate goals within the MDG framework – underpin the MDG process. 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 equality and empower women	4. Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education 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

The MDGs represent a major step forward in global-level frameworks for action. They involve the specification of goals and more specific targets which are measurable and quantitative, rather than merely broad aspirations; they are time-bound; and they require commitments from both poor and rich countries, with the eighth and final goal of "developing a global partnership for development" focusing on the inter-relationship between them.

The MDGs do not exist in a conceptual vacuum. They need to be understood in relation to other frameworks, other UN conference outputs and other programmes.

In the first place, the MDGs have strong roots – even precursors – in the **International Development Targets** (IDTs) adopted in May 1996 by the OECD from resolutions passed at various UN conferences.

By comparison with the single, over-arching, but complex goal of "**sustainable development**", as developed at the UN Summit in Rio de Janiero in 1992 and further elaborated at the World Summit for Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in 2002, the MDGs have the advantage of being conceptually much more straightforward, measurable and practical. Poverty alleviation, generally regarded as the equivalent over-arching concept of the MDGs, is certainly much more readily understood than sustainable development.

The Rio Summit produced Agenda 21, a comprehensive programme of action for national governments based on the principles of sustainable development (economic development, social development and environmental protection.) As a comprehensive programme, it can be seen – in scope and significance – as the forerunner of the MDGs. It is now widely recognised that one of the great achievements of the Rio Summit and of the Agenda 21 process was **Local Agenda 21** (LA21), in effect the localisation of the Agenda 21 process.

Chapter 28 of Agenda 21 acknowledged and encouraged the role of local authorities around the world – as one of the nine 'major groups' identified by the UN at Rio – in setting up at local level, in conjunction with local groups and communities, a process to produce a comprehensive, strategic plan, based on the principles of sustainable development. In Europe alone over 6000 Local Agendas 21 were produced over the subsequent eight years or so. The localisation of the MDGs can gain enormously by paying close attention to the LA21 process in both method and outcomes.

The MDGs also need to be understood in relation to **Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers** (PRSPs.) Global MDG targets need an operational framework at the national level, involving a country-owned commitment to sustainable economic development and direct action to achieve the MDGs. PRSPs, produced jointly by individual governments, the World Bank, the IMF, UN agencies and other donors, provide the main strategic and implementation vehicle to deliver the MDGs in over 70 of the poorest countries. One of the key features of a PRSP is that it is country-specific and country-owned, and is rooted in the particular conditions of that country. This Toolkit will argue that, by extension, the development of the local strategies and actions to address the MDGs within a particular country must respond to the particularities and unique combinations of factors to be found in individual locales.

Capacity 2015 is an important programme which works through a series of partnerships in different regions to build capacities at a local level to realise the MDGs. It continues the work of Capacity 21 in helping realise the goals of Agenda 21 (and LA21), building on the lessons learned from the Capacity 21 Global Evaluation Report 1993 – 2001. Capacity 2015 recognises that one of the major obstacles to the successful localisation of MDGs is the lack of capacity in many local authorities in the developing world.

Box 1.1 - Localising Agenda 21 in Nakuru, Kenya

The Municipal Council of Nakuru and the Belgian Administration for Development Cooperation was supported by UN Habitat and other agencies to launch an initiative to adopt the Local Agenda 21. A Strategic Structure Planning (SSP) approach was used in the town to involve all local interest groups in making and planning policies on the urban structure based on sustainable development initiatives.

It began with a consultative workshop, which brought together representatives of the main stakeholders in the town, such as Community-Based Organisations (CBOs), Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), training institutions, councillors, government, private enterprises, donors and international agencies.

An urban profile was developed looking at the town's assets, problems and priority areas for intervention, such as space use near the bus station, improvement of wells around the town, environmental protection of green spaces, and rehabilitation of the council's rental housing block. The issues raised were then formulated into an 'Urban Pact', committing the various partners in implementing critical components of the SSP.

The Council's town planning unit manages the SSP approach while the central government and Leuven University in Belgium are providing training for local planners.

The benefits of this approach include investment in strategic projects identified through the SSP, cleaner neighbourhoods, interest in the environment and the ability of the main interest groups to communicate their ideas and cooperate with each other.

However, a challenge that needs to be resolved is the uncoordinated activities of the CBOs. Attempts have been made through the organising local committees to coordinate the various activities and information exchanges between the CBOs and the council.

The adoption of the Local Agenda 21 in Nakuru has demonstrated the linkages between urban and rural development coupled with the need for ecological protection of the natural environment.

Source: Development Planning Unit, University College of London (2001)

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 trends 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 strategies to practical action - has been much slower to get underway. The MDG Goal 8 and Johannesburg Plan of Implementation 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.

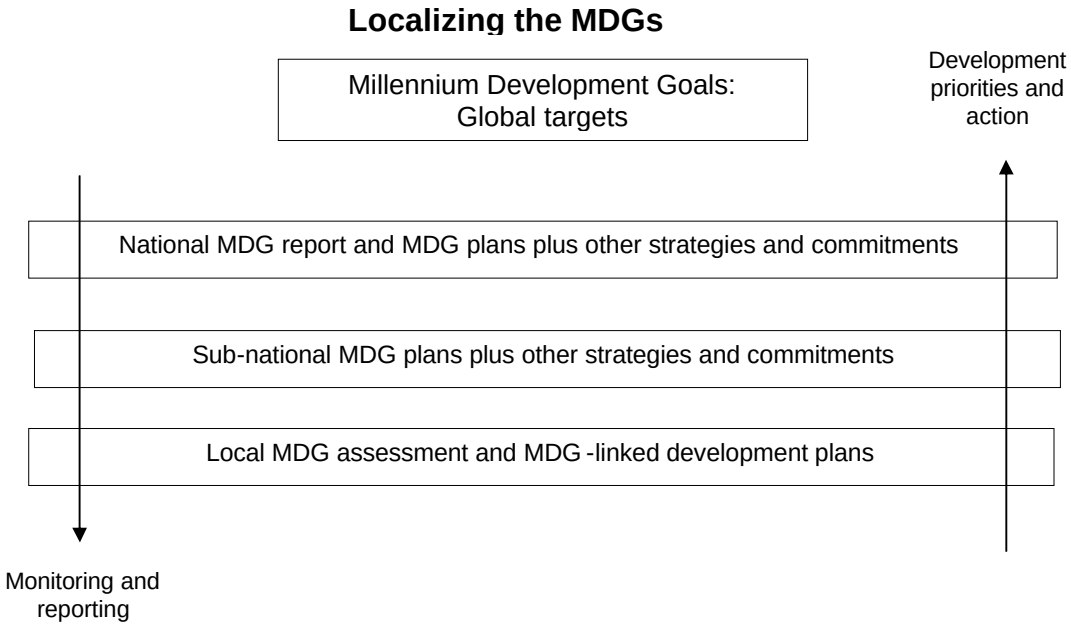
Care needs to be taken about statistics of the sort referred to by Kofi Annan. It is certainly the case that a significant proportion of the work which needs to be undertaken to meet the MDGs will be undertaken, at the local level, by local government, other agencies, communities and groups. The 70% estimate is often quoted in the European Union as the proportion of EU legislation which is delivered by local authorities across the countries of the Union. However it is difficult – if not impossible – to measure accurately the relative contribution of international, national and local actors when they are working collaboratively on a programme such as the MDGs. Even at a conceptual level, let alone at the level of detailed measurement, it is not easy to distinguish between the weight of input or impact of the different but complementary contributions of central and local government in respect of a joint programme which is conceived of and funded nationally but delivered locally.

The Localisation of the MDGs

"*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 a strategic and practical role to play. The poor face deprivations in a particular locality. Countries will not attain the MDGs without community action at the local level. As is so often said – it 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. But the flow of influence can often be in the other direction too. 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. This "two-way" flow and the hierarchy of MDG strategies can be shown in the following diagram:



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

It can be argued that this diagram, which presents the relationship between global, national and local levels of MDG targets and strategies as *hierarchical*, could more usefully be shown in *cyclical* form, with the different levels feeding into one another, with mutual influence and feedback loops. However, the existing diagram does show both top-down and bottom-up flows of influence, and it is important to recognise that *national* development strategies, *national* PRSPs, and *national* MDG strategies are generally regarded as having pre-eminent and overarching status, and that local plans and local MDG strategies and targets are expected to 'nest' within, and take very clear account of, the national-level action frameworks. Hence, a hierarchical model ('tiers' rather than 'spheres'), albeit with two-way flows of influence, is appropriate.

It is important to recognise that there is much scepticism in national government and donor agency cicles about the validity of the arguments favouring localisation of MDGs. The scepticism relates to issues of lack of appropriate capacity in local authorities; inadequate decentralised statistics and lack of consistency in data collection and base-lines; fragmentation of effort; and political differences between national government and local authorities. Some useful sources on challenges to localising the MDGs can be found in a number of IIED publications (http://www.iied.org/gov/mdgs/publications.html.) In Chapter 2 of the first book David Satterthwaite provides a valuable summary of the challenges involved in localising the MDGs.

What, then, are the arguments in favour of localisation of the MDGs? They include:

(i) the **subsidiarity** argument – this is a key concept which emphasises that there are legitmate differences in levels of government (or, to use the language of the South African constitution, 'spheres' of governance), and that issues should be dealt with by the level of government most appropriate to the nature of that issue. Specifically, subsidiarity suggests that implementation is more likely to be efficient at the local level because of local knowledge, sensitivity to specific local conditions, local engagement and participation.

(ii) The **inequality** argument – this points to the fact that national averages tend to mask significant local variations, with, in the most extreme cases, the national averages being misleading or even meaningless. Tackling the MDGs at a more local level reduces this danger and the engagement of local partners allows a more equitable response to MDG challenges, focusing in on the issues and priorities specific to a particular local area.

(iii) The **complementarity** argument – this argument rejects the dichotomy and confrontation of national *versus* local, and recognises the essential linkages between national and local (and, indeed, global-national-local, and vice versa). Like the subsidiarity argument, it is based on the principle of "horses for courses", with advantages and disadvantages attaching to each level.

(iv) The **thematic integration** argument – this crucially important argument recognises the ability of local government to take a holistic approach to MDG-related programmes which can be so easily become a separated into different "silos". A national perspective – often linked to the structure of national government administration – may encourage the separate treatment of MDGs into gender, education, maternal health, environment etc, ignoring the fact that in practice, poor people suffer multiple deprivation and are unlikely to know the difference between the first seven MDGs, as they are affected by all of them. A local – and specifically a local authority – perspective encourages a holistic and integrated approach, and a focus on the inter-relatedness of the different sources of disadvantage.

Who is the toolkit for?

Who is the audience for this toolkit? It is designed for politicians, planners and practitioners at the local level, particularly those working in local government. The title of the toolkit is "The Localisation of the MDGs", and the toolkit will address the full range of relevant organisations and actors at the local level, including civil society, Community Based Organisations (CBOs), NGOs etc and is aware of the contribution of citizen participation through volunteer engagement (which has been strongly recognised by the UN.) But the primary focus of the document is the contribution to be made by local authorities, albeit working in close conjunction with the other local actors. The degree of development of local government, in terms of both capacity and democracy, varies considerably from country to country, and in different areas within individual countries. It is, for example, often much more developed in urban areas.

Local can mean everything from a small province, region or county, to cities, towns and municipalities, to rural districts and villages. From this, it should be obvious that the toolkit has to reflect and respond to the needs of different sorts of people in a very wide range of communities, large and small, urban and rural.

Strategic planners and leading politicians in a large municipality might look to it for a broad overview with an emphasis on using it as a 'check-list' of key factors and issues to take into account. Practitioners working closely with local community groups might be looking for a more practical 'work-book', with simple aids and examples to assist a community participation exercise. The toolkit has to try to meet both sets of needs, and others, with the danger that it may not entirely satisfy any of its sub-audiences.

The toolkit should not be read as a rigid set of rules. Rather, it aims to provide some background context (e.g. the Millennium Declaration and the global-level MDGs, plus related action-frameworks), general guidance on the relationship between national strategies on MDGs and local work on MDGs and the links with other national strategies (e.g. PRSPs, sustainable development strategies, LA21s), and a lot of more practical advice and material (e.g. case studies) to help people at the local level address the relevance of MDGs for their own communities, including producing local strategies.

The toolkit is also aimed at national government and its agencies, NGOs, and international donors, because one of its functions is that of *advocacy*, to persuade these national and international actors of the vital importance of the local dimension to implementing the MDGs. However, the principal aim of the toolkit is not advocacy (except in the sense that it seeks to persuade local actors of the importance of engaging with MDGs) but of helping the *implementation* of a local MDG vision and strategy through practical advice and help.

In respect of advocacy, however, it is hoped that the toolkit will be useful to regional and provincial authorities, central government, as well as international donors and agencies, because it contains many examples of the vital need for cooperation, institutional support and a partnership approach across the difference 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 difference 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 Governments (UCLG), as well as national partners, such as local authority associations, 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 most of the concerted action needs to take place.

Human Development Reports (HDRs) have outlined high priority and priority countries for addressing the MDGs. Most of them are in sub-Saharan Africa, where it will be particularly important for countries to show clear political will to address the MDGs and to take responsibilities for their implementation.

The focus of this toolkit is, therefore, 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

Achieving the MDGs

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.

Why are the MDGs important? What progress is there on the MDGs? (ANNEX)

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 - Between 1990 and 2001 poverty rates fell in much of Asia and South America, were mainly static in North Africa and Western Asia, and increased in sub-Saharan Africa, South-Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union. In 1990 more than 1.2 billion people (28%) lived on less than US$1 a day; by 2001, the proportion of extremely poor people fell to 21%. 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. However, overcoming hunger is possible, as demonstrated by over 30 countries that have reduced hunger by at least a quarter in the last decade.

Goal 2. Achieve universal primary education – Basic education is a human right. It is also a fundamental tool in reducing extreme poverty and achieving the MDGs. Most regions are approaching universal enrolment but an estimated 115 million children are still out of school. More than half of these (65 million) are girls. In sub-Saharan Africa over one third of children are not enrolled in primary school, and 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 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. 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. Women continue to be less likely than men to learn to read and write. It is essential to recognise that female literacy is critical to the reduction of perinatal, maternal and infant mortality and morbidity, and to improving health, nutrition and education in future families.

The gender perspective which informs this Goal and Goal 2 should be regarded as a cross-cutting perspective, which is relevant to all of the Goals.

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 such as pneumonia or diarrhoea. Most of these lives could be saved by expanding existing programmes that promote simple, low-cost solutions. Five diseases account for half of all deaths of the under fives, with measles as the leading cause of death, despite a safe, effective and relatively inexpensive vaccine being available for the last 40 years. Again, sub-Saharan Africa has the lowest level of immunization, with more than a third of children unprotected.

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. 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. Women die in pregnancy and childbirth partly due to poverty and malnutrition, partly due to poor health systems, especially in rural areas.

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 lacks 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. Forests cover one third of the earth's surface and are one of the richest ecosystems. From 1990 to 2000 forests shrank by nearly one million square kilometres, an area the size of Venezuela, due to conversion into farmland, unsustainable logging and other uses.

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

SECTION 2: STEPS FOR STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT

- STRUCTURE
  - OBSTACLES TO LOCAL IMPLEMENTATION

- STEP 1 - ESTABLISHING CORE PRINCIPLES / AIMS
  - GOOD LOCAL GOVERNANCE
  - SUPPORTIVE FRAMEWORK AT REGIONAL (SUB-NATIONAL), NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL LEVELS
    i. REGIONAL (SUB-NATIONAL) COORDINATION – BALANCING RURAL AND URBAN NEEDS
    ii. NATIONAL FRAMEWORKS – SUPPORTING DECENTRALISATION
    iii. ENGAGING INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

- STEP 2 - PARTNER ENGAGEMENT AND AWARENESS-RAISING
  - WHY ARE PARTICIPATORY APPROACHES IMPORTANT?
  - WHO TO REACH AND HOW?
  - METHODS FOR EFFECTIVE PARTICIPATION
    i. MULTI-STAKEHOLDER PROCESSES
    ii. COMMUNITY-BASED METHODS
      1. GENDER EQUALITY
      2. INDIGENOUS PEOPLE
      3. YOUTH ENGAGEMENT

- STEP 3 - BASELINE ASSESSMENT
  - AIMS OF ASSESSMENT
  - POVERTY CHALLENGES
  - CAUSAL FACTORS
  - POSSIBLE POLICY OPTIONS
  - ASSESSMENT METHODOLOGIES
    i. DEFINITION OF INFORMATION
    ii. DATA COLLECTION
    iii. ANALYSIS
    iv. COMMUNICATION

- STEP 4 - ESTABLISHING PRIORITIES
  - FOCUSING THE STRATEGY
  - REGIONAL AND NATIONAL PRIORITIES

- STEP 5 - DESIGNING AND IMPLEMENTING ACTION PLANS
  - ELEMENTS OF AN ACTION PLAN
    i. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES
    ii. OUTCOMES
    iii. KEY ACTIONS AND POLICY REQUIREMENTS
    iv. ASSIGNING ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES
    v. TIMEFRAME
    vi. BUDGETING AND FINANCIAL FORECASTS
    vii. ACCESSING RESOURCES
    viii. MONITORING AND REVIEW
  - MOVING FROM PLANNING TO IMPLEMENTATION

- STEP 6 - MONITORING AND REVISI ON
  - INDICATORS
  - MONITORING APPROACHES

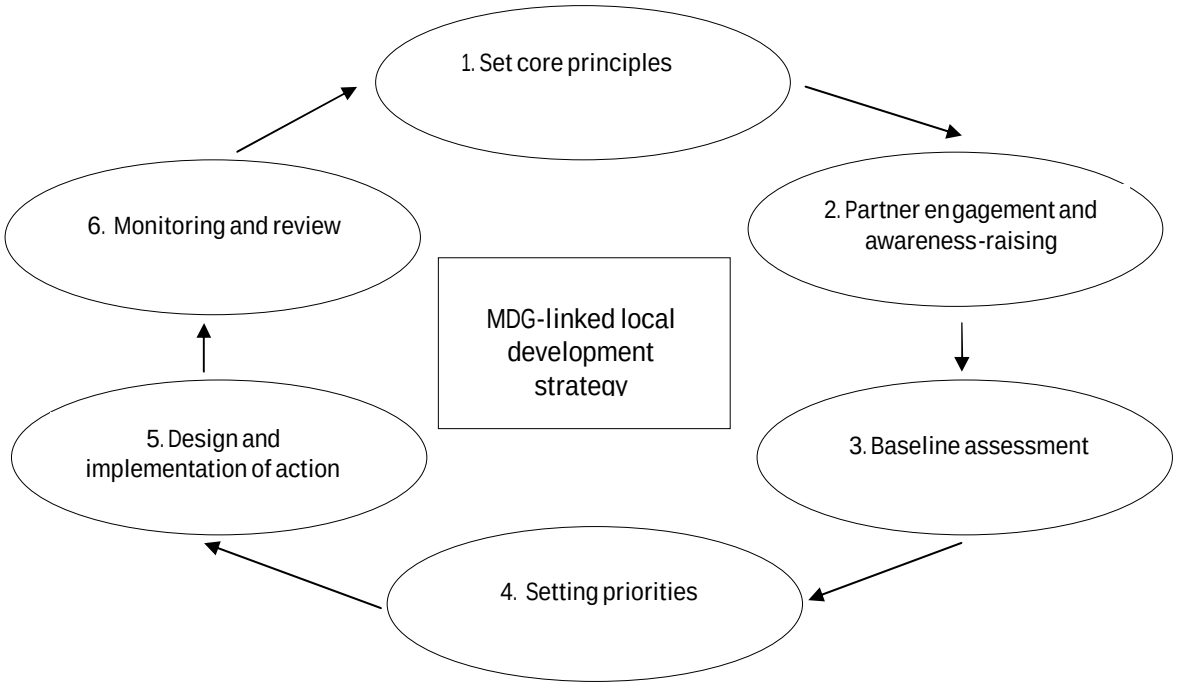
STRUCTURE

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 about how an MDG-linked local development strategy is formulated; 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 adjust the strategy to take account of changing circumstances.

Focusing on the MDGs should not require the development of a separate local strategy; 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 it 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
- Lack of participatory culture in many countries
- 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
- Lack of coordination among the various ministries with a local level remit
- Inconsistent support from international agencies and donors to promote local governance and local poverty reduction activities

The role of local government and other local actors

There is a key issue which needs to be addressed early on in this Section, which concerns the focus of the toolkit ("who is the toolkit for?") and issues surrounding the lead role and capacity of local government in the process of MDG localisation. This issue was touched on in the Introduction (see p. 9) when it was made clear that, whilst the title of the toolkit is "Localising the MDGs", and whilst it is acknowledged that localisation requires the collaborative participation of all actors at the local level, the primary, organising focus of the toolkit is the role which is to be played by local government/local authorities, particularly in respect of their needs-assessment and strategic planning functions (rather than their service delivery functions).

Throughout this Section, reference will be made primarily to the role of local government/local authorities, in relation to partner engagement, awareness raising, baseline assessment, priority setting, designing and implementing plans, etc.

It cannot be stressed too strongly, however, that the toolkit fully recognises that:

- however well-developed the system of local government may be in a particular area, and however strong the capacity of the local authority/authorities, localising the MDGs can only be achieved by local government working closely with national and provincial government in one direction, and with individual communities and groups within its boundaries in the other;
- in many developing countries, local government is only weakly developed, with poor capacity and excessive dependence on national or provincial government, particularly in respect of finance (such that it is sometimes little more than decentralised, *local administration*, rather than genuine *local government* with at least some degree of autonomy).

In the former situation of relatively well-developed local government, it is right to see the local authority exercising a '*community leadership'* role, responsible for needs-assessment and strategy formulation (albeit in conjunction with other local actors), and "orchestrating" the contribution of a wide range of other local organisations, groups and individuals.

In the latter, with relatively weak local government, these other organisations and groups, including domestic and external NGOs, may play a more significant role in the localisation process.

However, for the purposes of the toolkit, the main reference will be to local government/the local authority, as lead strategist and prime mover, even if, in reality, there are situations in which the lead role at local level is shared with, or largely taken by, other actors.

Some may argue that local authorities should not have lead responsibility for some or all of the elements of the localisation process (e.g. baseline assessment, target setting, prioritisation), in part because of the danger of the process of becoming – or being perceived to be – "political" (i.e. associated with one political party or local political group, such that the election of a different party may lead to a lack of commitment to, or outright rejection of, the MDG work of the previous 'administration').

The toolkit acknowledges such dangers, but believes that, whilst the development of democratic local government will necessarily involve issues of under-capacity and politicisation, the local authority should still be regarded as the natural lead agent in localisation, albeit with a clear responsibility to work in close cooperation with all other relevant actors.

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 government 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 the wider community (DFID 2001).

Good governance also calls for a thorough recognition and understanding of the ingenuity, solidarity and creativity of citizens at the local level to participate voluntarily in their own development, and for an acceptance of the need to factor this into projects and programmes. There is a wide range of actions that governments can take, at all levels, to strengthen the kinds of physical, human and regulatory infrastructure that contribute to promoting citizens' readiness and willingness to engage. (UNDP 2003, UNV 2005)

Core principles of good local governance[2] have been defined by various organisations, as well as mechanisms to help introduce them. One example is the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (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*". 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 a local authority, each local government department and division needs to be involved and engaged in the process, from 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 a 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

[2] 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).

but an 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;
- 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 alongside 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	• Undertaking consultations with stakeholders within communities to agree on a broad-based, long-term strategic vision for the city
	Stakeholder Involvement	• 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
Decentralisation	Local Autonomy	• 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	• 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	• 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

Table 2.1 UN Habitat's Principles of Good Urban Governance

Norms	Objectives	Operational Principles
Efficiency	Management & service delivery	• 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 transacti on 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 com plaint procedures • Undertaking transparent contracting and procurement systems
	Efficient investment in infrastructure	• 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
Transparency and Accountability	Transparent & accountable decision-making processes	• Using participatory plannin g 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	• Encouraging open, timely and free debate abou t 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 p rocedural 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	• 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 p rocesses for conflict mediation
	Building democratic culture	• Enabling legislative framework to protect the rights and entitlements of all groups in society • Ensuring women's participation
	Enablement	• Undertaking affirmative actions for marginalised group s • 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	• Implementing environmental planning and management methodologies based on stakeholder involvement
	Disaster preparedness	• Raising awareness about the risk of disasters and formulating vulnerability reduction and preparedness plans for natural an d human-made disasters

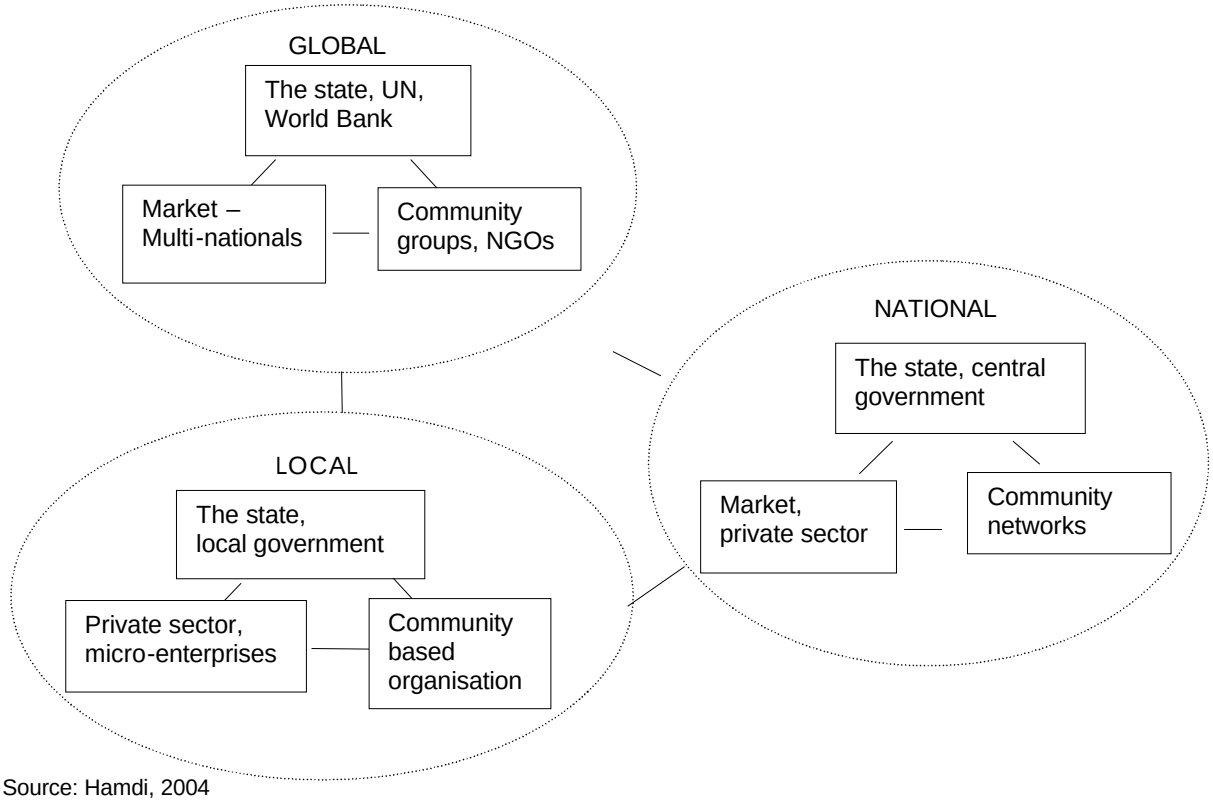
Table 2.1 UN Habitat's Principles of Good Urban Governance

Norms	Objectives	Operational Principles
	Personal safety, crime control & prevention	• 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).

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.

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 from land which is usually poor quality and dangerous 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

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 and urban areas. As Mrs. Anna 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.

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 ensure 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 form 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. India has shown that this approach, related to gender and low caste, can be successful. The government can also institute minimum standards (with the necessary resources attached), 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. 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 2.2 outlines some principal recommendations to central government to help promote effective decentralisation – decentralisation that targets the needs of the poorest in a sustainable way.

Table 2.2. Recommendations for 'effective' decentralisation

Aim	Recommendation
Good governance	• *Instituting the right values* – Core principles of effective decentralisation, such as good local governance, human rights, sustainability and pro-poor orientation, should be recognised and encouraged • *Enabling local government* – 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) • *Local to national links* – Involvement of the local level in regional and national processes, policies, strategies, reporting and planning is strongly advised
Engaging the poor	• *Involving the poor* – 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. • *Participatory approaches* – 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	• *Capacity development of local leadership* – 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 • *Political and governance skills* – enabling local officials and officers to be effective in sustainable governance and tackle locally relevant MDGs in the short to longer-term • *Technical practitioner support* – targeted capacity development is needed by key local practitioners e.g. planners, environmental health officers, sanitation and waste service providers, financial administrators • *Information for decision-making* – 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	• *Development of tools and mechanisms* – is urgently needed to increase financial investment in local infrastructure (water, sanitation, housing etc) • *Access to finance* – Mobilised access to finance locally and local revenue creation (e.g. capacity to raise taxes and fees) should be enabled and supported • *New mechanisms* – 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: a*dapted from UK Local Government Alliance for International Development 2004 and UNDP 2003*

The potential to co-ordinate policies at local level can be affected 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 Strategy Papers (PRSPs) 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 PRSP 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 experiences in Indonesia and Albania (see Box 2.2) highlight the fact that they have used decentralisation to 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)

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 go vernment become more responsive, participative, transparent and accountable to citizens' 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 governme nt 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 exer cise 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 c ommunities
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 commu nities 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 deli very

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 ad opting a more localised approach have included:

- Increasing regional awareness and mobilization around the MDGs
- Strengthening decentralized government capacity, including using regional training workshops
- Linking regional development plans to national pla ns, 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 dono r attention on local needs
- Strengthening civil society organisations

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 communicat ing the MDGs effectively, setting targets, facilitating discussions and seeking consensus. Local and regional consultation processes were conducted.

Sources: UNDP Indonesia 2002 and UNDP Albania

Financial Decentralisation

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 is not locally accountable (Blore, Devas and Slater 2004). Box 2.3 outlines some core principles that central governments will need to undertake to support financial decentralisation.

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; 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 in respect of the difference between 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 do not keep to the rules they have established – imposing unfunded expenditure mandates, under-fund programmes, reassigning expenditure without revenue; abolishing local taxes. Governments should need to match responsibilities with revenue generating opportunities.

Rule 7 – Keep it simple - Central government needs to ensure fiscal arrangements are not overly complex and do not 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 should carry 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 require 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 unplanned for 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, while 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 political champions who understand and promote the benefits and costs of introducing change. Donors, parliament, local authorities, and voters all have a role to play.

Source: Bhal 2001

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 county (DFID 2001 and UNDP 2005). 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 Governments (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 (International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives) - 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.

Box 2.4 is an example of how a local authority association (in Uganda) has worked with international organisations and donors to develop an effective poverty-alleviation programme which has local government as a major partner.

Box 2.4 Case Study- Engaging International Institutions - The Ugandan Experience

In Uganda, the Local Governments Association (ULGA) has striven to respond to the challenge of how local government fits in to the changing landscape of international development aid and its place in responding to the MDGs.

The City Community Challenge programme (C3) was created to step up local government's role in tackling poverty. It was conceived in acknowledgement of the need for direct assistance for local governance, to complement national budget support and aims to improve the livelihoods of the poorest urban groups whilst building the capacity of local authorities to recognise the rights of the poor and respond to community demand for development.

ULGA has been working with a range of national and international partners to put the challenge into action.

Funded principally by its international donors, the UK Government Department for International Development and later by UN Habitat, ULGA and the local governments they represent have used these international relationships to build the role of local authorities in alleviating poverty in Uganda. Their direct relationship with DFID and UN Habitat provides access to the wider donor coordination groups in Uganda and ULGA has used every opportunity to build relationships with them, striving to influence the involvement of local government in the development agenda.

Beyond its international donor relationships, ULGA looked to a UK partner- the Local Government International Bureau- to support the management of the programme and to promote the Ugandan C3 initiative on an international stage.

ULGA has found that their involvement with international donors and the LGIB had a multiplier effect on their linkages with wider partners both nationally and internationally. They found themselves better able to influence other key donors, businesses and international NGOs, helping to promote the role of local authorities in the delivery of their own poverty alleviation programmes in country.

C3 has proved itself an energetic catalyst in local development, acting as a magnet force to further resources. The programme has been key in focusing local authorities in Uganda on the needs of their poorest citizens and the partnership ethos has been effective in creating a dialogue with central government ministries, the private sector and NGOs. Resources have thus been levered in and coordinated for strategic poverty impact. The international element of this effort has been central and is a model that could be replicated in many countries and through many local authority associations.

Source: UGLA

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 on 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 make an important contribution to supporting 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.

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 improve 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).

Box 2.5 – The Millennium Villages: A new approach to fighting poverty in Africa

The Millennium Village approach draws upon the village-level components of the UN Millennium Project's bold science-based action plan to fight poverty. It aims to identify the practical ways in which impoverished villages in Africa and elsewhere can adapt and implement the interventions. The Millennium Village approach recognises the interdependence of the various Goals and stresses the need for simultaneous investments across agriculture, health, education, environment and infrastructure- all critical for success, and implemented in a time-bound manner with clear targets and goals.

In this way, the Millennium Village research project, carried out jointly with the Earth Institute at Columbia University with financial support from the Government of Japan, offers a model for fighting poverty at the village level. The research project identifies and tests the practical ways in which the international community's political commitment to ending poverty can be translated into community-level action in Africa.

Two villages, Sauri in Kenya and Koraro in Ethiopia, have already begun their Millennium Goal-focused programs and after only a few months of work, tremendous gains are already visible. In Sauri, Kenya, crop yields have quadrupled over the last seven months through the simple use of fertilisers, improved seeds and improved planting techniques. In Koraro, Ethiopia, for the first time, fruit trees are growing along side maize fields and enough bed-nets will be distributed to ensure that every child is protected from malarial mosquitoes at night.

Work in both Sauri and Koraro has shown that the people most in need are also the people who best know what it takes to win the fight against poverty. The underlying principle for each Millennium Village is that community empowerment, participation and leadership are key to designing and implementing the solutions that will end poverty even in the most remote places.

The Millennium Villages initiative can also be seen in Ondo and Kaduna State in Nigeria. Accordingly, UNDP will implement this project with the assistance of the Millennium Project and other UN and bilateral partners. Nationally, the Governments of Ondo and Kaduna have agreed to provide support along with the national government in the form of resources and local expertise to make this project a reality.

This initiative in Nigeria will focus on promoting human security by these villages to implement integrated rural development strategies as recommended by the UN Millennium Project to escape from the poverty trap. This initiative will aim to establish the rigorous evidence base for implementing an integrated package of recommended interventions, adapted by rural African communities, to achieve the MDGs. For UNDP, this project will serve as models that can assist in scaling-up and replicating efforts to achieve the MDGs in other villages in Nigeria.

Source: UN Millennium Project 2005 and comments from Dafina Gercheva

Box 2.6 - The Application of the MDG's Nationwide in Honduras

The project of promoting the MDG's in Honduras started in January 2003 through an agreement between UNDP and the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA). The main purpose of the project was to raise awareness of the MDGs and to formulate specific development targets by the citizens and other relevant actors in order to use them as an instrument to create and apply national policies to local and regional levels.

A specific objective was to support municipal technical teams, especially in the Department of Valle. The project focused on the elaboration of strategic development plans for future projects with a participatory approach.

The first step was to set up 18 workshops for 1336 participants. This was organised in the four departments of Honduras selected for the project: Copán, Lempira, Cortés and Valle. One important characteristic of the workshops was to ensure equal representation from the administrative, political, social and civil structures at local level.

The project developed two workshops. One focused on the promotion of the MDGs at national level and the other on the elaboration of municipal strategies based on the MDGs. The first step was to promote the MDGs in the four selected departments. Local development strategic plans and general methodologies were drawn up. The idea was to provide participants with relevant information on national development issues and on the MDGs. The process focused on gathering and simplifying information for local actors to understand the national plans. Information at the municipal level was seen as a very valuable contribution.

The working manuals prepared by the project teams guided through the goals, themes and targets, and supported the participants to propose local solutions to their local concerns. Likewise, the participants were able to learn the advantages of problem-solving by the community. Information on outcomes of these workshops has been systematised, and their results have been disseminated.

The facilitators and the coordinating team prepared workshop memorandums about all the activities. These have served as guidelines for the incorporation of development plans in different municipalities. The main aim is to use the memorandums as a national reference for the creation of municipal groups or associations that are interested in local sustainable development. The methodology used includes various actors: institutions, civil society, social organisations and communities.

Another project outcome was signature of the "Minimum Agreements", a document that examines the attainment of the MDG's at local level. It is a symbolic agreement to ensure participants make a personal commitment to develop their own communities.

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 government can be bureaucratic and expert-driven rather than accessible and collaborative. Criticism 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 needs of 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).

The mapping of potential civil society organisation (CSOs) partners is a valuable tool by which to identify other actors in the community who can engage in the MDG planning process at local level. These mappings also serve to identify the capacities, strengths and weaknesses of various CSOs. For instance, the development of CSO advisory committees at the local level to advise UNDP and local authorities on policy advocacy issues is helpful in identifying priority issues and mechanisms through which to address them. In the Strong Places programme in Sri Lanka they have established district level CSO committees to provide guidance in efforts to strengthen the capacity of CBOs in the post-Tsunami context.

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 improve 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 must not be under-estimated. 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 2.7) 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 that the poor can ensure that the plans they formulate are taken forward at a sufficient scale in order to benefit a city or local community as a whole (UN HABITAT 2005).

Box 2.7 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 fund. 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 help 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 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).

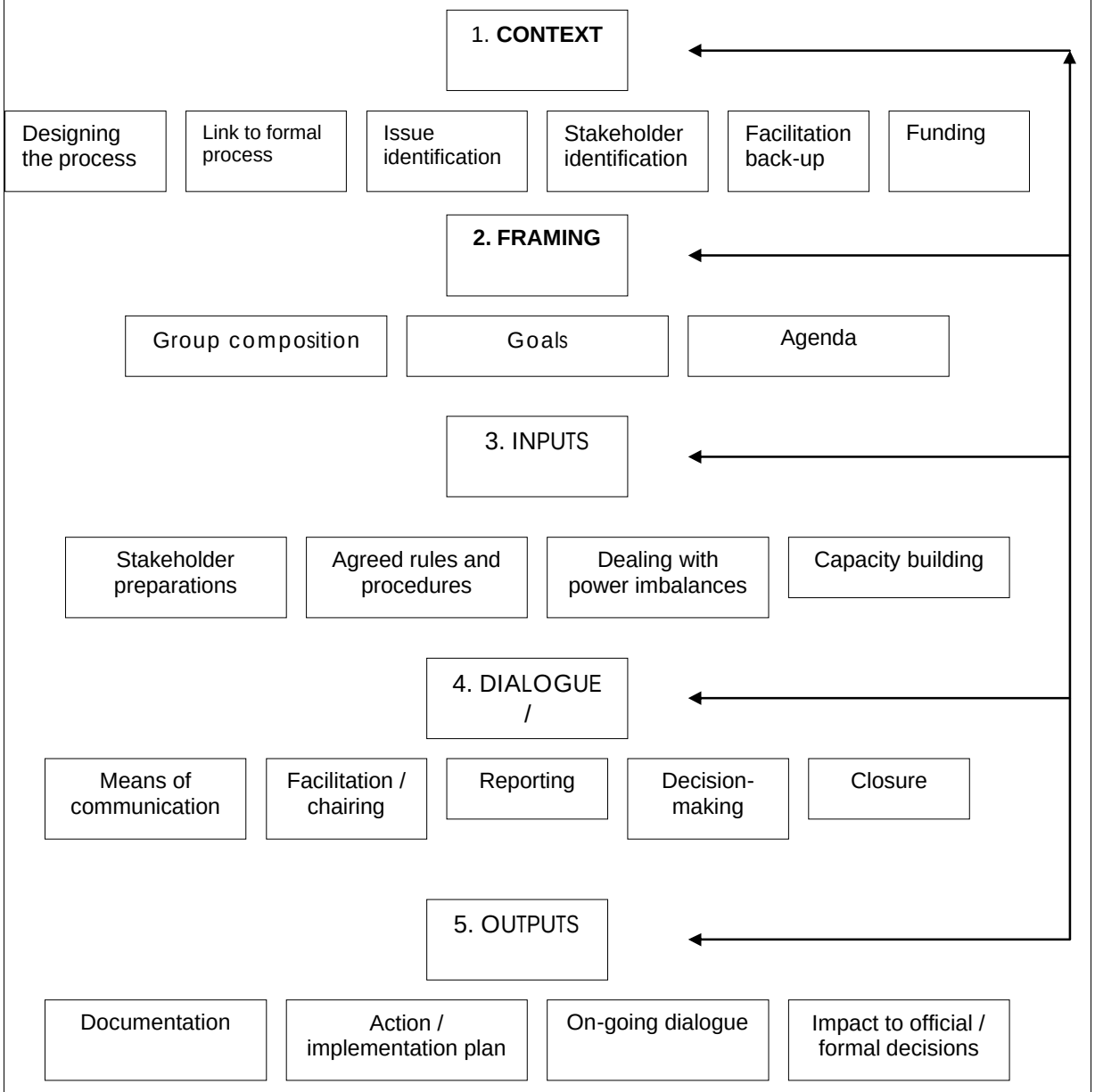
Methods for effective participation

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 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 the 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 2.8). 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 2.8 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; (iii) enforceable contract law; (iv) user and tenure rights over community and individual assets.
- **Pilots and study tours to build awareness and demonstrate effects** – Pilot studies 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.

Source: World Bank 2001

Gender equality

Local government needs to proactively ensure that 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, can be 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). An example of how gender equality was addressed in respect of financial decentralisation in Guatemala can be found in Box 2.9, below.

Box 2.9 Decentralisation with a Gender Perspective in Guatamala

The participation of women is an important issue under the new law of Decentralisation and State Reform in Guatemala brought into force in 2000. As a result, development councils have been established at municipality level to formalise women´s participation and to voice their demands and needs. The aim is to empower women and enhance their participation in public policies, especially in budgetary planning.

A systematisation process has been carried out in four departments providing useful insight into the impact of these decentralisation policies over the period 2000 - 2005. In the framework of a UNDP/Capacity 2015 project, documents have been produced explaining the link between women´s participation in the budget planning process and the new law in the development councils. Information was obtained from 15 municipalities. Civil society organisations and other public entities participated in selecting the criteria for the analysis. The main criteria were: distance of municipalities, government type, ethnic composition, public women administrations, good practices in municipal planning that have integrated women´s work and international cooperation support.

To become integrated in a formal way in budgetary planning has been crucial for women. In the department of Alta Verapaz, for instance, progress in women´s participation in budgetary planning is very developed. A planning manual and a regulatory and operations manual are available, and specific women´s commissions and women´s offices at municipal level are in place. In other departments social partnerships have been set up in charge of the distribution of public resources, as in the department of Sololá. There, by using the mechanism of the women´s commissions, women obtained funding for specific projects to improve their situation to be implemented during 2005.

In spite of the progress made, discriminatory practices prevail and permanent resistance to accept the participation of women at leadership level continues. Women´s participation is still restricted to the women´s commission, and does not entail their participation in other development commissions. The mayors who were consulted during the systematisation exercise expressed their commitment to enhance women´s development by establishing the commissions of women, children and family. This was a welcome step but insufficient to empower women in the decentralisation process.

Indigenous peoples and Minorities

Another key group that often faces the brunt of the effects 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. Particular attention needs to be paid to the issues of discrimination and territorial rights which substantially add to the multiple deprivations experienced by many indigenous peoples and other ethnic minorities. In such areas it will not be possible to meet the MDGs unless the issue of indigenous peoples is addressed seriously. In Kenya and Tanzania, the Maasai people, most of whom are pastoral, find poverty in their midst worsening as their traditional rights failed to be respected, with their grazing lands converted to agriculture. The case study below (Box 2.10) looks at efforts to support the 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 2.10 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 employment, 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 identify, 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 becomes effective organisers, managers, negotiators, decision-makers, fundraisers and advocates*."

Source: World Bank b. 2004 and A regional HDR on Roma in Central and Eastern Europe "Avoiding the Dependency Trap" (UNDP, RBEC 2002)

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 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 a UNDP Capacity 21 partner initiative. 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 do not 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).

Box 2.11 – Youth Engagement in Nigeria

Nigeria, the most populous country in Africa, is currently undertaking an interesting project related to the MDGs. The project deals with the MDG Awareness Campaign project. The project seeks to ensure that the youth are made fully aware of the goals and to secure their participation and ownership in Nigeria's development process. It was designed to lead up to the observance of the 60th Anniversary of the United Nations on UN Day on October 24, 2005. On this occasion, prizes were distributed to the successful winners of various MDG-related awareness competitions. The occasion also served to disseminate the views of youth on the MDGs.

The Awareness project consists of two components. Firstly, as part of the efforts in promoting awareness about the MDGs, the project recognises that the media as agenda-setters and as advocates play a very important role in generating public opinion and discussion on crucial development issues as embodied in the MDGs. Therefore, as part of the media campaign for the MDGs, the project seeks to organise an interactive session with editors and journalists to encourage MDG-based reporting. Secondly, the project has organized in collaboration with two Non-Governmental Organisations – Accord for Community Development and Action-Aid Nigeria a number of activities targeting the youth through this campaign. These include an essay competition for high school students on their understanding of the MDGs and their vision for Nigeria in 2015. An art/poster competition for out of school youth and an oral essay competition for grass-roots women, all on the MDGs, have also been organised. Lastly, the project is promoting an exhibit on the work of the UN over the past 60 years with support from the Nordics. This effort is aimed at educating the Nigerian public about the work of the UN and its role in promoting the MDGs. There have been a number of appearances on Nigerian radio and television to promote the MDGs.

STEP 3 - BASELINE ASSESSMENT

This section addresses:

- Aims of assessment
- Assessment methodology

Aims of assessment

A baseline assessment should seek to obtain an accurate pic ture 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 l ocal 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 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 highe r levels of government.

Some of the issues relating to the definition and measurement of poverty are covered in Box 2.12, below.

Causal factors can take two forms. *Direct factors* 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 o pportunities for pubic 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’.

Box 2.12 – The Meaning and Measurement of Poverty

The definition of poverty

Economic deprivation – more specifically, lack of income – is the starting point for most people's definition of poverty. But, as the definitions quoted in the section below shows clearly, poverty is a much more complex concept.

The Nobel Prize winning economist, Amartya Sen, has made an important connection between development and freedom, and has emphasised that poverty should be seen as the deprivation of basic capabilities and freedoms, and not just a lack of adequate income. Poverty involves lack of opportunities and lack of choice (UNDP Human Development Report 1998).

Here are two useful attempts at defining poverty:

- Fundamentally, poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and cloth a family, not having a school or clinic to go to, not having the land on which to grow one's food or a job to earn one's living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living on marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water and sanitation.
  Source: UN Economic and Social Council 1998

- Poverty has various manifestations, including lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments; and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterized by a lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social and cultural life. It occurs in all countries: as mass poverty in many developing countries, pockets of poverty amid wealth in developed countries, loss of livelihoods as a result of economic recession, sudden poverty as a result of disaster or conflict, the poverty of low-wage workers, and the utter destitution of people who fall outside family support systems, social institutions and safety nets. Women bear a disproportionate burden of poverty, and children growing up in poverty are often permanently disadvantaged. Older people, people with disabilities, indigenous people, refugees and internally displaced persons are also particularly vulnerable to poverty. Furthermore, poverty in its various forms represents a barrier to communication and access to services, as well as a major health risk, and people living in poverty are particularly vulnerable to the consequences of disasters and conflicts. Absolute poverty is a condition characterized by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but also on access to social services.
  Source: UN World Summit for Social Development – Programme of Action, Chapter 2

The measurement of poverty

The definition and measurement of poverty are very complex and controversial issues. Most people agree that money income, or consumption, is on its own an imperfect measure of human welfare, and the three definitions cited above show a very wide range of forms of deprivation and disadvantage which make up the concept of poverty.

An excellent summary of some of the issues concerning definition and measurement is provided by the Overseas Development Institute (ODI Briefing 3, February 1999: http://www.odi.org.uk/publications/briefing/pov3.html).

This briefing identifies nine "fault lines", or key issues which have to be addressed, in the poverty measurement debate:

- individual or household measures

- private consumption only or private consumption plus publicly provided goods (i.e. the 'social wage')
- monetary or monetary plus non-monetary components of poverty (the latter including, for example, ill-health, insecurity, lack of self-esteem)
- snapshot or timeline
- actual or potential poverty (latter linked to vulnerability to occasional lurches into poverty, perhaps because of drought)
- stock or flow measures (i.e. assets or income)
- input or output measures
- absolute or relative poverty (with the World Bank $US 1 per day measure being the best known measure of the former; the latter involves concepts and measures of "relative deprivation", more usually employed in richer countries, including simple measures of relative poverty such as "receiving less than half the mean income"
- objective or subjective perceptions of poverty

One ambitious poverty measure is the Human Poverty Index (HPI) produced by UNDP. The HPI-1 (for developing countries) measures deprivation using the same three aspects of human development as incorporated into UNDP's complementary Human Development Index (HDI). These are:

- longevity (life-expectancy)
- knowledge (literacy and schooling)
- decent standard of living (real GDP per capita)

For industrialised countries, the HPI-2 is used, which includes the additional dimension of social exclusion.

The deprivation measures which make up HPI-1 are as follows:

- longevity: the percentage of newborn babies not expected to survive to age 40
- knowledge: the percentage of adults who are illiterate
- decent standard of living: measured by 3 variables:
  - § percentage of people without access to safe water
  - § percentage of people without access to health services
  - § percentage of moderately and severely underweight children below the age of 5

The HPI is used to focus attention on the most deprived people in a country, not on average national achievement: high average income per person is no guarantee of a poverty-free country. To guide national planning for poverty alleviation, many national Human Development Reports (HDRs) now disaggregate the HPI by district, or language group, to identify the areas or social groups within the country most deprived in terms of human poverty.

Source: http://www.adb.org/statistics/poverty/H.asp

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 2.13).

Box 2.13 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	• 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	• Proportion of 6-12 year-old children who are not in elementary school
Goal 3: Promote gender equality	• 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	• Proportion of children under five years old who have died
Goal 5: Improve maternal health	• Proportion of women who have died due to pregnancy related causes
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other infectious diseases	• Proportion of households without access to safe water • Proportion of households without sanitary toilets
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability	• Proportion of households who are squatters • Proportion of households with makeshift housing
Goal 8: Global Partnership for development	• 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.

Whatever the source of data, it is important to stress the need to disaggregate the data as far as possible (e.g. by gender, and to district or village/community level). However, the difficulty of obtaining good quality disaggregated data at the local level should not be underestimated. It constitutes one of the major obstacles to the successful localisation of MDGs. In the absence of accurate disaggregated data, it may be necessary to develop imaginative proxy estimates.

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 otherwise never listen to each other
- 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 have 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 2.3 displays a general example of the kinds of key information that might be collected and analysed.

Table 2.3 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 un-employment	% 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 2.14).

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 2.14 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.

Source: Payne and Majale 2004

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. The process of building consensus around the MDG-based local priorities, and the action plans, should be seen as important as the outcome itself for success.

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 2.15) 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 2.15 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.

Source: DPU 2002

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 for 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.

Box 2.16 – National Environmental Action Plan – Support Programme (NEAP-SP) in Pakistan

The NEAP-SP is a five-year umbrella programme supported by the UNDP to undertake projects for improving environmental conditions, in the country. It provides a useful link between global, national and local sectors of governance, and more specifically, presents a direct linkage with the MDGs since the programme objectives are in line with the goals.

The development objective of NEAP-SP is environmental sustainability and poverty reduction in the context of economic growth. It works towards safeguarding public health, promoting sustainable livelihood, and enhancing the quality of life focusing on clean air, clean water, solid waste management and ecosystem management.

One of the major sub-programmes of NEAP-SP is to promote community and NGO-based initiatives developed in the form of innovative micro-level projects on environmental management geared towards localised poverty alleviation. Areas of focus include waste management, natural resources management, the development of 'green' enterprises, and the promotion of renewable energy technologies. It also aims to strengthening the capacities of NGOs and CBOs to implement micro projects at the local level. Grassroots initiatives will also strengthen the institutional and technical capacities of relevant governmental institutions for participating in the international forums and contribute to the implementation of the conventions on environmental sustainability.

Source: UNDP Pakistan and www.sustdev.org

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 2.17).

Box 2.17 Ideas for local action to achieve the MDGs from the Philippines

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
- Implement land tenure rights and provide sites for social housing

Source: Department of the Interior and Local Government, Government of Philippines, 2005

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 cooperation (intra and inter-municipal cooperation) and vertical cooperation (regional, national and global links) such as 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 2.18) (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 2.18 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 overseas 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 – chosen 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. A number of challenges have to be addressed, 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, following a change in government.

Source: Satterthwaite 2005

Another 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 off finance. 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 forefront 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 Environment 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 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 Fund 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 water and sanitation, education and 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 2.19).

Box 2.19 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 in presented in Box 2.20. 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, the next phase is to implement 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. The approach calls for working with the resources that are immediately available to 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 2.21 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 2.20 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 2.21 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*

Implementing the slum target 11

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.

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 – such as the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) - 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 to 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 must not 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 2.4 outlines what SMART indicators look 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 2.4 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 2.5.

Table 2.5 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, particularly those developed by women	Key indicator 17: informal employment

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 2.22) 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 2.22 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 nee ds 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 po licy 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 a t 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 prese nted 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 monitori ng
- 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 Banglade sh, 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 r equired 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 provi des 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, project s 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 2.23 outlines the main steps involved in a CSC.

Box 2.23 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:

Community Generated criteria	**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 rain 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

Source: Singh and Shah 2004

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

United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNCDF) contributes to the achievement of the MDGs in Least Developed Countries through a variety of innovative approaches in both local development and microfinance. www.uncdf.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

United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT) promotes socially and environmentally sustainable towns and cities with the goal of providing adequate shelter for all. www.unhabitat.org

United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) – provides financial and technical assistance to innovative programmes and strategies to foster women's empowerment and gender equality. www.unifem.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) 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

UN Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues (UNPFII) aims to promote and protect the rights of indigenous peoples worldwide. www.un.org/esa/socdev/unpfii

Indigenous Peoples' International Centre for Policy Research and Education (TEBTEBBA) is born out of the need for heightened advocacy to have the rights of indigenous peoples recognised, respected and protected worldwide. www.tebtebba.org

United Nations Volunteers (UNV) is a volunteer arm of the United Nations to serve as an operational partner in development cooperation at the request of UN member states. www.unv.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 programmes 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

United Cities and Local Governments (UCLG) - Bringing together mayors, local councillors and local government associations from around the world, UCLG is the principal 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 United Cities and Local Governments, Middle East and West Asia Section** (UCLG-MEWA) www.iula-emme.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 programmes. 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

General

Tool: UNDP Millennium Development Country Reports
Source: United Nations Development Group
Author: United Nations Country Teams (UNCT)
Date: 2001-2005
Website: www.undp.org/mdg/countryreports.html
Review: Provides country responses to the MDGs concerning major changes taking place "on the ground" across a wide range of issues.

Tool: Guide to Monitoring MDG Target 11
Source: UN-HABITAT
Author: Global Urban Observatory and UN-HABITAT
Date: 2003
Website: http://www.unhabitat.org/programmes/guo/documents/mdgtarget11.pdf
Contact: P.O. Box 30030, Nairobi, Kenya, Tel: +254 20 623 119, Email: guo@unhabitat.org
Review: Assists Member States to monitor and gradually attain the "Cities Without Slums" target, also known as Target 11.

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/dgdpnintra.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
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
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/
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 mobilising 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: Local Government Millennium Declaration
Source: UCLG
Author: UCLG

Date: June 2005
Website: www.cities-localgovernments.org/uclg/index.asp?pag=template.asp&L=EN&ID=211
Review: A declaration to demonstrate and promote the commitment of local governments and their citizens to achieving the Millennium Development Goals and Targets.

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
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

Tool: Urban Millennium Partnership: Localising MDGs
Source: UN-HABITAT
Author: UN-HABITAT, UNDP, UCLG
Website: http://www.unhabitat.org/programmes/ump/mdg.asp
Review: The publication is prepared in the context of understanding and implementing the MDGs at the local level in urban settlements.

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 68 7 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: Worldwide Declaration on Women in Local Government
Source: UCLG
Date: November 1998
Website: http://www.cities-localgovernment.org/uclg/index.asp?pag=template.asp&L=EN&ID=78
Contact: Yasna Uberoi or Mary Wong, Women, Ink Tel: +1 212 687 8633 e: wink@womenink.org
Review: forms the basis of UCLG's work to ensure the advancement of women and the mainstreaming of gender issues.

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: Gender Reponsive Budget Initiatives
Source: International Development Research Centre (IDRC), Canada
Author: UNIFEM, The Commonwealth Secretariat and the International Development Research Centre (IDRC), Canada
Website: www.gender.budgets.org/en/ev-66716-201-1-DO_TOPIC.html
Contact: 250 Albert Street, Ottowa, ON K1P 6M1, Canada, Tel: +1 613 236 6163, E-mail: info@idrc.ca
Review: Analyses national and/or local budgets from a gender perspective and applies this analysis to the formulation of gender responsive budgets.

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
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
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
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.

Tool: Global Urban Observatory Network (GUONet)
Source: UN-HABITAT
Author: Global Urban Observatory
Website: www.unhabitat.org/guonet
Contact: The Co-ordinator, Global Urban Observatory, Monitoring Systems Branch, UN-HABITAT, P.O. Box 30030 Nairobi, Kenya, Tel: +254 20 623 113, Email: gui@unhabitat.org

Review: A worldwide information and capacity-building network established by the United Nations Human Settlement Programme (UN-HABITAT) to help implement the *Habitat Agenda* at the national and local levels.

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.

Tool: Integrated Water Resources Management Plans (IWRM): Training Manual and Operational Guide
Source: Cap-Net
Author: Cap-Net, Global Water Partnership
Date: 2004
Website: http://www.cap-net.org/captrainingmaterialsearchdetail.php?TM_ID=67
Contact: Westvest 7, PO Box 3015, 2601 DA Delft, Netherlands, Tel: +31 15 215 1808, Email: info@cap-net.org
Review: Provides a 3-4 day course on how to achieve a water resources management plan that brings in the principles of IWRM. The manual has tools that make it a useful guide for the process of plan development. This is particularly useful for people in countries embarking on the development of a water resources management strategy or a water resources management plan.

Tool: Water Utility Partnership (WUP)
Source: WUP
Website: www.wupafrica.org
Contact: B.P. 3296, Dakar, Senegal, Tel: +221 842 65 84, Email: info@wupafrica.org
Review: A programme aimed to promote reform of the water and sanitation sectors through building partnership among African water and sanitation utilities and other key sector institutions, to create opportunities for sharing of experiences and capacity building.

Tool: Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Toolkit for Multisector Projects
Source: World Bank
Author:World Bank
Date: 3 October 2005
Website: www.worldbank.org/watsan/rwsstoolkit/index.htm
Review: The toolkit is built around the demand responsive approach, and developed for the wide range of practitioners working on WSS programmes. It lays out the key principles with methods and samples and is now being implemented globally.

Tool: Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion, Programming Guidance
Source: Water Supply and Sanitation Collaborative Council
Author: Water Supply and Sanitation Collaborative Council and World Health Organisation
Date: 2005
Website: www.wsscc.org/dataweb.cfm?code=586
Contact: Ms Cora Cipriano, Email: ciprianoc@who.int
Review: The publication is about developing a process whereby people (women, children and men) create and sustain a hygienic and healthy environment for themselves. It talks about

developing a programme for more effective investment in sanitation and hygiene promotion. It is not about developing projects and it does not give blue-print solution for project-level interventions. Rather it lays out a process for long-term change which may encompass institutional transformation of the policy and organisational arrangements for provision of goods and services.

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
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

Indigenous Peoples

Tool: UNDP and Indigenous Peoples
Source: UNDP
Website: www.undp.org/cso/ip.html
Review: UNDP engagement with indigenous peoples at the country level is extensive. Since the inauguration of the United Nations International Year of Indigenous People in 1993, many UNDP programmes at the local, national and regional levels have involved indigenous peoples' communities. These initiatives have focused on multiple issues ranging from poverty reduction, and environmental conservation to conflict prevention and peace-building, and cultural revitalization.

SECTION 5. BIBLIOGRAPHY

Administrative Committee on Coordination (1998) Press Release ECOSOC/5759 *Statement of Commitment for Action to Eradicate Poverty Adopted by Administrative Committee on Coordination* http://ceb.unsystem.org/documents/joint.statements/eco5759.pdf

Asian Development Bank (2005) *Information from Statistics, Human Development Index (HDI/UNDP),* UNDP and Human Development Report http://www.adb.org/Statistics/Poverty/H.asp

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

Biggs, Tom and Satterthwaite, David (2005) *How to Make Poverty History – the central role of local organisations in meeting the MDGs* , IIED

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) 1 21 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

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

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/tspurban.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 f or International Development, pp 222-223 Contact: Pascale Hofmann Email: p.hofmann@ucl.ac.uk Tel: +44 (20) 7679 1111

DPU (2001) *Implementing the Habitat Agenda, In Search of Urban Sustainability,* Localising Agenda 21 in Nakuru, Development Planning Unit (DPU) of University College London (UCL) produced in collaboration with UN Habitat and the UK Department for International Development, pp 136 -137 Contact: Rafael Tuts Email: raf.tuts@unchs.org Tel: +254 2 623 726

Ebel, R. (2001) *Decentralization: Intergovernmental Relations. Presentation for the Intergovernmental Fiscal Relations and Local Financial Management* . World Bank 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

Garau, P., Sclar, E., Carolini, G (2005) *A home in the city. Millennium Project Task Force on Improving the Lives of Slum Dwellers.* UN Millennium Project http://www.unmillenniumproject.org/documents/Slumdwellers - complete.pdf

Giguère, S. (2002) *Local governance and partnerships. A summary of findings of the OECD study on local partnerships.* Co-operative Action Programme on Local Economic and Employment Development (LEED), OECD. http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/51/42/19 62067.pdf

Hamdi, N. (2004) *Small Change – about the art and the limits of planning in cities.* Earthscan publications, London

Hemmati, M. & Stakeholder Forum (2001) *Multi-Stakeholder Processes for Governance and Sustainability - Beyond Deadlock and Conf lict.* Earthscan, London 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

IIED (2000) *Towards more pro-poor local governments in urban areas.* Environment and urbanisation Brief 1. Human Settlements, International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) April 2000. www.ingentaconnect.com/content/iied/eau/2000/00000012/00000001 Contact: Email: humans@iied.org; Tel: + 44 207 388 2117

IIED (2004) *Reshaping local democracy through participatory governance.* Environment and Ubanisation brief 9, International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) April 2004. www.iied.org/human/eandu/ Contact: Email: humans@iied.org Tel: + 44 20 7388 2117

IIED (2005) *How to meet the Millennium Development Goals.* Environment and Ubanisation Brief 11, International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED). April 2005 www.iied.org/human/eandu/ Contact: Email: humans@iied.org Tel: + 44 20 7388 2117

Kajumulo Tibaijuka, A (2004) *Cities- engines of rural development* Speech by the Under-Secretary General of the UN and Executive Director of UN-HABITAT on World Habitat Day, 4 October 2004. www.unhabitat.org/whd/2004/edspeech.asp

Kanyinda, A. (2004) *A new advisory group on Decentralisation.* Habitat debate. Vol. 10 N. 1 March 2004

Website: www.unhabitat.org Contact: infohabitat@unhabitat.org Tel: + 254 020 621234

Millennium Project (2005) *Improving the Lives of Slum Dwellers – a home in the city*. Millennium Project Task Force on Improving the Lives of Slum Dwellers. www.unmillenniumproject.org/reports/reports2.htm#12

Maathai, W. (2005) *The environment is central to fighting poverty in Africa* . Inter Press Service (IPS) Nairobi. Speech by Wangari Maathai, 2004 Nobel Peace Laureate, Kenya's Assistant Minister for Environment and Member of Parliament. http://www.other-net.info/index.php?p=1011

Mniwasa, E & Shauri, V. (2001) *Review of the Decentralization Process and its Impact on Environmental and Natural Resources Management in Tanzania* . Lawyers' Environmental Action Team (LEAT) http://www.leat.or.tz/publications/decentralization/index.php Contact:leat@mediapost.co.tz

Mody, J. (2004) Achieving accountability through decentralisation : Lessons for integrated river basin management. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper 3346, June 2004 http://wdsbeta.worldbank.org/servlet/WDSContentServer/IW3P/IB/2004/07/23/000112742_20040723110731/Rendered/PDF/wps3346.pdf

ODI (1999) Poverty Briefing *The Meaning and Measurement of Poverty* , Briefing 3, February http://www.odi.org.uk/publications/briefing/pov3.html

Regional Environmental Center (REC) for Central and Eastern Europe and Institute for Sustainable Communities (2000) *Guide to implementing Local Environmental Action Plans (LEAP) in Central and Eastern Europe.* www.rec.org/REC/Publications/LEAP_Guide/default.html Contact: REC head office, Hungary, Tel:+ (36-26) 504-000 Fax: + (36-26) 311-294

REC Slovakia (2004) *Agenda 21 – Methodological manual based on experiences from Slovakia.* August 2004 http://www.tur.sk/aa/files/b6576ec93a6069f3d9c174fb09e14e08/LA21_angl.pdf

Reeves, H. & Baden, S.(2000) *Gender and Development: Frequently Asked Questions.* Report No 57. BRIDGE (development - gender), Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex Prepared for the Department for International Development (DFID) for its gender mainstreaming intranet resource. http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports/R57%20faqw2web.doc

SIPA (2003) *Benchmarking Workshops: A Tool For Localizing the Millennium Development Goals* . A pilot project in Bulgaria and the Russian Federation by 'Segaar School for International and Public Affairs (SIPA) , Columbia University, New York, May 2003 http://www.cv.undp.org/Publications/OMD/ benchmarking_workshops.pdf

Sustainable Development International *National Environmental Action Plan – Support Program (NEAP-SP) Environmental Interventions for the New Millennium in Pakistan* http://www.google.co.uk/url?sa=U&start=4&q=http://www.sustdev.org/index.php%3Foption%3Dcom_docman%26task%3Ddoc_download%26gid%3D117&e=42

Turkey Local Agenda 21 Governance network (2005) *Local Agenda 21 Third Project Assessment* www.la21turkey.net/modules.php?name=Content&pa=showpage&pid=94

UK Commission for Africa (2005). *Our Common Interest*. pp144. http://www.commissionforafrica.org/english/report/introduction.html Contact: Public Enquiry Point Tel: +44 1355 84 3132 Fax: +44 (0) 1355 84 3632 Email: enquiry@dfid.gov.uk

UK Local Government Alliance for International Development (2004) *Decentralisation and poverty reduction: A contribution by the UK Local Government Alliance for International Development to the MDG Action Plan,* November 2004. http://www.lgib.gov.uk/lg-alliance/documents/LG_decentralisation_sub.pdf

UN Department of Social and Economics Affairs, Division for Sustainable Development (1993) *Agenda 21: Chapter 28, Local Authorities' Initiatives in Support of Agenda 21* , United Nations. http://www.un.org/esa/sustdev/documents/agenda21/english/agenda21chapter28. htm

UNDP (1998) *New Ways of Financing Poverty Reduction.* UNDP Workshop B. First Forum of the World Alliance of Cities Against Poverty Proceedings: 12-14 October 1998 Lyon, France. www.undp.org/hiv/mayors/worldalliance/part3_3_2.htm

UNDP (2001) *Progress toward fulfilling the MDGs in Central Europe: Initial findings.* Sub-regional Chapeaux to 'Making New Technologies Work for Human Development', Human Development Report 2001 .

UNDP (2002) *Policy process reform: Institutionalisation of consultations between government institutions and Non-government organisations in the CIS countries. Conditions, forms, practice* . Bratislava Regional Centre Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States. August 2002 europeandcis.undp.org/index.cfm?menu=p_book&BookID=58

UNDP (2003) *Decentralised Governance for Development: A combined practice note on decentralisation, local governance and urban / rural development .* UNDP Practice note www.undp.org/policy/docs/practicenotes/dgdpnintra.doc

UNDP (2004) *Decentralised Governance for Development.* UNDP Practice Note www.undp.org/policy/docs/practicenotes/dgdpnintra.doc

UNDP & UNEP (2004) *Decentralization: A Local Voice.* World Resources 2002 – 2004: Decisions for the Earth: Balance, voice, and power. United Nations Development Pro gram, United Nations Environmental Program. http://governance.wri.org/pubs_content_text.cfm?ContentID=1746

UNDP (2005) *Information from Capacity 2015, operationalising the MDGs* . http://www.capacity.undp.org/index.cfm?module=ActiveWeb&page=WebPage&s=hhhh

UNDP Indonesia (2002) *Introducing good local governance - The Indonesian Experience* . UNDP National Human Development Report 2001. UNDP Indonesia. www.undp.or.id/programme/governance/intro_glg.pdf.

UNDP Pakistan (2005) *Information from Environmental and Energy – NEAP Support Programme* http://www.un.org.pk/undp/energy/ongoing -proj.htm#ist

UN Habitat (2003) C*hapter 7. Governance for good water and Sanitation provision.* Water and Sanitation in the World Cities. Local Action for Global Goals Author: United N ations Human Settlements Programme, Earthscan publications. www.unhabitat.org

UN Habitat b. (2003) Partnership for Local Capacity Development - Building on the Experiences of City-to-City Cooperation. http://hq.unhabitat.org/register/item.asp?ID=1187 Cont act: UN Habitat, Tel: + (254 20) 623120; Email: infohabitat@unhabitat.org

UN Habitat (2004) *Urban Indicators Guidelines - Monitoring the Habitat Agenda and the Millennium Development Goals.* UN Habitat, August 2004 . www.unhabitat.org/programmes/guo/documen ts/urban_indicators_guidelines.pdf Contact: infohabitat@unhabitat.org Tel: + 254 020 621234

UN Habitat (2005) *Issue paper on Pro-poor governance for delivery of basic services.* Paper prepared for the capacity building workshop on access to services for al l through participation and accountability, 6th Global Forum on Reinventing Government – towards participatory and transparent governance, Seoul, Korea. May 2005

UNIFEM, UNDP, UNFPA, World Bank (2003) *Gender equality and the MDGs* Leaflet Website: http://www.mdgender.net C ontact: ContentManager@mdgender.net

UN Millennium Project (2005) *Information from The Millennium Villages, A New Approach to Fighting Poverty in Africa* http://www.unmillenniumproject.org/press/mvpfactsheet.htm

UN World Summit for Social Development – *Programme of Action, Chapter 2* (2000) United Nations http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/wssd/agreements/poach2.htm

van Klinken, R (2005) *Towards MDG localisation in Africa: options and experiences.* Regional SNV/UNDP/MDP conference for East and So uthern Africa, Kampala, 10-11 August 2005

Scott, W. (2004) *Tracking Human Development - The use of statistics in monitoring social conditions - With special reference to Central and Eastern Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia.* UNDP, Bratislava

http://europeandcis.undp.org/?menu=p_book&BookID=92 Contact: UNDP Europe and CIS. Tel: (421 –2) 593 37-111;

World Bank (2001) *Community Based Rural Development - Reducing Rural Poverty from the Ground Up.* Written by Coirolo, L., et al February 2001. http://lnweb18.worldbank.org/ESSD/ardext.nsf/11ByDocName/CommunityBasedRuralDevelopment/$FILE/cbrddraft.pdf

World Bank (2004) *Local Development Discussion Paper* . International Conference on Local Development, Washington DC, June 16-18, 2004. Human Development, Social Development, and Public Sector Management Networks, World Bank http://www1.worldbank.org/sp/ldconference/Materials/LDDPFinal.pdf

World Bank b. (2004) *Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania, and the Slovak Republic: Combating Socioeconomic Exclusion among Roma (Gypsies) in Central and Eastern Europe —The Pakiv European Roma Fund Initiative.* Scaling Up Poverty Reduction: A Global Learning Process, and Conference in Shanghai, May 25 - 27, 2004 www.worldbank.org/wbi/reducingpoverty/docs/newpdfs/case-summ-MultipleCountries-Roma.pdf

World Bank c. (2004) *Albania: Reforming Irrigation and Domestic Water Supply and Sanitation Services to Benefit the Poor.* Scaling Up Poverty Reduction: A Global Learning Process, and Conference in Shanghai, May 25-27, 2004 www.worldbank.org/wbi/reducingpoverty/docs/newpdfs/case-summ-Albania-Reforming.pdf

World Bank & UN Habitat (1999) *Cities Alliance for Cities Without Slums: Action Plan for Moving Slum Upgrading to Scale.* World Bank Group, Annual Meetings 1999, Special Summary Edition http://www.worldbank.org/html/fpd/urban/cws/am_ap_wo.pdf Contact:CitiesAlliance@worldbank.org

Witoelar, E. (2005) Local Government and the Millennium Development Goals. Presentation *by the* UN Special Ambassador for MDGs in Asia & the Pacific at the U *CLG Statutory Meetings, Beijing.* June 08 - 10, 2005; www.millenniumcampaign.org/atf/cf/%7BD15FF017-0467-419B-823E-D6659E0CCD39%7D/MDG.ppt Contact: Marina Ponti Email: marina.ponti@undp.org