<u>UNDP Regional Bureau for Europe & CIS</u>

A Practitioner's Guide to Area-Based Development Programming

Jan Harfst
janharfst@yahoo.com

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Abbreviations and Acronyms:

ABD	Area-Based Development
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ARRP	Afghanistan Rural Rehabilitation Programme
BCPR	Bureau for Crisis Prevention and Recovery (UNDP)
CARERE	Cambodia Area Rehabilitation and Regeneration Project
CDC	Community Development Centre
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CIDP	Crimea Integration and Development Programme
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
CO	Community Organisation
CRDP	Chernobyl Recovery and Development Programme
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
DEX	Direct Execution
ERDF	European Regional Development Fund
EU	European Union
FDP	Formerly Deported People
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GIS	Geographic Information System
GTZ	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (German Technical Cooperation Agency)
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IDC	Integration and Development Centre
IDP	Internally Displaced People
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
ISO	International Organisation for Standardisation
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MFI	Microfinance Institute
NEX	National Execution
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
OVOP	One Village One Project
PEACE	Poverty Eradication And Community Empowerment initiative
PRODERE	Development Programme for Displaced Persons, Refugees & Returnees in Central America
PROGRESS	Programme for Rehabilitation and Social Sustainability (Haiti)
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
RBEC	Regional Bureau for Europe and CIS (UNDP)
RRDP	Tajikistan Rehabilitation, Reconstruction and Development Programme
SAP	Stabilisation and Association Process
SDC	Swiss Development Cooperation Agency
Sida	Swedish International Development Agency
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
SRP/SRRP	Somalia Rehabilitation Programme / Somalia Rural Rehabilitation Programme
SRRP	Srebrenica Regional Recovery Programme
SURF	Sub-Regional Resource Facility (UNDP)
SUTRA	Sustainable Transfer to Return-related Authorities programme
TICA	Turkish International Cooperation Agency
UK	United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Northern Ireland)
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UNOCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance
UNOPS	United Nations Office for Project Services
UNV	United Nations Volunteers
US$	United States dollar

Contents:

Section 1   Introduction to Area-Based Development

This section starts with a short background on the emergence of the nation-state and the consequences this has had in terms of changing patterns and roles of regions, followed by a brief introduction on regional development programmes in the European Union. It will then move on to identifying and analysing the principal factors determining regional disparities and outlining the rationale for area-based development approaches. This enables us to provide a definition and a conceptual framework for area-based development in the subsequent chapter. It will then proceed with a description of the emergence of area-based development approaches and the role of UNDP in this process. The section closes with a brief discussion on area-based development as a UNDP "practice area".

The information and analyses provided in the first three chapters are particularly relevant to the Europe & CIS Region, but serve as introduction to the more generic subsequent chapters of this section.

Chapter 1.1   Emergence of the Nation-State and Changing Regional Patterns

The nation-state, in which a sovereign political entity coincides geographically with a cultural and/or ethnic entity, is a fairly recent phenomenon. Before the age of Enlightenment (and well after that) hereditary forms of government were the norm under which nations changed hands through conquest or marriage. There were also many tribal entities, linked through kinship that had no discernable features of statehood. Borders were vague and continuously shifting. What we would call a nation today often consisted of numerous hereditary structures, frequently waging war against each other and loosely held together by larger empires or kingdoms, which were often highly multi-ethnic and multi-cultural in nature, comprising more than one nation.

During the 18th century, growing nationalism gave rise to the idea that nations and states should coincide. The German and Italian unifications are clear examples of this. Other countries, such as France, became concerned with establishing the language and culture of the ruling elite as that of the country as a whole. The First World War heralded the end for the last remaining multi-cultural empires, at least in Europe, such as the Habsburg, Ottoman and Russian empire.[1] The First World War also meant the end of power for many hereditary dynasties, most of which got replaced by democratic governments or dictatorships. In particular the dictatorships were concerned with forging national identities within the framework of strong nation-states.[2]

Meanwhile, colonialism had led to the establishment of political entities and borders where they had never existed before or in entirely different forms. Thus, the big waves of decolonisation, particularly after the Second World War, created a multitude of new states

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[1] The United Kingdom is a possible exception, but the independence of Ireland (Republic) shows that even the UK was not immune to the rising influence of the nation-state. China, meanwhile, started disintegrating during the first decades of the twentieth century.

[2] Turkey under Mustapha Kemal is a clear case: while being Turkish was hardly relevant during the Ottoman Empire, it became the defining element of the new Republic. In the Soviet-Union, the Bolshevik Government felt the need to define "nationalities" and clearly delineated "republics" and "autonomous regions" for its many peoples.

that found themselves searching for national identities, with often painful and violent consequences. A somewhat similar process took place during and following the disintegration of the Soviet-Union, in particular in Central Asia and the Caucasus.

Yet, at the same time, the pure nation-state does not exist in practice. Practically every country has ethnic, cultural and/or linguistic minorities within its borders, many of which have ties with majority populations in neighbouring countries. In some countries, none of its nations has a clear majority. Also, there are nations that straddle several countries without having their own state. Finally, globalisation and the resulting migration patterns are increasingly turning fairly homogeneous countries into multi-cultural societies. Even in the former Yugoslavia, where disintegration was accompanied by ethnic cleansing on a massive scale, has the creation of pure nation-states largely failed. Thus, while nationalism has been successful in creating a multitude of countries based on the model of nation-states, ensuring self-determination of all nations (the ultimate consequence of the pure nation-state) has proven elusive.

Furthermore, the emergence of the nation-state has been accompanied by the establishment of well-demarcated national borders that no longer could be crossed without passports, visas and controls. By the end of the 19th century, passports were virtually unknown. Until that time, people could more or less travel where they pleased. Custom duties existed, but these were not limited to national borders. Often, duties needed to be paid upon entering a different province or city as well. Since the end of the 19th century therefore, national borders increasingly started creating barriers against the movement of people and goods. As a result, many regions within larger empires or regions belonging to different countries but bordering each other that used to have a lively trade suddenly found themselves cut off from each other. The function of regions slowly shifted towards serving the centre of the country they belonged to, rather than maintaining their own, relatively independent, economic system. As a result, some regions that were important centres of production and commerce in their own right found themselves increasingly in a remote and marginalised position.[3]

Chapter 1.2   Regional Development in the European Union

The European Union (EU) was established to eliminate war and pursue the well-being of all citizens through "ever closer integration". As of 1 January 2007, it unites 27 nation-states in a supra-national framework. One of its most remarkable achievements is that it has effectively supported its poorer members to create rapid economic growth and wealth, of which Ireland is perhaps the most spectacular case to date. It has also been able to entrench democratic systems and values in countries that suffered under totalitarian regimes until recently.[4]

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[3] A recent example of this is Batken Region in Kyrgyzstan. During the Soviet Union, Batken's economy was dependent on its relatively close location to Tashkent in Uzbekistan en the industrial centre of Khujand in Tajikistan. Since independence, the imposition of strict border controls, in particular between Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan, has severed most of these links. Batken quickly turned into a remote and depressed region of Kyrgystan, far away from the capital Bishkek.

[4] For this reason alone, the admission of the former communist Central and Eastern European countries was an unprecedented historical success. However, for "older" examples one should look at the truly amazing political transformations that have taken place in Spain, Portugal and Greece.

The EU has also been a pioneer in promoting structural support to disadvantaged and economically backward regions in member states through Regional Development Programmes funded through the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF). Its principal objective for the period 2000-2006 was to "promote economic and social cohesion within the European Union through the reduction of imbalances between regions and social groups" by co-financing (1) productive investment leading to the creation or maintenance of jobs, (2) infrastructure, and (3) local development initiatives and the business activities of small and medium-sized enterprises.

The European Regional Development Fund (2000-2006)

For the period 2000-2006, almost 2/3 of the structural funds (€135 million) were allocated to regions that fell under Objective 1 "Supporting development in the less prosperous regions". To be eligible, regions should have had a gross domestic product (GDP) of below 75% of the Community average, characterised by:

- *low level of investment;*
- *a higher than average unemployment rate;*
- *lack of services for businesses and individuals;*
- *poor basic infrastructure.*

Some fifty regions, home to 22% of the European population, were covered in the period 2000-06. The Structural Funds supported the takeoff of economic activities in these regions by providing them with the basic infrastructure they lack, whilst adapting and raising the level of trained human resources and encouraging investments in businesses.

A much smaller part of resources were allocated to regions that fell under Objective 2: "Revitalising areas facing structural difficulties". Though situated in regions whose development level was close to the Community average, such areas were faced with different types of socio-economic difficulties that are often the source of high unemployment. These include:

- *the evolution of industrial or service sectors;*
- *a decline in traditional activities in rural areas;*
- *a crisis situation in urban areas;*
- *difficulties affecting fisheries activity.*

Up to 80% of the EU territory was eligible for support under the ERDF between 2000-2006. For example, practically the entire territories of the new Central and Eastern European member states were eligible for support under Objective 1, as was the territory of the former German Democratic Republic. Greece and almost all of Portugal were also covered, as was most of Spain, Southern Italy and the northern parts of Sweden and Finland. Parts of Wales and Ireland were also included. Under Objective 2, the remainder of Spain, most of rural France, northern England, Southern Scotland and large parts of Finland, Italy, Austria and Sweden were covered. Even Germany, Denmark, Belgium, The Netherlands and Luxemburg have regions that were eligible for funds under Objective 2.[5]

The projects funded under the facility typically included a mix of integrated regional development programmes and individual priority projects. In addition to these structural funds,

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[5] Information presented here about the EU Regional Development Programmes has largely been taken from http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/ns_en.htm

the EU also operates a Solidarity Fund for member states and regions affected by major natural disasters.

EU regional development support for 2007-2013

For the period 2007-2013, regional development in the EU is guided by a revised regulation that came into force on 11 July 2006. Under this regulation, the ERDF, as well as the European Social Fund, the Cohesion Fund and other Community financial instruments, will contribute to the following three objectives:

- *The **Convergence** objective, aimed at speeding up the convergence of the least-developed member states and regions by improving conditions for growth and employment. About 82% of funds is earmarked for support under this objective, which will by and large cover the new Central and Eastern European member states, the eastern part of Germany, almost all of Portugal, Southern Spain and Southern Italy, large parts of Greece and some parts of Wales.*
- *The **Regional Competitiveness and Employment** objective, which, outside the least-developed regions, is aimed at strengthening regions' competitiveness and attractiveness as well as employment. About 16% of the funds are earmarked under this objective to which other parts of the Community can apply that are not eligible for support under the Convergence objective.*
- *The **European Territorial Cooperation** objective, aimed at strengthening cross-border, transnational and interregional cooperation. This will absorb about 2.5% of funds.*

The total amount in Structural Funds earmarked for 2007-2013 is €308 million (2004 prices). More information on the new regulation can be found at:
http://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/docoffic/official/regulation/newregl0713_en.htm

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Chapter 1.3   Factors Determining Regional Disparities

The Regional Development Programme is an important part of the EU's work. Yet at the same time, it is no panacea for ensuring that regional differences disappear. In fact, many regions that were in a disadvantaged position 40 or 50 years ago continue to be relatively poor today, including Southern Italy's "Mezzogiorno" and Spain's Andalucia, Britain's Wales and parts of Scotland, Belgium's Walloon Region and other. This is partly because in spite of massive support to these regions, other parts of the country have of course been growing and developing as well, sometimes at an even higher rate. So catching up can be very hard indeed. In relative terms, some of these regions may have ended up even poorer than before, even though poverty rates have fallen in absolute terms. This is because some regions are affected by structural problems that are very hard, sometimes even impossible, to solve:

Location, Climate, Demographics:

Location, for example, matters. Remote areas, far away from the main centres of politics, education and commerce, are generally more disadvantaged than regions that are closer to these centres. Having an inhospitable climate, a rugged terrain and lack of arable land can have negative effects as well. Low population density and lack of urban centres can create further disadvantages. Often, a combination of two or more of these factors can be found, resulting in a pattern of constant out-migration and brain-drain that further diminishes the prospects of such regions to catch up with the rest of the country.

Interestingly, these factors do not seem to necessarily impose impediments on the development of countries as a whole. Switzerland, mountainous and landlocked, was a dirt-poor country until well into the 19th century, one of its main export being mercenaries for the armies of Europe's kings. Since then it has evolved into one of the richest countries in the World. Iceland certainly has an inhospitable climate and terrain, yet its population is wealthy. Ireland has been one of the poorest countries of Europe until well into the 1980s, with truly massive rates of out-migration. Over the last 25 years it has emerged as one of the top performers of Europe, becoming one of its richest members in the process. Yet each of these countries has its regional disparities, which are proving much harder to overcome. It seems therefore that within countries, differences in poverty levels are much harder to overcome than between countries.

Poverty Traps:

Regional differences can also occur because of entirely man-made factors (although location is almost always a key factor). When one part of a country is booming, other parts tend to fall behind, unless they are able for specific reasons to reap benefits themselves, for example through the provision of raw materials. Otherwise, the young and brightest tend to go where the action is. Rural-urban migration has depopulated large parts of rural France, Spain and Britain, with some of the remoter areas even regaining a forest cover that had been lost for centuries. Land erosion, the sudden collapse of a monoculture or industrial restructuring has wreaked havoc on many regions as well.[6] Sometimes, such areas are able to reinvent themselves, for example as tourist attractions, but rarely do they attain the same level of relative wealth as before.

Natural and Man-Made Disasters:

Natural and man-made disasters can influence regional development patterns as well, although natural disasters, such as earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, floods, hurricanes, droughts, and even tsunamis tend to have relatively short-term effects, with areas able to recover quickly once the worst is over, in particular if the affected area is located in a wealthy and economically important part of the country. Man-made disasters tend to be more difficult to overcome. Land erosion is mostly irreversible. The areas most affected by the explosion and meltdown of the Chernobyl Nuclear Facility have still not recovered. Some people will argue that parts of Belgium and Northern France have never truly recovered from the onslaught during World War I, almost a century ago. However, in most cases, wars create temporary upheavals that can be highly destructive, but from which an area can recover relatively quickly. Nevertheless, a sudden influx of refugees from a neighbouring country or massive displacement because of civil war can be very disruptive, in particular in poorer countries.

Ethnic, Religious, Linguistic and Cultural Barriers:

Finally, some areas can be disadvantaged because of the prevalence of a particular ethnic, religious, linguistic or cultural group that finds itself marginalised or excluded from mainstream society. However, this can be very tricky to pin down. The Basque Country in Spain has been rocked by violence for decades. Yet it remains one of the wealthiest and most dynamic parts of Spain. Moreover, there is no evidence that its people are discriminated against in Spanish society. In many other instances, minorities live in parts of countries that are already relatively remote. In those cases, the local population may feel marginalised or

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[6] One of Europe's most depressed regions, the Borinage in Belgian Walloon, starts just south of Brussels.

excluded, but would the area have been substantially better off if it had been populated by the majority group? On the other hand, perhaps the minority group ended up in disadvantaged regions because they have been slowly but surely pushed out of wealthier areas by the majority population. The Rroma seem to be a clear example of that, as well as many aboriginal peoples around the globe.

In other cases, the population of a country may have divided themselves on ethnic, linguistic and/or religious lines in fairly clearly separated parts of the country. Just in Europe, Belgium, Northern Ireland, Cyprus and former Yugoslavia come to mind. In those cases, issues of relative advantage get overshadowed by ethnic, linguistic and religious issues and become fiendishly difficult to resolve. While some argue that economic development and welfare improvement is the key to solving such problems, this is too simplistic an answer in most cases.[7]

Urban Dimensions:

On a different scale, the urban landscape is rarely uniform. In every city there are rich and poor areas, as well as areas that are neither particularly rich nor poor. Differences between rich and poor tend to be much greater in cities than in rural areas and can be very extreme indeed (as anyone who has visited a major Latin-American city can attest). Due to its very dynamics, large cities evolve constantly and social mobility, even though sometimes thwarted by racial or class issues, is much higher than in rural areas. Yet, while individuals may go from rags to riches, neighbourhood patterns take much longer to change. With a few exceptions, poor neighbourhoods tend to remain poor while rich neighbourhoods tend to remain rich.

In a recent article in The Economist[8], a very detailed poverty map of London from the late 1800s was compared with recent data. Interestingly, many neighbourhoods that were poor or rich back then are still identifiable as such today. Even some streets that were identified in the mid-1800s as populated by particularly aggressive and anti-social people are now for example the turf of drug-dealers and –users. Even poor and run-down neighbourhoods that have seen a lot of urban renewal and a substantial influx of yuppies still show pockets of severe poverty and degradation.

One of the reasons for this phenomena would be that many people from poor neighbourhoods will move to better areas as soon as they can afford it. The people who replace them are again the poor. This definitely seems to be the case in neighbourhoods that are traditionally occupied by poor immigrants. Some neighbourhoods in London have completely changed their ethnic make-up several times over, but they still remain poor immigrant neighbourhoods. But non-immigrant poverty patterns also prove to be stickier than one might expect. As a result, certain parts of cities develop patterns of urban degradation, squalor, violence and crime that are extremely hard to tackle. Many city authorities have therefore concluded (and build up a wealth of experience) that, short of wholesale eradication (which only moves the problem elsewhere), a comprehensive, integrated development approach, covering the entire neighbourhood and inclusive of all its inhabitants, is the only way that stands a chance of success.

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[7] Both Canada and Belgium came very close to breaking up along linguistic lines in recent decades, even though the countries are among the richest in the World.
[8] http://www.economist.com/world/europe/displaystory.cfm?story_id=6888761

Chapter 1.4   Rationale for an Area-Based Development Approach

Specific Development Situations:

As we have seen, practically each country has certain areas that for varying reasons face a development situation that set it apart from other areas. Broadly, four types of development situations can be distinguished:

> ➢ *Poverty*, i.e. spatial poverty traps due to geographical isolation, climate, terrain, demography, agriculture or industrial restructuring, etc.;
> ➢ *Disasters*, i.e. natural, such as floods, hurricanes, tsunamis, earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, droughts, and man-made, such as nuclear disasters, land erosion, certain epidemics, etc.;
> ➢ *Conflicts*, i.e. civil wars, spillovers (refugees) from wars in neighbouring countries, terror campaigns, inter-ethnic tensions, etc.;
> ➢ *Exclusion*, i.e. groups/categories of people that feel or are marginalised and excluded from mainstream society, with the potential to escalate into violent conflict.

Often, more than one of the above-mentioned development situations occurs simultaneously. Poverty and marginalisation/exclusion often go together, which can lead to conflict. Also, once a situation of conflict emerges, there is the risk of conflict spilling over to neighbouring areas.

As a result of such specific development situations, national programmes and policies may have limited effect in these areas. Conflict, isolation and out-migration of the young and educated discourage investment, poverty depresses markets, low levels of tax income put a strain on social services, etc. In such cases, targeted actions are required, specifically designed for the affected area.

Particular Geographical Areas:

The level of what constitutes the area in question can of course vary wildly. It can be a large part of a country (i.e. the North, or the East), one or several specific regions or provinces, a border area, one or more districts or municipalities, all the way down to individual villages or neighbourhoods in cities. It can also be the entire country, but in that case designing and implementing effective national programmes and policies would be required and in theory no additional actions are required for specific areas within the country. The area can also go beyond a single country. Areas of several neighbouring countries bordering each other may find themselves in a similar development situation. In that case, involving all countries concerned in addressing the development situation may be required.

From the above it is clear that when considering an Area-Based Development intervention, the first steps should be to accurately define the specific development situation and the specific area affected by that situation. Once this has been done, one can start considering the various approaches that could be adopted to address the situation. A number of these will be presented below:

The Need for Area-Based Approaches:

There are situations when the problem is readily identifiable and can be addressed through one or a few specific actions. For example, if isolation is considered as the main problem, the construction of a highway, railway or airport may be all that is required. Also, if a particular area has a drinking water problem, the construction of adequate drinking water facilities may do the trick. If an area is affected by floods, temporary humanitarian assistance followed by

reconstruction may be the most adequate approach. If an area receives a sudden, temporary influx of refugees from a neighbouring country, providing adequate shelter, sanitation, humanitarian assistance and other forms of support may be required. If an area scores below average on education, a well-designed and comprehensive education programme may be appropriate. In all these cases, launching a project designed to address the priority issue may be all that is required and a sector- or target-group-approach may be adopted.

However, the real World is often more complex than that. Poor education may reflect an underlying poverty problem, which in turn provides municipalities with insufficient tax income to maintain education facilities and standards. Other social infrastructure and services may deteriorate as well. This poverty problem may have been caused by a host of interrelating factors, including relative isolation of the area, land erosion, lack of employment opportunities, linguistic barriers, etc. Brain-drain and the out-migration of workers may further exacerbate the problem. Investors shun the area and shops close down. People may feel marginalised and have lost their trust and confidence in the authorities. Crime and drugs abuse may rise. Interethnic tensions, a natural disaster or a sudden influx of refugees from abroad may provide ready triggers for violent conflict.

In such cases, adopting a sector-specific or target-group-specific approach may no longer be sufficient to address the situation. A more comprehensive and holistic approach would be required that seeks to address the root-causes of the problems facing the area, while at the same time trying to mitigate the undesired symptoms. Given the complexity that certain development situations can reach, distinctions between causes and effects can become blurred. What is required is an approach that intervenes in multiple sectors, i.e. economic, social, political, etc., and tries to mobilise as many stakeholders as possible. At the same time, interventions must take place at all levels. First and foremost at the local level, where causes and effects meet to create the development situation in practice, affecting the daily lives of people. Secondly at the level of policy and decision-making of the area (and sub-areas) and finally at national level. In short, a potentially successful approach must be comprehensive, inclusive, participatory, bottom-up and above-all flexible in order to be able to respond to changes in the area during the course of the intervention.

The main entry point for such programmes is the area of intervention. Within the area, all actors and factors need to be analysed and mobilised in order to achieve the desired outcomes. Hence the name Area-Based Development.

Area-Based versus Regional Development:

As said before, the area can be anything from a set of regions in a country down to individual villages or city neighbourhoods. Therefore, Area-Based Development should not be confused with Regional Development, which, by focusing on regions in a country (and not, for example on urban neighbourhoods) is more narrowly focused. Moreover, while Regional Development may adopt an ABD approach, it may also focus more narrowly on for example providing social or economic infrastructure, or a job creation programme. In isolation, these interventions should not be considered Area-Based, although they could well be part of it.

Chapter 1.5   Definition and Conceptual Framework of Area-Based Development

In summary, Area-Based Development can be defined as:

> *"Targeting specific geographical areas in a country, characterised by a particular complex development problem, through an integrated, inclusive, participatory and flexible approach"*.[9]

The following qualifications and features are meant to further enhance the definition as presented above:

- ➢ *"Area"* and *"Problem"* are linked in a sense that the problem to be addressed by the project or programme defines its geographical area of intervention and is therefore area-specific compared to the country at large.

- ➢ The *area of intervention* is typically smaller than the country itself. Cross-border programmes would still fit this definition, as it requires the recognition by two (or more) individual countries of an area-specific problem existing within its borders, even though the area spills over into neighbouring countries.

- ➢ The *problems to be addressed* through ABD, as we have seen, basically fall into four main categories:

  1) *Conflict-related* (i.e. related to pre- or post-conflict situations affecting a specific area of a country that require preventive development actions, post-war reconstruction, peace-building and reconciliation, reintegration of returning refugees, IDPs, former combatants, etc.).

  2) *Disaster-related* (i.e. natural and/or man-made that affect a specific area of a country, such as earthquakes, hurricanes, floods, drought, land erosion, nuclear disasters, etc.).

  3) *Poverty-related* (i.e. related to "spatial poverty traps" that have emerged as a result of geographical isolation, climate, terrain, demography, economic restructuring, etc.).

  4) *Exclusion-related* (i.e. related to groups/categories of people concentrated in a specific part of a country, such as regional ethnic minorities, that feel or are marginalised and excluded from participating in society).

- ➢ However, applying an ABD approach is only appropriate if the problem as defined can be realistically and effectively addressed at the *level of the area*. Problems that can be solved at the national level, for example through legislation, should be addressed at that level.

- ➢ ABD approaches are *"integrated"* in the sense that they address area-specific problems in a holistic manner that fully takes into account and takes advantage of the complex interplay between actors and factors in that area. Even though the problem can be sector-specific, addressing it through ABD requires an inter-sectoral or multi-sector approach.

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[9] This definition and the qualifications that follow have been taken from UNDP/RBEC Area-Based Development Practitioners Workshop, Crimea, Ukraine, 29-31 October 2003: Main Outcomes. The Workshop was attended by representatives from UNDP/RBEC, BCPR, Europe & CIS SURF and practitioners from seven countries in the Region (http://europeandcis.undp.org/index.cfm?menu=p_search\p_result\p_documents&DocumentID=4002)

➢ ABD approaches are ***"inclusive"*** in the sense that activities target "communities" rather than specific target groups within those communities, even though the target communities may have been selected because of the high prevalence of a particular disadvantaged group. However, by targeting entire communities, the ABD approach is non-discriminatory

➢ ABD approaches are ***"participatory"*** in the sense that successfully tackling the area specific problem requires the inclusion and participation of all stakeholders in the area in the process that leads to the resolution of the problem.

➢ In this respect, successful ABD programmes apply a ***bottom-up approach*** to development that through horizontal linkages (i.e. networking between peers and stakeholders at the same level) and vertical linkages (i.e. between different levels of planning and decision-making) feeds into ***policy and institutional reform*** at the national level, thereby linking micro-level with macro-level considerations.

➢ Finally, ABD Programmes must be ***"flexible"*** in the sense that they must be highly responsive to changes in the area that may affect the problem so that its interventions remain relevant. An example could be an ABD Programme designed to respond to a post-conflict situation that eventually transitions into an ABD Programme that mainly supports local governance and economic development in that area.

Although many of the above-mentioned characteristics of ABD are not exclusively applicable to or relevant for ABD, in their conjunction and interrelation they seem to define what is and what is not ABD quite accurately. By applying the above, it is clear that not every project that intervenes at local or "grassroots" level is ABD. This is the case, for example, with nation-wide local governance, decentralised planning or community development programmes whereby the problem to be addressed is not specific for a particular area, but applies to the country in general, even though the techniques and methodologies applied can be very similar to those in ABD programmes. In fact, such nation-wide programmes often evolve from earlier Area-Based Development programmes. In the same vein, piloting national programmes at local level should not be considered ABD, unless the national programme has been designed to address specific development problems that exist only in a limited number of areas.

From the above it becomes clear that there is not one model of Area-Based Development with a fixed set of principles and tools. Rather, it is an approach under which an area is the main entry point, instead of a sector or a target group. This means that once the area and its development situation are analysed, the right set of tools and methodologies can be defined to address the specific problems of the area. Often, these tools and methodologies will have been tried and tested in other programmes in the country or elsewhere. It is their simultaneous application in an integrated manner that is characteristic of an ABD Programme.

Chapter 1.6   UNDP and the Emergence of an Area-Based Development Approach

What we call Area-Based Development today came about gradually when it recognised that traditional approaches and programmes did not adequately respond to certain development situations. If we want to put a date, for UNDP at least, ABD seems to have started in serious with the UNOPS-executed PRODERE (Development Programme for Displaced Persons, Refugees and Returnees in Central America), which started in 1989 in six Central American Countries, four of which had just emerged from sometimes decades of violent civil war. It operated in 11 war-affected areas, mainly focusing on human rights, reintegration of returnees,

participatory development planning, restoring basic services and reactivating the local economy using a decentralised, integrated and bottom-up approach.

PRODERE, and similar programmes that followed, drew upon the experiences of a number of other development approaches that had previously emerged, depicted in the figure below:
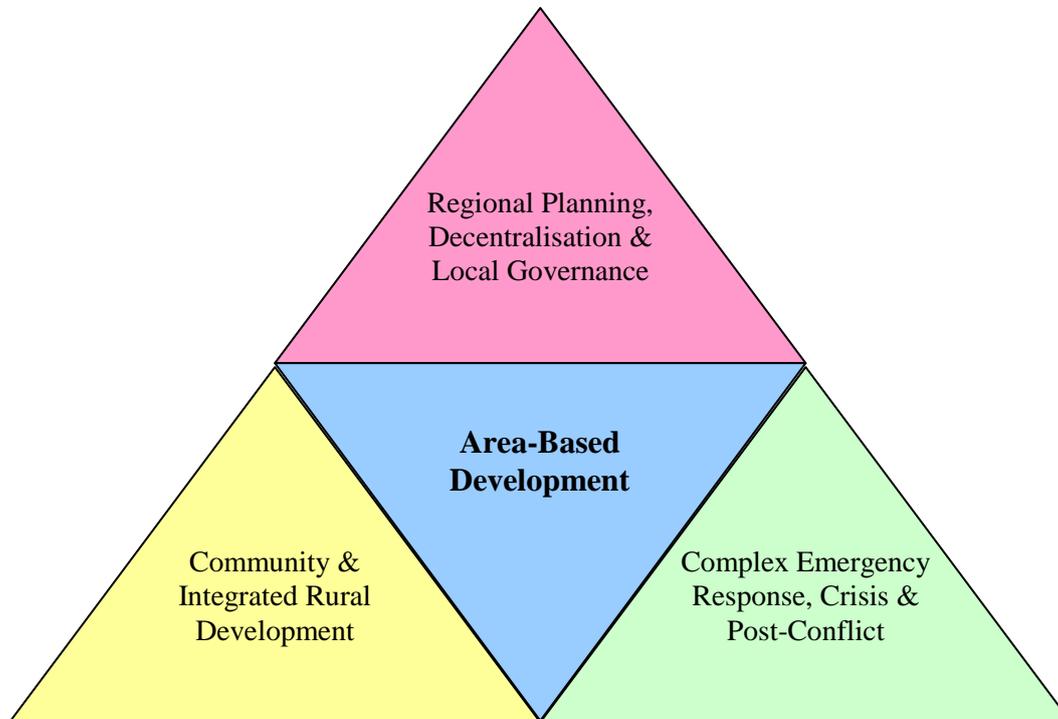
Integrated Rural Development:

Integrated Rural Development has been around since at least the early 1970s. Rather than strictly focusing on agricultural production, processing and marketing, it recognised that rural societies were more complex and dynamic, providing opportunities for non-farm and non-agricultural employment and income generation. Rural poverty alleviation required a more holistic and integrated approach, involving community participation, planning, natural resource management, credit, SME development, communal infrastructure, rural-urban linkages and a host of other activities that impact on rural economies.

Community Development:

Community Development emerged as a people's-based approach recognising that the mobilisation, activation and participation of communities, rather than individuals, are crucial for successful poverty alleviation. The creation and empowerment of Community-Based Organisation and Civil Society Organisation using Social Mobilisation techniques is seen as essential in ensuring bottom-up, consensus-based planning and decision-making resulting in support for and ownership of the development process by the beneficiaries, both in rural and in urban contexts. Apart from participating in the implementation of local development initiatives, communities are encouraged to contribute with their own resources, thereby sharing risk and becoming active stakeholders in the development process.

Regional Planning, Decentralisation and Local Governance:

Regional Planning, Decentralisation and Local Governance became increasingly important as centralised and top-down systems of planning, budgeting, implementation and administration were seen to fail to combat poverty effectively. Moreover, in particular since the 1990s, transparency, accountability, law & justice, human rights and empowering civil society and women are considered essential elements for democratisation and building effective partnerships between local authorities and citizens for development. Indeed, some donors have adopted good governance as a main pre-condition for providing assistance, while others see the promotion of good governance as one of their main tasks.

Complex Emergency and Post-Conflict Response:

The end of the cold war signalled a much more active role for the UN and other international organisations in peace-building and peace-keeping around the globe. At the same time, a shift took place from humanitarian assistance and disaster relief to responding to complex emergencies in a more sustainable manner. Post-war reconstruction, reintegration of returnees and former combatants, rehabilitation of war-affected communities, restoring local economies, but also conflict prevention and mitigation, became important topics. Conflict- and disaster-related Early Warning Systems were developed. All this called for much more comprehensive and complex programmes than before, often involving a multitude of humanitarian, peace-keeping and development organisations, donors and local stakeholders.

It is not surprising, therefore, that ABD seems to have taken off mostly in post-conflict environments, where the sheer complexities of the challenges called for comprehensive, integrated multi-agency, multi-sector and multi-level responses and above-all flexibility to adequately respond to sometimes rapidly changing conditions. Against such backgrounds, the before-mentioned PRODERE programme in Central America was established, soon followed by CARERE in Cambodia, SRP/SRRP in Somalia, PROGRESS in Haiti, PEACE/ARRP in Afghanistan, RRDP in Tajikistan and a host of programmes in the republics of former Yugoslavia, to name but a few. During the 1990s, these programmes were typically executed by UNOPS, but over the past five years, UNDP has preferred the DEX or NEX modality for such programmes, often using UNOPS, but also BCPR and UNHCR as cooperating agencies and/or working directly with local implementing partners, such as NGOs.

However, ABD has not been confined to post-conflict environments. To give a few examples from RBEC, CIDP in Crimea, Ukraine, was established as a conflict prevention programme, while CRDP focused on areas in Ukraine affected by the Chernobyl disaster. The Enhancement of Living Standards Programme in Uzbekistan focuses on poverty alleviation in two particularly poor regions of the country while the Municipal Governance and Sustainable Development Programme in Ukraine applies ABD approaches in urban settings.

Annex 1 provides an overview of recent, ongoing and pipeline UNDP ABD programmes in Europe & CIS broken down by specific development situations and components.

Chapter 1.7   Area-Based Development as a UNDP "Practice Area"

The problem with trying to prepare guidelines for ABD is that such programmes come in so many different shapes and sizes, drawing, as we have seen, on a multitude of development "traditions" and practices to create an intervention that is as specific as possible for the area

concerned. As a result, many will argue that ABD should not be regarded as a "practice area" in the same way as, for example, "environment" or "governance", but rather an approach or methodology or a "way of organising projects" that can be applied to these practices and give these a "local" dimension. However, this would be similar to arguing that for example Human Geography is not a scientific discipline in its own right. Human Geography seeks to explain human (i.e. social, economic, political, cultural) patterns in space. While analysing spatial dimensions is certainly relevant for and practiced by economists, historians, political scientists, sociologists and anthropologists, there are a large number of subjects that cannot be adequately explained by any of these disciplines in isolation.

Migration is a good example. Few will argue that migration can be fully explained by economic factors alone. While the push-factor that make people migrate may be in many cases to look for opportunities to generate higher income and a better life for themselves and their families, the choice of destination is hardly ever economically the most efficient. The presence of relatives or people from the same village, region or ethnic group play important roles in choosing the destination. Historical migration patterns or perceptions of a particular place being affluent can also play a role, as can distance. The presence of particular migrant communities clustering in particular cities or areas cannot be fully explained by economic factors alone. Migration can take place in several stages. Analysing individual migration chains of people can reveal highly complex patterns and reasons as to why people ended up where they are. Therefore, using the spatial pattern of migration as the entry point for a, necessarily, multi-disciplinary analysis can be effective in accurately revealing the complexities involved. The same applies to, for example, explaining patterns of human settlement, land use, urbanisation, industrialisation, poverty, etc.

It is therefore not coincidental that Human Geographers immediately grasp the concept, potential relevance and usefulness of ABD. They see a spatial pattern of unusual poverty, conflict, etc., and will try to explain that pattern and its causes and effects from all possible, multi-disciplinary, angles before determining the best possible course of action. The same applies to ABD: the area and its specific set of problems and patterns constitute the main entry point, rather than a specific problem or sector. In this respect there are good reasons for considering ABD as a UNDP "Practice Area" in its own right.

Section 2   Area-Based Development Programming

This section consists of two main parts. The first chapter presents the various stages and steps involved in selecting, defining and arranging for the implementation of an ABD Programme. The second chapter provides an overview of the main components and interventions that are commonly found in ABD Programmes, in particular in Europe and CIS.

Chapter 2.1   A Step-by-Step Approach to ABD Programming

In formulating and setting up an ABD Programme, a number of programming actions will have to take place, which for ease of reference have been organised in stages and steps as follows:

- ➤ Stage 1: When to opt for an area-based development intervention?
- ➤ Stage 2: Defining the area-based development intervention
  - Step 1: Defining the target area
  - Step 2: Assessing the development situation
  - Step 3: Defining the main outcome, objectives and outputs
- ➤ Stage 3: Implementation & management arrangements
  - Step 1: Implementation strategy
  - Step 2: Programme positioning and management arrangements
  - Step 3: Selecting the counterpart institution(s)

The various stages and steps presented in this chapter should of course not be seen as strictly sequential. A decision to opt for an ABD intervention may well depends on the detailed assessment of the development situation. Similarly, the development situation may determine the precise definition of the target area, etc. There are also a number of more administrative actions that need to be taken, such as organising formulation missions, appraisal and approval, recruitment and procurement, etc., but as these are part of the normal project management cycle these are not included in detail in this document.

Stage I: When to Opt for an Area-Based Development Intervention?

The first stage in setting up an ABD intervention is to determine if an ABD approach is likely to be the most appropriate one to address the problem. There are basically three main approaches for setting-up a development intervention, the selection of which depends on the objectives and scope of the planned intervention. These are:

- Sector-Based Approach
- Target Group-Based Approach
- Area-Based Approach

A *sector-based approach* seeks to impact on poverty and other development challenges by focusing on improving capacities within a particular sector, such as Education or Health or Private Sector Development. Sector-Based programmes can be conducted nation-wide or in specific areas of a country. It can operate both at policy and grassroots level. However, the capacities to be developed are limited to a specific, identifiable, sector. Some sectors can of

course be very broad and encompass multiple sub-sectors with social, economic and political dimensions.

A *target group-based approach* aims at improving living conditions, living standards and/or the relative position in society of a specific set of people in a country (or an area). These can be for example youth or women or disabled or returning refugees. Such programmes seek to provide benefits directly to the defined target group. While targeting specific groups can be necessary and useful in immediate relief operations, for example for determining beneficiaries of food aid or emergency assistance, and in programmes dealing with demobilisation of former combatants, providing shelter for refugees, etc., most development programmes nowadays prefer interventions that target the environment and community in which the specific group is situated and with which it interacts, as emancipation depends not only on increasing the capacity of the specific group, but also on changing attitudes of and being accepted by the others.

An *area-based approach*, as we have seen, seeks to address a specific, complex development situation in a particular area that sets it apart from other areas in the country. ABD programmes therefore typically intervene in multiple sectors and at multiple levels and involving multiple segments of society in an integrated manner. Its activities, however, are mainly confined to and targeting a specific geographical area.

Overlapping Approaches:

In practice, there are of course plenty of programmes in which the three approaches overlap: A programme that aims at reducing the spread of HIV/AIDS can be as much about health as about targeting specific groups, such as intravenous drugs users, prostitutes and truck drivers. Access to education for blind children is as much about education as about blind children. Similarly, ABD programmes are seldom in a position to address all sectors and reach out to all segments of society. Within the area-based approach it will need to prioritise those sectors and groups where intervention is most likely to contribute to addressing the area-specific development situation.

Millennium Development Goals and Area-Based Development:

Since the adoption of the Millennium Development Goals, many countries have sought to "localise" MDGs by establishing pilot projects in selected geographical areas to demonstrate advancement towards achieving the MDGs through practical implementation at grassroots levels. Similarly, a number of ABD programmes used the MDGs to focus their interventions in the target area. While distinctions between the two seem to get blurred here, it can still be maintained that the former approach uses the MDGs as the main entry point, selecting target areas with the purpose of creating models of practical application, whereas the second targets a particular area and its specific development situation as the main entry point, using the MDGs as a tool to focus its activities.

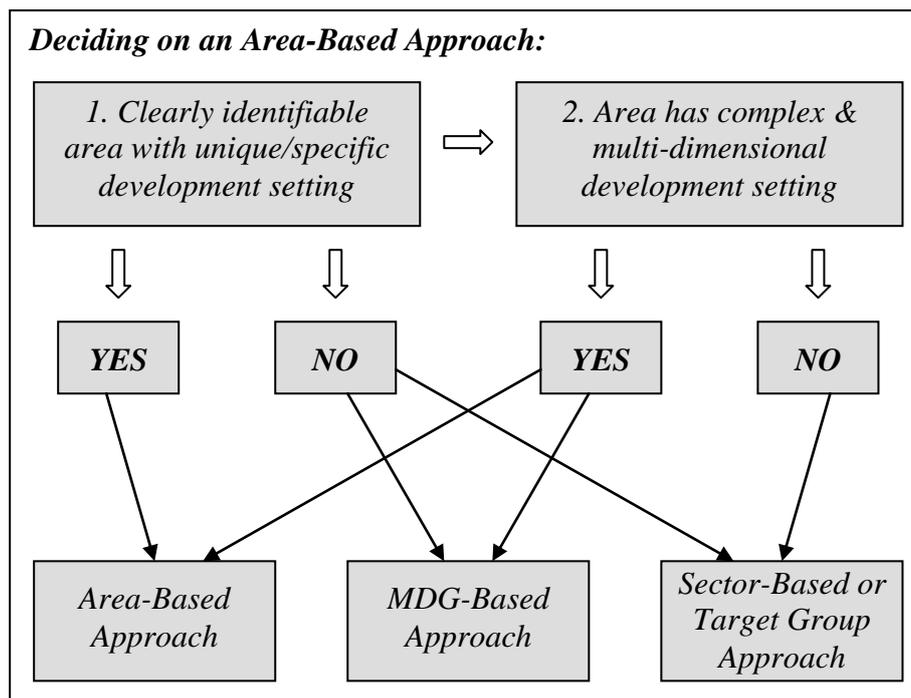### *Deciding on an Area-Based Development Approach:*

Therefore, in considering adopting an ABD approach for a particular programme, the first question to ask is:

> ➢ *Am I dealing with a clearly identifiable area that has unique or specific problems that sets it apart from other areas in the country and therefore merits special attention?*

If this is not the case, other types of intervention may be more appropriate. If yes, the second question is:

> *Is the development situation in the area relatively simple, i.e. confined to one sector or issue with clearly identifiable causes and effects, or is the situation complex and multi-dimensional with no clearly identifiable or heavily interlinked causes and effects?*

If the situation is relatively simple, a sector-based or target group approach may be appropriate, even if the situation is area-specific[10]. If the situation is relatively complex, an area-based approach may be considered. Similarly, if the situation is complex, but not area-specific, MDG-based approaches could be considered under which target areas are selected for successful localisation of MDGs and related initiatives.

Deciding on an Area-Based Approach:

| 1. Clearly identifiable area with unique/specific development setting | ⟹ | 2. Area has complex & multi-dimensional development setting |

| YES | NO | YES | NO |

| Area-Based Approach | MDG-Based Approach | Sector-Based or Target Group Approach |

Complexities and Limitations of Area-Based Development:

From the above, it is clear that applying a fully fledged ABD approach can be a daunting task. Successful ABD Programmes tend to be expensive and labour-intensive and may run for many years, in particular if the target area is large and the development situation highly complex. Due to its complex nature, multiple donors, development agencies and implementing partners can be involved, posing very high demands on management and coordination.

At the same time, there are limitations as to what an ABD Programme realistically can achieve:

> *Geographical/economical limitations:* There are areas that because of fundamental geographical and economic reasons are unlikely ever to become as prosperous as the rest of the country. As we have seen in Chapter 1.3, a number of areas in the EU that were disadvantaged 50 years ago continue to be disadvantaged, despite many years of massive investment. However, ABD interventions, coupled with fiscal measures,

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[10] After all, an ABD approach, as we have seen in Chapter 1.5 applies to complex development problems in specific geographical areas that require an integrated, inclusive, participatory and flexible approach.

budget transfers, social security and other policies, can at least help to ensure that gap between these areas and the rest of the country does not widen and that the area is able to benefit from prosperity generated in other parts of the country.

➢ ***Limitations to prioritising very poor areas in developing countries:*** In particular in developing countries, Governments often prioritise those areas that are likely to generate income and prosperity that will contribute to the socio-economic development of the country as a whole. Budget constraints limit the scope for public investment in social and economic infrastructure in poorer, more isolated and economically less significant areas. Whereas within the EU large-scale investment programmes in disadvantaged areas, supported by EU-funding and significant national and local resources, are feasible, the scope for such interventions in poor countries is rather more limited. Therefore, as we will see, while the EU can afford fully-fledged regional development policies and programmes, ABD Programmes in poorer parts of the world mostly take place in areas that have been or are being affected by, or at risk of crises that require urgent response or preventive action.

➢ ***Limitations caused by lack of structural policy and institutional reform:*** While within the EU democratic institutions, rule of law, more or less capable local authorities and mechanisms for decentralisation are generally in place or can become conditionalities for support, this is often not the case in less developed countries. ABD Programmes in poorer parts of the world often face limitations in this respect as to what can be realistically achieved. In particular in countries with a tradition of highly centralised governance, local authorities may simply lack the legal, administrative and financial tools to provide substantial support to local development. While ABD Programmes can (and should) play an important role in advocating for policy and institutional reform at the central level, they are not particularly well-placed to actively support the design and adoption of reforms and political decision-making processes required. Ideally, therefore, ABD Programmes should be undertaken in parallel and linked with other programmes that specifically support relevant policy and institutional reform processes at central level, as well as for example local governance capacity development programmes.

➢ ***Funding limitations:*** Not only do Governments in poorer countries have less opportunities to establish large-scale socio-economic development programmes in disadvantaged areas, the amount of resources that can be realistically raised from the international donor community is also limited and stands in no comparison with the resources that the EU has available for its regional development programmes. With the exception of some countries, such as Afghanistan or some of the high-end receivers of aid in Africa and Asia, US$ 10 million is already a relatively large amount for UNDP-supported ABD Programmes. This, of course, seriously limits the scope of what can be achieved in terms of effectively supporting regional socio-economic development. In practice, therefore, such programmes tend to focus on supporting small-scale community-based infrastructure and services rather than large-scale investments, coupled with local governance capacity building and income-generation initiatives that create practical examples and promote an enabling environment for possible larger-scale regional development investments in the future.

It is partly because of this reason that UNDP-supported ABD programmes are generally most effective in post-conflict and crisis areas where social, economic and political stabilisation is the priority and where supporting small-scale community-based infrastructure and services, income-generation projects and local governance capacity building can have important impact.

For genuinely addressing regional socio-economic disparities, a rather more large-scale approach is required, along the lines of the EU's regional development programmes. This is not to say that UNDP should not be involved in addressing regional disparities through ABD approaches, but unless it is able to mobilise sufficient funding from the international donor community as well as full political and financial commitment from the Government, it should be realistic about what its intervention can ultimately achieve.

The above complexities and limitations must be taken into account by development programmers and practitioners wanting to start an ABD Programme and will be elaborated further upon in this document.

Stage 2:   Defining the Area-Based Development Intervention

Once it has been decided to opt for an ABD intervention, the second stage is to define the Programme. There are three main issues to be considered, or steps to be taken in order to define and set-up the programme. These are:

- Step 1: Defining the target area
- Step 2: Assessing the development situation
- Step 3: Defining the main outcome, objectives and outputs

Step 1: Defining the target area:

To the extent possible, the area of intervention should coincide with existing territorial-administrative units, i.e. provinces, districts, municipalities, etc., in order to ensure effective involvement of local authorities and sustainability of outcomes through policy reform and institutionalisation.

It is also important from the point of view of making the intervention inclusive. This is particularly relevant in multi-ethnic settings or in situations where there are particular disadvantaged groups and in potential or post-conflict environments. Focusing support exclusively on specific ethnic or disadvantaged groups can create a backlash from other groups in the same area and result in local authorities withdrawing their support, thereby reinforcing exclusion. Such groups are part of society at large and by strengthening their links with and role as stakeholders in society, exclusion can be gradually lifted. This can only be achieved by targeting and involving all stakeholders in an area and ensuring that social exclusion is not just the concern of the particular group affected, but of all residents in an area, including of course the authorities who will ultimately need to ensure equal rights and access to opportunities for all.

Also, in selecting the area, linkages with other areas need to be considered. Areas are never autonomous in their development and the degree and kind of exchange of people and goods with other areas, as a reflection of comparative advantages, determines in large part their relative wealth vis-à-vis other areas. Mapping out the comparative advantages (and disadvantages) as well as migration patterns, capital and trade flows and value-chain patterns, will increase the understanding of the relative position of the area and opportunities and constraints for local development. Moreover, a clear picture of existing capacities, including the presence of other aid/development actors and their present and planned interventions in the area is required. Carrying out such a mapping exercise is therefore critical for defining and deciding on the exact target area and will inform the other steps as described below.

Step 2: Assessing the development situation:

This requires careful situation analysis as it will determine the components and specific interventions of the programme. In particular in complex situations it can be challenging to break down the development situation into factors and determine the extent to which each factor contributes to the overall situation and influences other factors in the process.

a) *Assessment of the baseline situation:* The obvious starting point is to collect existing relevant information and data on the area, including research papers and analytical reports. If the available data and information is insufficient, a general socio-economic survey of the area can be conducted, which can also serve as a baseline for future monitoring and evaluation, complemented by poverty mapping. In the case of conflict- and exclusion related Programmes, an event analysis can be carried out on the basis incidents reported by local authorities, NGOs/CSOs, the media, etc. This helps to gauge the dynamics and scale of conflict as well as defining "hot spots". In post-conflict and post-disaster environments, assessments of affected population, damaged infrastructure and productive assets can be carried out. In most cases, such preliminary research can be carried out by locally available research institutes.

b) *Assessment of critical needs:* Once baseline information and data are available, other methodologies and tools can be applied as part of the situation analysis to further determine and specify the development situation, gaps and problems to be addressed. This can include Problem Tree Analysis, Participatory Rural Appraisal, Focus Group Discussion, Stakeholder Analysis, Locality Mapping, Sustainable Development Analysis Framework etc. In conflict situations, the Conflict Development Analysis tool can be applied. An overview with concise explanations on most of these and other tools and methodologies for undertaking multi-stakeholder processes can be found on the excellent website of the Wageningen University and Research Institute (http://portals.wi.wur.nl/msp/index.php), one of the world's leading institutes on rural and agricultural development.

c) *Assessment and selection of priority interventions:* Once a clear picture has been obtained of the development situation, its contributing factors and interrelations and the institutional, legal and policy environment, prioritisation can take place in order to select those interventions that are likely, in conjunction, to produce maximum effect. After all, it is seldom feasible to address al possible issues at the same time. This may also involve sequencing interventions in time as well as geographical sequencing through prioritising locations within the target area. Moreover, interventions will have to take place at multiple levels in order to ensure that national, regional, local and community-level priorities are aligned and addressed in an integrated manner.

Step 3: Defining the main outcome, objectives and outputs:

a) *Defining the main outcome:* Defining the main outcome of the programme is of course fundamental to its success, but will involve choices in highly complex situations. Ideally, the main outcome should reflect the specific or unique development situation of the area. Thus, "Sustainable Improvement of Living Standards" may be too generic as this would be an outcome relevant to most areas in a country, as well as the country as a whole. "Reducing poverty levels between Region X and the rest of the country through creating opportunities for sustainable improvement of living standards" is already more specific, as it recognises the fact that the area is in a more disadvantaged position than the rest of the country.

But as we have seen, this may still be too ambitious if there is little scope for the kind of sustained large-scale public and private investments that would really impact on overall poverty levels and regional disparities. In that case, "Creating conditions for reducing poverty levels between Region X and the rest of the country by strengthening capacities of local authorities and communities for creating opportunities for sustainable improvement of living standards" would be more appropriate.

Similarly, in a post-conflict situation, "promoting durable peace and reconciliation through creating conditions for sustainable improvement of living standards and reintegration of returnees and former combatants" could be appropriate. In a potential conflict area one could think of "Reducing conflict potential through preventive measures aimed at creating conditions for sustainable improvement of living standards and promoting mutual understanding and tolerance" or something similar. Be as it may, the more specifically tailored to the development situation in the target area, the easier it becomes to determine and prioritise the interventions required.[11]

b) **_Defining objectives and outputs/results:_** While the programme should aim at contributing to the attainment of the outcome (or desired situation in the area), it is unlikely by itself to achieve the outcome. After all, the Government, other aid/development agencies, private sector and other stakeholders undertake activities that influence the outcome as well. The Programme, at best, will complement, build upon or promote actions of these stakeholders with whom in conjunction it hopes to achieve the outcome. Therefore, once the main outcome has been defined, specific objectives and/or outputs/results should be formulated through which the programme expects to contribute to the achievement of the overall outcome. These objectives and outputs/results should therefore indicate specifically what the programme, by itself, plans to achieve. They should also accurately reflect the levels of intervention of the Programme as well as its scale and magnitude.

c) **_Levels of Programme Intervention:_** As said before, for an ABD programme to be successful, interventions will have to take place at multiple levels. For example, needs and priorities that exist at community-level cannot be considered in isolation from higher-level needs and priorities at municipal/district, provincial/regional and national level. While it is necessary that participatory mechanisms are put in place to ensure that community needs and priorities are identified, articulated and addressed, it is equally necessary to reconcile these needs and priorities with higher-level policies, strategies and plans that present a broader vision for socioeconomic development of the area. Also, the priorities of individual communities need to be considered against what constitutes a rational and cost-effective distribution of infrastructure and services in the area from the point of view of territorial planning and sustainable management.

Therefore, in most programmes, capacity for both bottom-up participatory planning and top-down strategic planning will need to be strengthened and, to the extent possible, integrated into a vertically aligned planning structure. If done well, this may eventually facilitate effective coordination of interventions and resource allocation between the various stakeholders in the area (i.e. public, private, international community and civil society). While public investment, eventually supported by the World Bank and other Development Banks, can focus on addressing the more large-scale, higher-level needs and priorities, the international donor community and civil society could focus on integrating and addressing community-level needs and building the capacity of local authorities and communities to strengthen participatory planning

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[11] This, of course, is valid for practically all types of projects and programmes, not just ABD.

and decision-making and jointly undertake local development initiatives. A similar vertical alignment is necessary to ensure cohesiveness of policy frameworks at the various levels and that policy formulation is informed by practices at community level and vice versa.

d) ***Scale and magnitude of the Programme:*** The Programme's objectives and outputs/results as well as the implementation strategy (see Stage 3) will therefore depend to a large extent on the scale and magnitude of the Programme. As has been argued under "complexities and limitations of area-based development", if the aim of the Programme is to reduce regional disparities through promoting socio-economic development in fairly large area, the resources required will be large and large amounts of public investment will have to be mobilised. In that case, a truly comprehensive Programme can be set up, intervening at all levels and in all relevant sectors. This will involve developing a comprehensive regional development strategy and implementation plan, strengthening the capacity of authorities at all levels to manage public investment in key infrastructure, reforming public service delivery and social security systems, promoting private investment (including Foreign Direct Investment) in key economic sectors, strengthening the financial system, etc., etc.

However, as we have seen, this is not a realistic option in most cases for UNDP, in particular in poorer countries. In practice it may therefore be more realistic to focus on creating practical and tangible examples of local initiatives that address the specific development situation of the area, strengthen the capacity of local authorities, communities and other stakeholders to plan and undertake such initiatives and use the experiences as inputs to advocate for higher-level planning, policy and institutional reform that will eventually facilitate larger-scale regional development initiatives. As said before, it is of limited use to design an ambitious regional development plan if the resources for its implementation are not going to be made available and if local authorities lack the legal, administrative and financial tools.

e) ***Objective Trees and Logical Frameworks[12]:*** These can be used to determine the main outcome and objectives hierarchy, as well as outputs, activities, inputs, indicators of success and risks, taking into account the levels of intervention and scale/magnitude of the Programme. Focus group discussions with local stakeholders can be applied to obtain consensus on the Logical Framework of the Programme.

Stage 3: Implementation & Management Arrangements

While Stage 2 focuses on "what" the ABD programme is going to do, Stage 3 will focus on "how" this is going to be done. Once the target area has been defined, the development situation assessed and the main outcome, objectives and outputs determined, implementation arrangements will have to be defined and put in place. The three main issues or steps to be considered are:

- Step 1: Defining the implementation strategy
- Step 2: Programme positioning and management arrangements
- Step 3: Selecting the counterpart institution(s)

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[12] see http://portals.wi.wur.nl/msp/index.php

Step 1: Defining the Implementation Strategy:

This involves mainly:

  a) ***Defining the detailed activities*** that are required to achieve the outputs and objectives specified in the Logical Framework. Activities specify how the outputs and objectives are going to be achieved.

  b) ***Identifying the stakeholders*** involved in each intervention, assessing their capacity and determining their roles and tasks in implementation

  c) ***Specifying and quantifying the inputs required*** in terms of human resources, equipment, supplies, etc., for implementing the Programme and carrying out the activities.

  d) ***Preparing detailed work plans with corresponding budgets***, prioritising and sequencing activities in terms of timing, geographical locations and level of intervention and including indicators of achievement.

  e) ***Establishing output and stakeholder monitoring mechanisms***, able to monitor progress towards the achievement of programme objectives and outputs based on indicators defined in the Logical Framework and Work Plans. A baseline can be established on the basis of data collected for the assessment of the baseline situation (See Stage 2, Step 2a).

In chapter 2.2, a number of typical components or interventions that are seen to feature in ABD programmes and their activities are described in detail, illustrated by concrete examples from existing programmes. In Section 3, examples are given of outlines of ABD programmes for each of the four main types, i.e. poverty, conflict, disaster and exclusion. Most programmes opt for a mix of interventions supporting public administration and participatory governance; community empowerment; basic infrastructure and services; local economic development, income and employment generation; and policy and institutional reform.

Step 2: Programme Positioning and Management Arrangements:

As the development situation is specific for the defined area, where the main thrust of intervention will take place, locating the main management and implementation capacity in the area itself is in most cases indispensable (with a small liaison unit at central level). In some cases, for example when the target area is located close to the capital (or even inside the capital), it can be more cost-effective to set up the project office in a central location outside the target area and, for example, close to the UNDP Country Office or inside the premises of the national counterpart. However, this is almost always a second-best option from a programmatic and political/psychological point of view. More often than not, local authorities and citizens in disadvantaged areas feel that part of their problems stems from lack of support from central Government and centralised decision-making on which they have little influence. Being seen to be fully present in the area is therefore an important element of potential success of the intervention. In cases where there are several target areas under one programme with similar interventions, a central office could be established with small sub-offices in the areas.

At the same time, working through and strengthening the capacity of existing structures, rather than creating parallel structures, is essential for successful implementation and the achievement of sustainable results. Local authorities and communities need to be provided with tools and means to engage in local development processes that closely respond to needs and priorities identified and articulated by them and that maximise local ownership of results.

Thus, rather than setting up a separated and autonomous implementation capacity, Programmes should aim at strengthening implementation capacity within existing structures, providing technical assistance and expertise to those structures as required. In particular where democratic processes are in place, local authorities should have the lead role in implementing Programmes.

There are situations where the dynamics of conflict are such that the local authorities are perceived by citizens (or groups within society) as being biased and partial. In that case, the Programme may need to adopt a mediating function between the parties and cannot be seen as being too closely associated with one or the other. However, even in those cases, the focus should be on establishing or renewing relations of trust and confidence between the authorities and the citizens through existing structures. In situations where formal local authority is absent, efforts should be made to link up with existing informal decision-making structures within communities with a view to create models that can subsequently be formalised and institutionalised into structures of local administration.

Finally, as said before, by operating in a decentralised manner in the selected target area, ABD Programmes are not particularly well-placed to actively engage in the design and adoption of reforms and political decision-making processes required. Ideally, therefore, ABD Programmes should be undertaken within the framework of a cohesive Country Programme and in parallel and linked with other programmes that specifically support relevant policy and institutional reform processes at central level, as well as for example local governance capacity development programmes and relevant specialised sectoral programmes.

Step 3: Selecting the counterpart institution(s):

Ideally, the main counterpart of the programme should be the authority in charge of the area, such as the Governor's office or Mayor's office or, if it exists, a local planning department or similar entity. The counterpart should have a mandate that covers all sectors and issues in the area and be a key player in the decision-making process. Having a sector department as counterpart should therefore be avoided. At the same time, it is essential to have a counterpart at national level that can bring policy issues to the attention of the central Government and ensure support from the appropriate departments and ministries. Again, it is important that this counterpart is at the appropriate decision-making level and has a mandate that is cross-sectoral, such as the Prime Minister's or Deputy Prime Minister's office, Ministry of Planning, etc. In many countries, the Department for International Cooperation of the Ministry of Economy or a similar entity becomes the national counterpart. This is fine, as long as that department has some real influence.

As it is often difficult to identify a single counterpart that effectively covers all components, the establishment of active Steering Committees that involve all relevant counterparts and can effectively guide and facilitate the programme on each of the components is indispensable. ABD Programme Steering Committees should always involve central government policy makers so as to facilitate the translation of practical experiences in the area into policy.

Chapter 2.2   Typical Components of Area-Based Development Interventions

The selection of components to be included in the ABD Programme depends on the assessment of the specific development situation of the target area. There are nevertheless a number of typical components that are seen to feature in most ABD programmes:

  ➢ Public administration and participatory governance
  ➢ Community empowerment
  ➢ Basic infrastructure and services
  ➢ Local economic development, income and employment generation
  ➢ Policy and institutional reform

In addition, conflict-related ABD programmes also often include components dealing with Early Warning Systems; tolerance and social cohesion promotion; reintegration of returnees, former combatants, etc., while disaster-related programmes might include special health components, psycho-social rehabilitation and even forms of emergency assistance. The various components are briefly discussed below. See also annex 1 for an overview of UNDP ABD programmes in Europe & CIS with a breakdown in components.

As said before, the scale and magnitude of the Programme is an important determining factor as to what can be realistically achieved. Few of the programmes listed in Annex 1 have budgets that exceed US$ 10 million and most are much smaller. Less than 30% are mainly poverty-related, as opposed to conflict-, disaster- or exclusion-related, and many of these are a continuation of earlier conflict-related programmes. Large-scale regional development programmes are not practiced by UNDP in the RBEC area and most programmes have chosen to focus mainly on intervening at the level of communities and the lower levels of public administration, while the best among these have been able to establish linkages with higher-level planning, policy-making and institutional reform as well.

The following sections on programme components will therefore mainly focus on interventions within the framework of such smaller-scale ABD Programmes, rather than on large-scale Regional Development Programmes. Here, it also important to stress again that ABD Programmes are most successful if undertaken within the framework of a cohesive Country Programme, which includes other programmes and projects that focus on relevant policy and institutional reforms at central level as well as for example local governance capacity building and sector-based development from which the ABD Programme can benefit.

2.2.1   Public Administration and Participatory Governance

Role in ABD Programming:

Local/Regional authorities have a leading role to play in facilitating local development and addressing area-specific issues. They are responsible (on behalf of the State if appointed and on behalf of the citizens if elected) for effective public administration and services, as well as for designing and implementing strategies and plans that integrate national and regional priorities with local needs and reflect a vision for the overall development of the areas under their jurisdiction. The degree to which they can effectively exercise these responsibilities depends to a large extent on the degree of administrative and fiscal decentralisation; the technical, administrative and management qualities of civil servants and the political leadership; and the degree in which citizens and other stakeholders are able to participate in

planning and decision-making processes. Therefore, building capacity of local authorities to exercise their responsibilities effectively is crucial for the sustainability of the Programme's outcomes.

However, in particular in countries with highly centralised systems of public administration and where local authorities are not elected, and therefore not representing or accountable to citizens, limitations to the extent to which effective public administration and participatory governance can be promoted and translated into actions that support local development become quickly evident. Even if local authorities are in principle highly supportive, they are often faced with legal and budgetary constraints that limit their authority and capacity to support local development processes. Moreover, civil servants often lack the skills, tools and even inclination to effectively engage with and support civil society. While capacity building and training programmes for local authorities can go some way in increasing skills and attitudes, it is often the lack of effective legal and budgetary frameworks and tools that form the main stumbling blocks.

The result is that relations between authorities and citizens are often very poor. Citizens do not feel that their interests are represented by the authorities and that they contribute in any way to local development. Many people are unwilling to pay for poorly managed and maintained social and communal services, resulting in a downward spiral of dilapidation and breakdown. Mutual frustration can result in situations of increased repression and corruption from the side of local authorities and systematic tax evasion and civil disobedience by the citizens. In post-conflict or potential conflict situations, this can be further aggravated if the local authorities are perceived as having been or being partial and biased and part of the problem rather than the solution. Restoring respect and trust between local authorities and citizens is therefore a challenge faced by many ABD Programmes.

Common Modalities:

Planning, Budgeting and Public Investment:

In situations where a proper legal and policy framework for administrative and fiscal decentralisation is already in place the Programme can focus on strengthening the capacity of local authorities to improve planning, budgeting and public investment. Regional and local development strategies and plans that provide an analysis of the development situation, constraints and opportunities, articulate needs and priorities, specify responsibilities, and detail costing, time-lines and benchmarks for implementation, are essential tools for managing and focusing local development and integrating national priorities with local and area-specific needs.

However, particularly in the countries of the former Soviet Union, planning is often done not on a territorial but on a sector-by-sector basis, driven by line ministries allocating resources from national budgets. As a result, there is limited scope at the local level for setting priorities between sectors and achieve the most rational allocation of resources in accordance with the particular needs of the area. In some countries, there are even no planning departments at local level. Where these are absent, their establishment should be considered. Another option is to engage the services of local universities and research institutes to support local authorities in designing strategies and plans.

Participation and consultation of citizens, private sector entities and other local stakeholders in the planning process is important to ensure that their needs and priorities are properly reflected and that the plans can count on their support. This could be achieved by organising series of public hearings at various stages of the planning process and mobilising elected

councillors to gauge the interests and opinions of his/her constituents. Where community development plans exist (see the next chapter on Community Empowerment), these should be integrated into and aligned with the local development plans.

Uzbekistan: Regional and Local Development Strategies:

In Uzbekistan, the Enhancement of Living Standards Project supported the preparation of regional and local development strategies, using the MDGs as a framework for organising the plans and identifying needs and priorities. Working groups of representatives of local authorities, academic and research institutes and civil society where established who embarked on a highly participatory and consultative MDG-localisation process through workshops in numerous communities. The outcomes of these workshops were subsequently integrated, together with a number of surveys, into strategies and linked with the country's ongoing Poverty Reduction Strategy Process. While there were quality problems, these were among the first regional and local development strategies prepared in Uzbekistan. Funding for these plans had not yet materialised in 2006, but the strategies were subsequently reviewed and revised by the Ministry of Economy and presented as examples for other areas in the country.

In most cases, local revenue is insufficient to cover most of the investment required to implement regional and local development plans, even if there is a reasonable efficient local tax system in place. Local authorities therefore need to mobilise financial resources from elsewhere:

- ➢ One option is to issue bonds, but in most developing countries this is not realistic.
- ➢ Another source is to obtain transfers from the central Government. The availability of well-designed strategies and plans will help in this respect and may give the target area an advantage over other areas. However, while some funding may be attracted in this way, in many countries Central Government budgets are insufficient to meet the required funding target.
- ➢ Revenues can be increased by streamlining the local tax system, but options to raise substantial funding in this way in very poor areas are limited.
- ➢ Streamlining public services and reducing the cost of running public administration can further increase revenues
- ➢ Funding can also be raised by selling productive assets, buildings and land owned by local authorities. Even if the legal and policy framework for this exists, most income generated in this way would be a one-off benefit, although the sale of loss-making productive assets would certainly improve the balance books and tax revenues could increase.
- ➢ Private investors and even communities could be invited to enter into partnerships with local authorities for funding and implementing some of the projects, but this is only a realistic option if the plans have been designed in a participatory and consultative manner, reflecting needs and priorities of private investors and communities as well.
- ➢ International donors could provide part of the funding of such plans, but are unlikely to do so if there is not a substantial contribution from the side of the Government as well.

All of these options can be considered and support can be provided to local authorities to pursue them, but it is important that plans are realistic as to what can be expected in terms of funding. This means that clear priorities need to be set and mega-projects should in most cases be avoided.

Decentralisation and Democratic Self-Governance:

In situations where public administration continues to be highly centralised and the prospects for substantial funding of regional and local development plans are limited, investing time and effort in building capacity for preparing such plans may not be the first priority. In such situations, it may be better to focus on setting up mechanisms and building capacity for undertaking small-scale community-based initiatives in social and communal infrastructure and services, as well as income generation (see the next chapter on "Community Empowerment"). These provide practical opportunities for partnerships between local authorities and communities in improving living conditions and can serve as examples and advocacy tools of how decentralised and participatory governance can work in practice.

For ABD Programmes to effectively promote participatory governance at local levels it is therefore essential to lobby for and promote policy formulation and legal frameworks for administrative and fiscal decentralisation and democratic self-governance at central level. For an ABD programme located in an area sometimes far away from the capital this is not always an easy task. It is tempting to use donor funding and small grant mechanisms to mimic a decentralised planning and decision-making process in the area, but without the necessary policy, legal and institutional reform, structural long-term impact on local governance beyond the lifespan of the programme will remain limited.

It is therefore important for ABD programmes to link up closely with dedicated decentralisation and local governance promotion programmes that UNDP, or others, may have in place and that operate at policy level. ABD programmes should at the same time support the establishment of networks of government and self-government structures in the areas they operate in order to generate, formulate and build consensus on recommendations for improving decentralised participatory governance that can subsequently be brought to the attention of policy- and decision-makers at central level and provide knowledge- and practice-based inputs for policy, legal and institutional reform. Governor's and Mayor's offices, associations of local governments and think-tanks can be engaged to undertake the required lobbying.

Ukraine: Umbrella Programme to Link ABD's with Policy Level

In Ukraine, UNDP supports three ABD projects. While highly successful, these programmes work in relative isolation from each other and are unable to individually bring about the policy reforms at central level required to ensure institutionalisation of community-level practices. An umbrella programme is therefore being established which will codify and synchronise approaches between the three ABD projects and ensure that successful practices are systematically brought to the attention of central-level policy- and decision-makers through the establishment of a Local Governance and Development Knowledge Network. The Network will comprise experts, practitioners and policy makers at central, regional and district levels to capture and aggregate policy recommendations and lobby for their review and inclusion in policy and legal reform processes. At the same time, the Network will communicate changes in relevant policies, laws and procedures to community-level for application and implementation.

Mechanisms for Dialogue and Participation:

Ensuring participation and consultation of citizens and other local stakeholders in planning and decision-making processes helps to improve the quality of public administration and to restore mutual respect and trust between local authorities and citizens. As we will see in the next section on Community Empowerment, partnerships between local authorities and citizens in the actual implementation of priority projects can be a powerful tool to ensure a

sense of shared responsibility for local governance and increase transparency and accountability.

In principle, democratically elected local authorities are keener to respond to the interests, needs and priorities of citizens than appointed ones and ABD Programmes are likely to be more successful in areas where the authorities are elected. However, elected authorities may also lack the capacity, tools and legal framework to effectively carry out public administration and engage in local development and therefore seen as not responsive to the needs of the area and the people. Moreover, in many countries a strong presidential system and apparatus remains in place which does not leave room for the time being for local elections other than for local councils that often have little power.

A number of mechanisms can be put in place to nevertheless increase participation and consultation of citizens and other local stakeholders. This includes the type of mechanisms described above for the preparation of regional and local strategies and plans. It can also include opening local council and government meetings to the public. Promoting self-governing citizen's, professional and community organisations and strengthening NGOs and CSOs and setting up formal structures for regular dialogue with local authorities is another option. Many ABD Programmes have established such local development forums under the chairmanship of the local authority.

Access to Information, Legal Protection and Human Rights:

Other mechanisms supporting local good governance include for example establishing civil society and citizen information and service centres, which provide "one-stop-shop" support to civil society and citizens in dealing with the authorities and government departments and where citizens have free access to information on Government policies, programmes, budgets and plans. Setting up ombudsman functions can also help to increase transparency, legal protection and human rights. There are of course many other ways to support local good governance. Support units of the programme, established at the offices of local authorities, can help paving the way for establishing such mechanisms.

2.2.2   Community Empowerment

Role in ABD Programming:

This is another key component of many ABD programmes. Empowering citizens to actively participate in and contribute to planning, decision-making and activities that affect their daily lives is a powerful tool in helping areas to recover from conflict, disasters, poverty and exclusion. Encouraging and enabling people to take actively part in identifying, prioritising, designing, implementing and maintaining basic infrastructure and services, in partnership with local authorities, can be a highly effective first step towards empowerment.

When people in a village or neighbourhood have successfully completed a project through joint efforts, they are mostly willing and ready to take on other, more complex, problems that affect their community. In communities stricken by poverty and unemployment, it can help to break the apathy that sometimes characterises them. In communities that have gone through conflict or where inter-ethnic relations are tense, such projects can help to start a process of dialogue and active collaboration on issues that are of common concern to all, thereby increasing community cohesion. In areas hit by a disaster, it can help to reduce the sense of victimisation and dependency that often follows such events. Moreover, active participation and contribution can increase people's sense of ownership of and responsibility for

community infrastructure and services and break the deadlock of seeing local authorities as the sole responsible for the upkeep of the community. Such projects provide opportunities for greater interaction and dialogue between communities and their authorities and help to (re)establish a relation of trust and confidence between the two.

Community-level intervention is in itself not sufficient to bring about long-term socio-economic development in an area. Intervention will have to take place at all levels, as we have seen in the previous chapter, in order to be able to also address structural issues and priorities that are relevant for the area as a whole, in line with national, regional and local development strategies and plans. However, in the absence of adequate legal and policy frameworks for decentralisation and public investment funds, working at community-level can create practical experiences on the ground with relatively modest resources of how decentralisation and democratic self-governance can work effectively to improve people's living conditions and contribute to convince policy- and decision-makers on the benefits of strengthening participatory local governance. Even in highly developed democratic societies, there has been a growing recognition of the need to promote community empowerment and self-help as part of turning around highly depressed and marginalised areas and make people feel stakeholders in and share responsibility for solving the area's problems.

Common Modalities:

Community Organisation through Social Mobilisation:

Limiting community empowerment to participation in a few infrastructure and services projects in itself is not sufficient to engage communities in a long-term and sustainable process of self-help and increasing social cohesion. Once the water supply system or school has been completed, people are happy to return to their usual lives. It is therefore essential to help communities to establish an organisational structure that can build upon the positive effects of the infrastructure projects. This can be achieved by applying social mobilisation techniques, whereby communities are encouraged to set up their own self-help or community organisations.

Representation:

In order to be effective, such organisations should be established on a voluntary basis, but be as inclusive as possible. While it is fairly easy to find a handful of people who are active and willing to take forward a project, this does not necessarily mean that they have the support from the wider community for their initiative. In the best of cases, the community might appreciate the initiative, but they will not feel in any way responsible for the outcome. In the worst case scenario, the active people may be part of a specific group within the community and see their initiative as a way of furthering the interests of that group at the expense of the others.

Therefore, while such active people can be a useful first entry point in the community, they will have to prove that they have the full support of the vast majority of the community and among all groups and segments. One way of doing this is to help them set up a member-based organisation and set minimum thresholds above which the programme will recognise the organisation as being representative of the population. This can be a lengthy process, often requiring a series of general meetings with the population and working sessions with the active group, but should under no circumstances be compromised if the aim is to create a solid foundation for the future.

Organisational Set-Up:

During the establishment phase, the organisation needs to draw up and agree upon detailed statutes, after which elections should take place, preferably through secret ballot, to select a chairperson, accountant and other positions deemed necessary by the community. The members will constitute the Board of the organisation. For day-to-day activities, the members can elect "activists", for example one from each street. Ideally, the statutes should include Terms of Reference for the chairperson, the accountant and the "activists", as well as provisions on frequency of general meetings, reporting to the members, electing and changing the chairperson, accountant and "activists", etc. The best organisations include a provision for the payment of membership fees. These can be very small, but underline the principle that membership of the organisation is not free of obligations and commitment.

Optimum Size:

Community self-help organisations work best when they are relatively small. Between 100 and 150 households is often cited as the optimum size. If they become substantially larger, it becomes increasingly more difficult to ensure consensus-based decision-making and the active involvement of the members. In very small settlements, establishing one organisation may be feasible, but when the settlement gets larger, it is better to establish more than one organisation and a clear coordination mechanism between them. Of course, care needs to be taken that all organisations in a community are inclusive and not divided by ethnicity, rich and poor, etc. One way of doing this is to take a map of the settlement, village or neighbourhood and divide it into geographically obvious, but hopefully neutral, quarters.

Inclusiveness:

Also, care needs to be taken that the organisations are not dominated by men. Women and youth need to fully participate in the decision-making process and activities as well. One way of trying to ensure this is by including minimum membership quotas in the statutes. However, often, membership is by household rather than individuals. Another way is to include in the statutes that either the chairperson or his/her deputy and/or the accountant must be a woman and that women, men and youth are equally represented among the "activists". In some cases, especially where traditions are strong or where public interaction between men and women are not allowed, a specific women and/or youth organisation could be established under the overall umbrella of the community organisation. There may be other workable options, depending on the specific situation. However, setting up specific sub-structures to accommodate different ethnic, religious, linguistic or cultural groups should be avoided.

Registration:

Registration of the organisation can be a tricky issue. In many countries there are laws on self-governing bodies, which need to be studied in great detail to see if the provisions are suitable for the organisation. Sometimes, registration results in a for the community undesirable degree of control of the authorities, for example if the authorities are unelected or seen to be partial in conflict. In those cases, forcing the organisation to register can be counterproductive. In all cases, registration should take place only when the community is ready and willing to do so. However, it is important to ensure that the local authorities recognise the organisation from the beginning, even informally.

Involving Local Authorities:

This implies that supporting the creation of self-help or community organisations should never take place in isolation from the local authorities. They need to be fully engaged and consulted in the process and, where possible, take the lead in encouraging communities to organise. Their support is essential as otherwise there will be a potential for conflict. In some countries, such as India, there has been massive success with the establishment of community self-help organisations. However, often their establishment was facilitated by local NGOs without any involvement of the local authorities. As result, relations between the organisations and authorities are sometimes quite bad as the authorities feel that their authority is being challenged by the new organisations. The organisations in turn become dependent on the NGOs, which in the case of India are often quite powerful, as there is a risk that the authorities may seek to close down the organisations once the NGO withdraws its support and protection. There are, of course, many countries where this would certainly happen if the authorities would feel threatened by the community organisations. While the situation would have to be analysed on a case-by-case basis, obtaining the active support from local authorities for the process is essential.

Using Existing Structures:

Needless to say that setting up community and self-help organisations can be politically sensitive. In some areas, setting up such organisations is simply not tolerated. In that case, it can be useful to look into existing structures of community governance and see how these can be strengthened.

The below example serves to show that careful analysis of the local situation is required and that there is no standard model for organising and engaging communities. In fact, it is often far more effective to build on existing structures, if they exist and unless they are not corrupted and discredited, than to try to establish a parallel structure that might lead to conflicts and failure. It is also important to keep in mind that there is no room for error in community mobilisation. Once organisations fail to live up to expectation, disillusionment quickly sets in and it will be extremely hard to engage the communities again.

Uzbekistan: Using Existing Structures

After independence, the Government has restructured and institutionalised the traditional Mahalla structure. Originally, these were self-governing councils of community elders. Under the new structure, the Mahallas are still officially self-governing, with regular elections of the chairperson, but in practice they are under close supervision of the local authorities, which can veto candidates proposed by the community. They are mainly engaged in organising cultural events, celebration of national holidays and have a few minor administrative functions. At present, independent civil society organisations are extremely restricted and are no longer a viable entry point for international organisations. UNDP's "Enhancement of Living Standards" Programme has therefore started, in close collaboration with the local authorities, to engage the Mahallas in community infrastructure projects. While far from perfect in terms of community empowerment, the Programme has found a practical and workable solution to ensure at least some engagement of communities in development activities. Both authorities and communities have responded enthusiastically and it is clear that in many cases relations have greatly improved in working together to solve practical problems in the communities.

Prioritising Needs and Planning Activities:

However, once community self-help organisations have been successfully established, planning the activities can start. The best way of doing this is to ask the community to prepare a work plan outlining the main needs and priorities. While communities usually first and foremost prioritise basic infrastructure and services, efforts should be made to expand the work plans to include income- and employment generation and social initiatives as well. Eventually this can be done in stages whereby the first work plan focuses on infrastructure and services and the second on other activities. Prioritisation of proposed projects is important as particularly in the early stages it will be difficult to engage communities in more than one project at the time.

The work plan needs to be approved, preferably by consensus, by the community, after which work can start on the top priority. It is important not to shortcut this process because of a priority that may seem obvious to everybody as being the most urgent. Every member of the community should feel that they have had the opportunity to express what is important to them. What can be seen in practice is that women or youth have often different priorities than the men. Also, communities may after careful deliberations decide to start with a project that may not be the most urgent priority, but one that they feel confident of being able to achieve.

Community work plans should be presented to local authorities and aligned with local development plans (or, if no local development plans exist, serve as an input for the preparation of such plans, taking into account higher-level national, regional and local priorities as well). Unless the proposed projects in the community work plan clearly contradict local development priorities (which, at the level of communities is not very likely), authorities should be encouraged to accommodate the priorities set by the community to the extent possible. Communities, in turn, should of course be able to come up with convincing arguments as to why their selected projects are in their best interest and in the interest of local development. The projects, while important in themselves, should ultimately be seen as tools in building the capacity of local authorities and communities to establish effective partnerships for local development. Just as communities should be consulted by local authorities on local development plans, communities should seek the endorsement of local authorities for their self-help initiatives.

For this purpose, local development forums can be established, under the chairmanship of the local authority, to formalise the process of dialogue. These can include other stakeholders, such as NGOs/CSOs, local research institutions, banks and private sector associations as well. Apart from reviewing community priorities in the light of local development strategies and plans, they serve to make initial arrangements for funding and implementation. Both communities and local authorities should contribute to the project and private sector contributions should be encouraged. Only after such arrangements have been concluded should the programme consider funding the shortfall in funding that may remain. Ideally, and eventually, the preparation and presentation of community work plans should be aligned with the budget cycle of the local authority.

Programmes should avoid restricting the types of projects eligible for support to the extent possible (excluding of course those that are unrealistically expensive or simply technically not feasible). This is not to say that programmes and authorities should support all and sundry projects proposed by communities. Apart from the earlier mentioned problems of projects being far too expensive or not technically feasible, the proposed project may simply be not a good idea. In that case, authorities and the programme should invest time in dialogue with the community about the pros and cons of such a project.

Tajikistan: Respecting Community Priorities

The "Reconstruction Rehabilitation and Development Programme" in Tajikistan once received a request from a community to support them in rehabilitating their public park, even though there were arguably more urgent priorities, such as water supply and health facilities. The community explained that their town had been badly damaged by the war and that many of the inhabitants had only recently returned from refugee camps in neighbouring Afghanistan. Since the park was destroyed they had no place to meet and relax in the evenings. They argued that rehabilitating the park would have a very important psychological impact by giving the people a feeling that things were slowly returning to normal after years of war. They had made a detailed plan, which included establishing a playground for children and little kiosks where people could sell food, toys and souvenirs. The Programme decided to support the project against strong criticism from many humanitarian agencies working in the area. However, when the park was completed the whole atmosphere in the town visibly changed. People were now confident that the worst was over. This example shows how extremely important it is to listen carefully to and respect the wishes of communities, even if their priority does not seem to be very relevant at first glance.

Community Participation in Implementation:

As said before, there are various modalities for implementing community projects, depending on the particular situation, legal context, etc. However, in principle, the more the community is directly involved with the identification, prioritisation, design, implementation and subsequent management, operation and maintenance of projects, the better the results will be in general. For example, in particular in the RBEC region, one can frequently find qualified engineers, teachers, nurses and other professionals in villages who can take the lead in the design of projects, thereby increasing ownership of the community.

Community participation in implementation can take place through cash contributions or, more commonly, through providing labour and/or materials. Local authorities can provide cash, equipment and materials as well. These can be quantified and included in the budget of the project. While it is difficult to provide an indication here as to what percentage of a project budget should be provided by communities and local authorities, in principle the higher the better. Rates above 30% are feasible under most circumstances, provided the overall project budget is fairly small (i.e. not exceeding US$15,000), but even this may differ widely from area to area depending on actual poverty levels.

Also, in general, the higher the priority of the project for the community, the more likely it is that higher the contributions that can be expected (the same applies of course to local authorities). In particular in areas where there is no functioning local tax system, community contributions can be seen as a kind of precursory arrangement. It establishes the principle that the funds for basic infrastructure and services ultimately comes from citizens, be it through taxation or otherwise. Community contributions can therefore prepare people for the time that a functioning tax system will be established.

Other Community Activities:

Beyond basic infrastructure and services, communities should be encouraged to get increasingly involved in other types of activities as well, in particular income-generation of which more below in the section on Economic Development, Income- and Employment Generation. However, one activity deserves special mention here, namely the establishment of community saving funds.

Under this scheme, members of a community organisation regularly deposit a small amount of money into a fund that can subsequently be used for a host of micro- and small-scale

activities. It can be used as a solidarity fund to support members that are confronted with an emergency, such as sudden hospitalisation or a fire in the house. It can also be used to issue micro loans to members for income-generation activities, although this should be very carefully managed. It should not be used to finance the operation costs of the organisation. For this, the members pay a contribution fee. While the membership contribution and the saving deposit can be combined, accounts should be strictly separated in order to safeguard transparency. The regular saving deposit should be established at a level that every community member feels comfortable with. As a result, particularly in the beginning, it will be very small. This is not a problem as the main function of the saving fund during the first one or two years will be to further bind the members to their organisation and establish a mechanism that can continue to function and grow in the long-term, beyond the lifespan of other community projects. Also, too much money up front can cause problems in terms of mismanagement, while a slowly accumulating small fund allows the organisation to get used to managing it.

Also, successfully completing one or two priority projects makes communities generally more receptive to other kinds of support as well that may be less tangible but nevertheless highly important, such as training and awareness on social issues. For example, it will be easier to engage community members in preventive health promotion, including HIV/AIDS awareness, leading healthy life-styles, hygiene and sanitation, etc., if their first concern, namely access to a well-functioning health facility, has been addressed. Similarly, school repairs can be followed by introducing extra-curricular activities for which otherwise it would have been difficult to raise sufficient interest.

Expansion and Institutionalisation:

Eventually, when coverage of an area with community organisations has reached 20% or so and a couple of years of experience has been gained, it can often be seen that the process becomes self-perpetuating in that more and more community organisation will start emerging spontaneously without having been initiated by the programme and that local authorities become increasingly more active in encouraging communities to organise. Getting up to this "critical mass" can be accelerated by organising regular networking meetings among community organisations in the same area and between areas and by regularly publishing success stories in local media, etc. Also, communities that show interest at their own initiative should be suggested to visit a few existing organisations to see how it works in practice, before receiving support from the programme. At one point, it will become common practice for community representatives to contact the local authorities and the programme only after they have already discussed plans within the community and visited other organisations. At that stage, the emergence of new community organisations will rapidly accelerate.

Ultimately, what can be observed in areas where elected bodies of local government exist is that representatives of successful community organisations will be increasingly voted into local councils, as has happened for example in 2006 in Crimea after local elections. They will bring with them the experience of the community organisations they represent in addressing local development priorities are able to provide important steps towards institutionalising such community empowerment approaches.

In order for the programme to be able to manage this process, it will be then be necessary to form formal associations of community organisations and encourage the associations to establish support and resource centres for their member organisations. At that time, mechanisms can be devised to start providing block grants to these associations to fund projects of individual organisations, rather than the programme dealing individually with each

organisation. Also, a mechanism needs to be set up for local authorities and others to be able to provide funding to the organisations directly or through the associations. This will be the start of the exit strategy of the programme. However, this process should be no means be rushed. The community organisations need to be ready and capable of establishing associations and handle the funds successfully. Also, the local authorities need to be fully supportive of this. Furthermore, changes in legislation may be required, which takes time. The aim is to set up a sustainable mechanism that can run itself beyond the lifespan of the programme.

Crimea: Institutionalisation of Community Empowerment

By early 2006, the Crimea Integration and Development Programme had supported some 150,000 people in more than 30% of all settlements in the twelve target districts to set up community self-help organisations. During elections for local village and district councils in March 2006, over 70 community leaders were elected into the councils, bringing with them the experience of successful community self-help and local participatory governance initiatives. In most districts, planning of community initiatives has now been synchronised with the district budget cycle, with the result that contributions from communities and local authorities to initiatives are now substantially higher than the input from CIDP. The next step is to decentralise CIDP funding and grant awarding to district level through established Associations of Community Organisations.

Some Implications for Programme Implementation:

It is clear that getting to this stage requires several years of very hands-on work by the programme, especially if the local authorities do not have the capacity to lead the process. Setting-up and building the capacity of community organisations requires frequent visits to each single community, which is extremely time consuming. Especially in ambitious programmes that cover a large area, the original programme team can get overwhelmed quite easily, while expanding the team along with the growth in coverage may be prohibitively expensive beyond a certain point.

Some programmes have solved this problem by setting up small units in each district or municipality, staffed by one or two people from that same district or municipality. These people either work on a voluntary basis, or, which is preferable, receive a salary in conformity with what is being paid to local government staff. They can also be staff seconded by the local authorities. They are being trained by the programme staff in social mobilisation, monitoring and evaluation and other techniques. The composition of these small teams can vary, but it is often a good idea to have a man and a woman working together. Also, in case of ethnically mixed communities, there can be one of each ethnic group. In this way, the team will have full access to all the constituent groups in the communities.

Finding the right people may not be easy, especially in very depressed rural areas. While experiences differ, rather than aiming for highly qualified and experienced people, it often works better to hire young, bright and dynamic people who are trainable and for whom such a job is a great opportunity at the start of their careers. Also, young people need to be respectful to elders in communities and are therefore less likely to dominate meetings and impose their own ideas.

Ideally, the teams should work from a small office in or very close to that of the local authority, with whom they are required to communicate and coordinate activities frequently. In case the staff is seconded by the local authority, this should be no problem, although initially they should be under the direct supervision of the programme. If the staff is recruited directly by the programme, increasingly they should become an integrated part of the local

authority, while the local authority should be encouraged to take over this staff, or at least their functions, towards the end of the programme. After all, in the long run, funding for community initiatives is likely to come mostly from local authorities and its capacity in this respect should be increased.

Ukraine: Municipal Support Units

The Muncipal Governance & Sustainable Development Programme (MGSDP) in Ukraine has established support units in the mayor's offices of the partner municipalities where the project is active. The units are entirely staffed by civil servants and fully funded by the municipality. While their main task is to support the implementation of the project, the units also double as community resource centres and provide a platform for organising public awareness campaigns and activities on themes that do not really fit within the mandates of any of the regular muncipal departments and that require outreach to and active participation of citizens. These themes include HIV/AIDS and healthy lifestyles, environment, gender, etc. While such cross-cutting themes should ulimately be integrated into the work of each department, the municipal support units provide a first entry point within the structure of the municipal governments to address these issues.

Supporting CSOs and NGOs:

Strengthening and supporting Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) and local Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) can be another way of promoting community empowerment, in particular those that have specialised expertise in particular sectors, issues and themes. By providing independent research and advocacy, they can effectively raise awareness, influence policy-making and undertake initiatives on a wide range of important issues that otherwise are insufficiently or not being dealt with. This can cover almost everything from providing charity and social services, to promoting human, political and legal rights, as well as undertaking development initiatives, conflict mediation, etc. ABD programmes can provide support for example by helping to establish information, training and service centres for CSOs and NGOs, promote and facilitate dialogue with local authorities, and supporting initiatives that fall within the objectives of the programme. NGOs and CSOs are also frequently engaged to implement certain components of ABD programmes.

However, NGOs and CSOs should not be seen as a substitute for Community and Self-Help Organisations. While many NGOs and CSOs are well-rooted in communities and have a deep understanding of the local environment and community concerns, they are not necessarily representative of the community even if they claim to be. Many of them are not member-based organisations and do not have a transparently elected management that has to report back to a board or a constituency. Also, some NGOs and CSOs come from religious or political backgrounds that are not necessarily representative of the community at large. Therefore, while implementing parts of the programme through NGOs and CSOs can be effective, it can also reduce control over the outcome. In the same vein, they should never be seen as a substitute for engaging local authorities.

Having said that, NGOs and CSOs are of course highly important in terms of creating a pluralistic and vibrant civil society, providing a counterbalance to local government and providing a range of services that are crucial to improving people's lives. Strengthening their organisational capacity and engaging them for specialist tasks is therefore an important activity of many ABD programmes.

2.2.3 Basic infrastructure and services

Role in ABD Programming:

Under this component, a mechanism is created to support the construction or rehabilitation of social and communal infrastructure and services in the target area. Depending on the situation, and in the absence of a large-scale public investment programme, this can involve a few large objects, such as a vital access road or bridge that reduces the area's isolation, or smaller objects, such as rural water supply systems, drainage systems, village schools, health posts, community centres, sports facilities and playgrounds, small roads and bridges, electricity and gas supply, etc. It can also be a combination of the two and involve economic infrastructure, such as irrigation systems as well.

Reasons for including this component is that such basic infrastructure and services can provide excellent entry points into the area and opportunities for capacity building of and active participation through joint partnerships between local authorities, communities and private sector companies. Participation and partnership can take place in all stages of the project cycle, from identification, prioritisation and design, to actual implementation and subsequent operation, maintenance and management.

The results are tangible and immediate, which is invariably popular among beneficiaries, and can therefore help establishing the credibility of the programme as well as pave the way for more intangible forms of support, such as capacity building in public administration and training and awareness raising among communities. Also, basic infrastructure and services tend to benefit the entire population in a village or neighbourhood and is therefore non-discriminatory. This is particularly useful if other interventions under the programme benefit only specific groups.

Another advantage is that such projects can help creating income and employment in communities. For example, in areas where people depend on household agriculture and kitchen gardens for a large part of their income, the rehabilitation of a water supply system can have a considerable impact on people's capacity to grow crops. Also, contractors can engage local workers, providing at least temporary employment. Finally, more permanent jobs can be created by designing effective operation, maintenance and management systems for the facilities. In particular in war-torn areas where the local economy has collapsed, such projects can help to kick-start the economy again.

While programmes in an immediate post-war setting almost invariably require a basic infrastructure and services component, there are other settings in which there is much less need. Constructing and repairing basic infrastructure and services can be expensive, in particular on a large scale, and can be complex and time-consuming to manage. Nevertheless, its usefulness as a mechanism to mobilise communities and authorities and produce tangible and immediate results make it a key feature of most ABD programmes.

Common Modalities:

Small Grant Schemes:

A common modality for engaging in small infrastructure and services is through the establishment of a small grant scheme under which communities can apply for a grant to undertake a priority project. This can be done on a competitive basis whereby grants are awarded to the best, most cost-effective projects, with high levels of local contribution and participation. In such cases, selection is usually done by a board comprising programme staff, local authorities and community representatives. In other cases, communities are pre-selected,

in cooperation with local authorities, and grants are awarded to projects that constitute the community's top priority. In yet other cases, a work plan is prepared with all the local authorities and communities in the target area to jointly determine the priorities. In all cases, it is important that priorities are as much as possible aligned with existing local development plans, or, where these are absent, that the identification of needs and priorities becomes the basis for the design of such plans, taking into account higher-level priorities, strategies and plans that reflect the situation and needs of the area as a whole and linkages with the broader geographical area.

Larger infrastructure:

Larger infrastructure usually comprises objects that will serve several communities, the entire district or municipality or even the entire area. Such projects should be part of a local development or public investment plan before being undertaken and their implementation should follow internationally and nationally accepted procedures. As said before, for the Programme to directly engage in larger infrastructure rehabilitation can be expensive as well as complex and time-consuming to manage. If it has the scale and resources it should definitely get involved in those projects that are considered key priorities for the area's development. Otherwise, it may be better to limit support to helping local authorities to identify the priorities within the context of a local development plan for inclusion into public investment programmes.

Contracting:

In principle, the best model is for the local authorities to do the contracting and select a specialised firm through local competitive tender bidding to undertake the project. However, this requires that transparent and clear procedures are in place that minimise opportunities for graft and favouritism. If this is not the case, these will have to be put in place and closely monitored by the Programme. Some programmes have therefore preferred to keep control over such projects by directly engaging the services of specialised contracting firms. While this is sometimes unavoidable in situations where local government structures have collapsed as a result of civil war, or where corruption is extreme, efforts should be made to involve local authorities to the maximum extent. Ideally, funds for projects should be channelled through the local authorities as well, but in some countries this is not possible under the existing budget code.

From the point of view of building the capacity and ensuring ownership of communities, the principle of authorities contracting community organisations to undertake small-scale projects should be encouraged as well. This can even include community organisations subcontracting specialised firms to undertake technically more complicated parts of the project. In those cases, the local authority keeps the oversight over the implementation of the project. However, in many countries legal obstacles exist for authorities directly contracting communities. While the Programme may be able to do this on behalf of the authorities, this should always be done with a view to ultimately establish a legal procedure for local authorities themselves to do so in future.

Other programmes prefer to engage the services of local NGOs to manage such projects, but the added value of such arrangements from a programme management as well as a local governance point of view is at best doubtful. In certain situations, especially where the area of intervention is large and access is difficult, engaging local implementing partners such as NGOs can make sense, but the Programme will have to make sure that they strictly adhere to

the implementation strategy and quality standards. Also, there may be understandable sensitivities from the part of the local authorities towards having to report to a local NGO.

Choosing the right modality will depend on local conditions in the area, but as a general rule of thumb, the less levels created between the programme and the beneficiary the better the programme will be able to control the outcome.

Management, Operation & Maintenance:

Management, operation and maintenance of basic infrastructure and services should be considered an integral part of any intervention in this area. In many cases, dilapidation is often the result of poor management and maintenance systems. Local authorities have insufficient budgets and the responsible departments are often poorly organised, overstaffed and inefficient. Even if people pay user fees, these are seldom linked to the particular facility used by the payers, giving users the feeling that they "get nothing in return" for their payment. Once the service breaks down, users will stop paying altogether, making their repair even more difficult. The funding that is available is often allocated to the larger, more vital or more prestigious objects.

Where local authorities do have an established capacity to maintain infrastructure and services, but where many areas are still underserved, or where they have been destroyed by conflict or disaster, (re)construction only can be sufficient. However, where this is not the case, not addressing these issues will put into serious question the sustainability of the Programme's interventions, not to mention the disillusionment resulting from the likelihood of renewed dilapidation and breakdown. By repairing facilities without adequately dealing with management, operation and maintenance, the Programme will ultimately have aggravated the problem rather than having contributed to its solution.

While this is often considered to be the task of local authorities, efforts should be made to involve the users to the extent possible. There are several tried and tested ways of dealing with this. User Associations for managing water supply systems can be established, Parent-Teacher Associations in schools can be re-activated, citizens can contribute to small maintenance funds for health posts, land-man systems for feeder road maintenance can be established, etc. Establishing a clear link between the cost of operation and maintenance and the fees charged to the users helps to motivate people to pay. Involvement of the users in management, operation and maintenance, as well as the implementation of the project, invariably makes users feel much more responsible for the upkeep of the facility than would be the case if the sole responsibility rests with the local authorities.

Some programmes have gone so far as to transfer actual ownership of the facility to communities or user-groups as well. While this may be the only practical solution in a few exceptional cases, such as in post-war situations where the Government has no physical presence at local level and no capacity yet to look after such facilities, this practice is best avoided. Unless utilities are sufficiently well-managed and efficient so that privatisation is a feasible option, ownership should remain with the local authorities and state utilities. However, the actual management, operation and maintenance can in many cases be transferred to the user-community.

There are countries where legal obstacles exist to directly involve user-communities in management, operation and maintenance. In those cases, unless public utilities do have the capacity in place or can be strengthened relatively easily, Programmes should think twice before engaging in supporting basic infrastructure and services.

Crimea: Community-Based Management of Public Services

A good model of this has been developed by the Crimea Integration and Development Programme in Ukraine for rural water supply systems: While the system itself is transferred to the books of the local Village Council after completion, the community establishes a "community-based enterprise", consisting of a few community members that have the technical qualifications to operate and maintain the water system. The Community-Based Enterprise is officially registered and receives a contract from the local Village Council to run the system on its behalf. At the same time, the Enterprise enters into contract with the Community Organisation, detailing the services to be provided, the water fees to be charged, the method of collecting fees, etc. However, it should be recognised that this model only works in areas where qualified water engineers are available among the population. Designing sustainable management, operations and maintenance systems requires creativity, whereby understanding local conditions and practices is key to finding workable solutions.

Where there is room in the regulatory system for finding creative solutions, such as the example in Crimea above, efforts should of course be made to institutionalise such systems. However, this can be an arduous process, as the example in Crimea shows. Despite great enthusiasm and support from local authorities and the local public utility, institutionalisation into policy can only be done by the Central Government in Ukraine, which has gone through a very turbulent period in recent years. Apart from problems with identifying the Ministry and departments actually in charge of such issues, the highly centralised decision-making structure requires working from the top down. This means that Ministers need to be brought on board for any change to happen, who generally have little time to dedicate to rural water supply systems in a distant region. While this was done, subsequent changes of Ministers required the process to start all over again. This demonstrates the need for ABD Programmes to establish mechanisms to effectively link up with central-level policy- and decision-making structures, of which more in section 2.3.5.

2.2.4 Local Economic Development, Income- and Employment Generation

Role in ABD Programming:

Basic infrastructure and services, community empowerment and local good governance are important elements of creating and enabling environment for local economic development. Ultimately, however, poverty alleviation will be achieved through raising living standards through income- and employment generation, providing equitable access to such opportunities and providing a sustainable safety net for the poorest and most disadvantaged.

Common Modalities:

A whole range of activities can be deployed within the framework of ABD programmes to promote local economic development, including for example:

- Support to local economic development planning
- Establishing Local Economic Development Agencies, business associations, business service providers, incubators, etc.
- Private investment promotion
- Land and agricultural reform
- Natural resource and environmental management

- Provision and management of basic economic infrastructure
- Small and medium enterprise and entrepreneurship promotion
- Regulatory and tax reform for private sector development
- Vocational training, job centres, employment counselling services, etc.
- Provision of agricultural and veterinary extension services
- Promoting non-farm and off-farm employment
- Financial services, including microfinance, credit unions, agricultural credit, other banking services and insurance
- Marketing, export, rural-urban linkages and value-chain promotion
- Support to agricultural service cooperatives
- Support to home-based economic activities, "one village one product" schemes, community-based enterprises, etc.

Tailoring Modalities to the Development Context:

This list is hardly exhaustive and serves to show that there are many options available to promote local economic development. However, in practice, choices will have to be made in order to prioritise those interventions that are deemed to be most effective in addressing the area-specific situation, depending, among other, on the magnitude and scope of the Programme. This is complicated by the fact that in most cases a complex, multi-faceted approach is required in order to reach out to or create opportunities for a sufficiently large amount of people to make an impact on the overall economic situation in the area. Also, much depends on the overall economic outlook of the country. Moreover, it usually takes considerable time for measurable impact on living standards to become evident.

In an immediate post-conflict or disaster situation, where stabilisation of the socio-economic situation of the area is often a main priority, it may be effective to focus initially on provision of seeds and tools; creation of temporary employment through public works and reconstruction activities; micro-credit and group loans through established and experienced NGOs; and vocational training and job creation programmes for special groups, such as former combatants, returnees and disaster victims. In more stable situations, comprehensive packages including SME promotion, financial and non-financial business services, policy and regulatory reforms, investment promotion and agricultural extension services may be designed.

Key to a successful local economic development intervention is the recognition that different groups and categories of people have different requirements and therefore need access to different types of opportunities. For example, many people become private entrepreneurs by necessity rather than vocation, preferring instead a regular job. Only a small proportion will become successful entrepreneurs able to lift themselves and their families out of poverty. While it is certainly worthwhile targeting potential (and existing) entrepreneurs, as they may be able to create employment for others as well, it is equally important to create opportunities for the majority of people who have no such inclination. This can be done by supporting vocational training and job placement activities, home-based economic activities, rural extension, investment promotion, farmers' cooperatives, etc.

It should also be taken into account that successful area-based economic development strategies will be in first instance most effective for those that are willing and able to make use of the opportunities, which are seldom the poorest of the poor or the destitute. Eventually, "trickle-down" effects of local economic development may improve conditions for these

groups as well, but in areas where extreme poverty and destitution is a serious problem, additional modalities specifically targeting these groups may be required. Such modalities may include strengthening social security systems, ensuring access to education and health, public work schemes, micro-credit schemes with very tiny group loans, etc. Also, in situations of social exclusion of specific groups, regular local economic development strategies may not be sufficient to ensure their access and participation. However, successful community mobilisation into inclusive and participatory self-help organisations can be one way of overcoming social exclusion, whereby any specific modalities for the excluded groups should be matched with creating opportunities for the wider community as well.

Microfinance:

Micro-credit is an important element of local economic development strategies. However, setting up micro-credit schemes within the framework of broader projects or establishing community-managed revolving funds have a very mixed record of success and are therefore, rightly, no longer considered good practice by UNDP[13]. Dedicated, stand alone projects for establishing new MFIs or strengthening existing ones have a much better track record. Also, providing loan funds to successful existing MFIs that will eventually be permanently transferred can be effective. However, unless the area of intervention is sufficiently small, it is rarely possible to ensure full coverage of an area with microfinance within the time frame of an ABD project. Institutional approaches that seek to create an enabling environment for microfinance to develop, by stimulating existing banks to downscale their loan portfolios and making it easier for MFIs to operate and develop new financial instruments, are therefore particularly important for long-term development and sustainability of the sector and area-wide impact.

> **Bosnia & Herzegovina: Microfinance and Fiscal Incentives for Entrepreneurs:**
>
> *The Srebrenica Regional Recovery Programme (SRRP) has been able to link up with one of the top microfinance institutions in the country to provide access to microfinance for startup entrepreneurs. In addition, the programme has introduced a highly innovative scheme for encouraging existing entrepreneurs to expand and formalise their businesses through fiscal incentives. Existing entrepreneurs who can demonstrate that they are full compliance with regulations and taxation rules are eligible for a limited period for reimbursement of taxation from the Programme. In this way, they can reinvest the returned tax payments in their businesses and have a clear incentive to operate in the formal sector. It also potentially increases tax revenues for the local authorities, increasing their budget for social development.*

One Village, One Product:

In particular in Asia, "One Village, One Product" (OVOP) schemes have proven successful, whereby each village (or cluster of villages) in an area specialises in producing one or a few products in which the majority of the villagers becomes engaged. This can create important economies of scale and positive agglomeration effects. However, this requires careful market analysis and intervention in the entire value-chain of the product to be successful, as failure could have serious repercussions for the entire community. The products have to be of high quality and with sufficient and stable demand. Storage, packaging, transportation and

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[13] See the "Review of UNDP Microfinance Portfolio, Revised January 2006", carried out by the Consultative Group to Assist the Poor (CGAP) as part of the Microfinance Donor Peer Reviews exercise at:
http://www.cgap.org/portal/binary/com.epicentric.contentmanagement.servlet.ContentDeliveryServlet/Documents/UNDP_MFProjEvaluation.pdf

marketing need to be well-organised. The product needs to be competitive or of unique value. This approach is therefore not suitable for most immediate post-conflict situations and in situations where basic infrastructure, such as electricity and access, are very poor.

2.3.5   Policy and Institutional Reform

Role in ABD Programming:

While direct support to communities can have significant impact in improving living conditions and living standards, it is ultimately the institutionalisation of the modalities employed by ABD programmes that will ensure sustainability and impact in the long run and avoid the programme being perceived as having "temporarily taken over the local Government". Therefore, rather than trying to "do everything" and reach out to all potential beneficiaries (which would in most cased be financially prohibitive), it is important to create successful practical examples on the ground that can be codified and brought to the attention of policy- and decision-makers for their subsequent application across the area or even nation-wide. Rather than being a separate component of ABD programmes, policy and institutional reform should be integrated into all components.
Common Modalities:

Selection of Pilot Areas Within the Overall Area:

Unless the area is sufficiently small, say a town or a rural district, it would be effective to select a number of pilot areas within the overall area in order to work intensively with local authorities and communities to create practical experiences on the ground that can subsequently be shared with other local authorities and communities and provide inputs for policy-making and reform. For example, if the area is one province, a few districts or municipalities can be initially selected to pilot activities, adding more over time if required.

Creating Knowledge and Practice Networks:

At the level of the overall area, research institutes, authorities, CSOs and other stakeholders need to be engaged in forming networks that can monitor, analyse and support the activities in the pilot areas. This can be done by organising associations and facilitating networks among community organisations, entrepreneur groups, local authorities, etc., within each pilot area that regularly interact with the other areas. It can also be done by establishing the kind of participatory forums already discussed under 2.3.3 at municipal/district and regional levels. These networks should be encouraged to discuss successful practices and prepare policy recommendations and interact with knowledge networks, think-tanks and relevant Government institutions at the national level. Also, linking the ABD programme with PRSP, MDG and other national policy and strategic planning processes is important in this respect.

> *Ukraine: Knowledge Networks*
>
> *The Country Office in Ukraine is setting up a Local Development Programme that will function as an umbrella initiative to systematise and codify practical experiences of the three ongoing ABD Programmes in Crimea, Chernobyl-affected areas and selected municipalities, provide linkages with the national policy level and facilitate the expansion of successful approaches in other parts of the country. The Programme will link up with knowledge networks that are being established with UNDP support as well as with the Blue Ribbon Commission for Ukraine, which issues regular reports for policy- and decision-makers at the highest level.*

Independent Research:

As part of the inputs for the knowledge networks, independent studies and research should be undertaken on the various sectors and aspects covered by the programme. Ideally, the programme should engage local and/or national research institutes for this purpose. This research can be done on an issue by issue basis or take the form of regular, comprehensive publications, such as area-specific MDG or Human Development Reports that link up with the nation-wide initiatives. Establishing a base-line at the start of the programme and a mechanism for regular monitoring and mapping of indicators provides not only a solid basis for measuring progress of the programme towards achieving its outcomes, but also for substantiating recommendations for policy and institutional reform.

Uzbekistan: Poverty Mapping

In Uzbekistan, the "Enhancement of Living Standards" project has provided technical support to the GIS Institute of the University of Karakalpakstan in developing a series of MDG-based poverty maps of the project's target areas. Visualising aspects of poverty in maps is relatively new to Uzbekistan and has so far generated strong interest from Government and the International Community.

Crimea: Human Security & Development Monitoring

The Crimea Integration and Development Programme has facilitated the establishment of a Human Security & Development Council under the chairmanship of the First Deputy Chairman of the Council of Ministers of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea. The Council consists of representatives of the Government, Parliament, Academia, Civil Society and the various nationalities in Crimea to facilitate a broad-based dialogue. The main inputs for the dialogue are provided through regular Human Security & Development Reports that monitor social, economic, political and other events and trends in the peninsula. The reports are prepared by an Analytical Group established under the Programme for this purpose.

2.2.6 Conflict- and Disaster-Specific Components

ABD programmes in post-conflict or post-disaster settings may require a number of specific components that are normally not require in more stable settings. A number of these are outlined below[14]:

Positioning ABD in Immediate Post-Conflict or Post-Disaster Settings:

In immediate post-conflict and post-disaster settings humanitarian and relief assistance may play an important role. This is usually provided by Government and specialised NGOs and UN Agencies. ABD programmes that operate in such "complex emergency" environments need to closely coordinate their activities with humanitarian and relief agencies operating in the area. While everybody recognises the need to move as quickly as possible from humanitarian and relief support to reconstruction and on to development activities, coordinating this transition is often a daunting challenge. In practice it can be observed that the three approaches are being implemented more or less simultaneously for a number of years. While certain parts of the affected area may recover quickly, other parts may require

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[14] Many of the constraints and challenges mentioned here are highlighted in the Guidance Note on Early Recovery which BCPR is putting together with the Interagency Group (cluster) on Early Recovery – this note is expected to be completed by Feb 2007.

humanitarian assistance for much longer. Also, donors that have provided funds to humanitarian agencies would like to see these spent and implemented, even if the real emergency is over, encouraging many agencies to start introducing more development-oriented approaches.

The often large number of agencies on the ground, coupled with weak Government, can easily result in conflicting approaches and duplication of efforts. Coordination is weak as there is no clear consensus on who should take the leading role. Even if this role is clear in principle, for example where the UN has fielded a Special Representative of the Secretary General heading a peace-keeping or observer mission, differences in institutional culture and agendas can still make coordination very cumbersome at the least. Where the role of Humanitarian Coordinator is vested in the UN Resident Coordinator's Office, supported by UNOCHA and BCPR, successful coordination still ultimately rests on the goodwill of all parties.

An example of potentially conflicting approaches is the construction of emergency hand pumps for water supply versus the rehabilitation of existing piped water systems. Another is the emergency repair of damaged infrastructure through Quick Impact Projects versus a more complete rehabilitation of the service. Also, Food-for-Work can conflict with Cash-for-Work projects. Some agencies see the return of demobilised former combatants as a destabilising factor in the communities where they operate and are unwilling to undertake special reintegration efforts. Unfortunately, "turf-battles" also occur resulting in different communities receiving entirely different forms of assistance.

Under such circumstances, the ABD programme should have broad-based support and a clear mandate from the Government, UN, donors and international agencies in order to be effective. It can help to bring in various lead agencies to join UNDP in managing and implementing the programme and establish a broad-based steering committee. In those early stages, ABD programmes also need to be extremely flexible in order to respond to the often very quickly changing environment. It needs to be prepared for example to deal effectively with reintegration needs of returning refugees, IDPs and former combatants. Once these processes are set in motion, other priorities may have to be put on hold for a while as successful reintegration is often key to the future stability of the area. Also, violent conflict may flare up again from time to time in a post-conflict situation, while in post-disaster areas there may still be smaller-scale events, such as aftershocks of earthquakes, taking place. Sudden outbreaks of epidemics will also have to be dealt with expediently and may have to be given priority over other activities.

In some cases, mostly in conflict situations, the main driving force for area-based programming may be that the capacity of the national authorities to support the population in the area is not only insufficient, but is temporarily non-existent. An ABD programme is in such context more likely to be needed to fill basic functions that a strong (local) government would otherwise be able to provide. Elements of basic capacity building for local governance would be gradually built into the programme once the immediate needs of the population have been taken care of.

Needless to say that ABD programmes in complex emergency situations are extremely complex to manage. However, if managed well, they can provide a highly useful successor arrangement for humanitarian agencies withdrawing from the area and facilitate a more or less smooth transition from emergency to development. UNDP is particularly well-placed to facilitate this transition as global agreements, for example with UNHCR, to take over activities after UNHCR winds down its programmes, are already in place. UNDP is also often expected to take over development tasks of departing peace-keeping missions. It can therefore

be important for UNDP to have an ABD programme up and running before such agencies depart.

Infrastructure Rehabilitation, Community Empowerment and Local Governance:

In the immediate aftermath of conflict or disaster, expediency is key. In particular after conflict, local Government tends to be weak or practically non-existent (for example in Afghanistan). Communities are still in flux, with refugees, IDPs and former combatants returning. The central Government focuses on implementing the peace agreement, with little capacity left to address local development issues. Under such conditions, ABD programmes usually start with infrastructure reconstruction, as it provides tangible improvements in affected communities and helps to establish the credibility of the programme. By selecting local contractors through local competitive tender bidding, much-needed cash is pumped into the local economy, in particular if the contractor agrees to hire workers from the beneficiary community. However, even under such circumstances, community empowerment and strengthening local governance is possible, as two examples of Tajikistan and Afghanistan given here show.

Tajikistan: Jamoat Development Committees

For several years after signing the peace agreement in 1996, the Karategin (Rasht) Valley was still effectively controlled by opposition forces. At the same time, Government administration was in place, but unable to take decisions without the consent of local commanders. The Tajikistan Rehabilitation, Reconstruction and Development Programme (RRDP) had to carefully balance the interests of local commanders, administrations and communities in providing support to the area. Frequent kidnappings and murders made the area extremely hazardous. The programme was in constant peril of being identified as being to close to either the local administrations or the commanders. After several years of basic infrastructure rehabilitation, RRDP in 2000 started mobilising communities to form so-called Jamoat Development Committees, providing them with block grants based on consensus-based and approved work plans to undertake community-based self-help initiatives. This effectively empowered communities to engage in local development activities without undue interference from local administrations and commanders. Since then, Jamoat Development Committees have been established throughout the country.

Afghanistan: Community Development Centres

After the defeat of the Taliban regime in late 2001, the Government has focused on establishing control in the capital Kabul. In subsequent years, it has been able to expand control to most provincial capitals. However, there is still no effective Government administration at district or village levels. Under pressure to show all citizens of the country that the Government was able to improve living conditions for all, the Government embarked upon a highly ambitious programme to provide assistance to all 22,000 villages and communities of Afghanistan. Rather than establishing local Government structures, the Government, with the assistance of the World Bank and GTZ, started mobilising all communities to form so-called Community Development Centres and providing them with block grants to address immediate development priorities. By 2005 half of the communities were already covered by the programme, with the remaining communities to be covered by the end of 2008. UNDP, through the National Area-Based Development Programme, has started in 2006 to support the establishment of District Development Working Groups to encourage Community Development Centres to engage in district-level planning. The district-level plans, in turn, will be linked with Government planning processes at provincial level.

Reintegration of Returning Refugees, IDPs and Former Combatants: As said before, the reintegration of returning refugees, IDPs and former combatants is often a main priority after conflicts. While agencies such as UNHCR and IOM support the actual return of such groups to their communities and provide them with food, non-food items, cash, housing support and vocational training to enable them to settle and start a new life, the communities that receive these groups are sometimes apprehensive about their return. The group that fled may have been of a particular ethnic group, pushed out by ethnic cleansing, and seen as part of the reason for the conflict. Or there may be resentment among the population that stayed behind throughout the conflict towards people that are seen as having escaped the conflict, having had an easy life elsewhere and that are now returning with even more benefits, while the resident population continues to suffer.

With respect to former combatants, there are often fears that they may have become criminals that will stir up trouble in the community. Especially if they belong to the side that is seen as having lost the conflict, people would rather have as little as possible to do with them. In many cases, returnees, especially if they come in large numbers, are seen as an additional burden to the community that will put even more pressure on scarce land and already overstretched or dysfunctional infrastructure and services.

Taking away such perceptions is key to ensuring the peaceful and successful reintegration of returnees. ABD programmes are well-placed to ensure that through community mobilisation and infrastructure rehabilitation, the return of these groups is accompanied by overall improvement in living conditions in the recipient communities. If done well, this can turn perception of returnees as additional burdens into returnees as assets for the community, in particular if returnees are subsequently employed, alongside resident community members, to rehabilitate infrastructure and services. By subsequently including returnees into community organisations and planning of self-help initiatives, chances are good that their reintegration will proceed smoothly.

Tajikistan: Reintegrating Former Combatants

In Tajikistan, the RRDP was faced with the challenge of supporting the peaceful reintegration of combatants in the opposition-held Karategin (Rasht) Valley. The problem was aggravated by the fact that these combatants were never formally demobilised nor disarmed, while their commanders still wielded substantially power of the areas under their control. While the main commanders were slowly being coaxed into accepting Government positions in the capital, the rank and file was increasingly feeling abandoned and becoming restless. RRDP set out to launch a large-scale public works programme, identifying priority infrastructure jointly with communities, commanders and local authorities. The contractors that were selected for carrying out the works agreed to employ up to 40% of combatants into their work force, paying them an agreed upon salary and providing on-the-job training in construction techniques. Most combatants jumped to the opportunity as it provided them with a temporary cash income to support their families, opportunities for acquiring useful skills, and a face-saving way of returning to civilian life within their communities. The programme has been hailed in an evaluation as a crucial step in stabilising this restive area and thereby advancing the peace process.

Early Warning Systems and Preventive Measures:

Establishing Early Warning Systems that regularly monitor, analyse and report on the potential of conflict or disasters and recommend preventive measures to be taken can be important instruments within the framework of ABD programmes operating in pre- or post-conflict and –disaster settings. Potential causes and effects can be complex and require the

kind of holistic, multi-sector and multi-level interventions that ABD programmes are designed for. Apart from guiding flexible and timely response to potential crises, Early Warning Reports also provide regular information to policy- and decision-makers, thereby increasing the relevance of ABD programmes at the policy level. Early Warning Systems can be established under the Government, if the capacity exists, but in particular in potential conflict situations it would often be more effective to engage independent research institutes and NGOs for this purpose, as was done for example in Bulgaria during the Balkan Wars.

Preventive measures within the framework of ABD programmes can include anything that is deemed to have an impact on preventing conflict from escalating or disaster-preparedness to increase. It can also include active engagement in conflict mitigation and tolerance promotion. An interesting example of conflict mitigation can be found in Central Asia's Ferghana Valley:

Ferghana Valley: Conflict Mitigation

Central Asia's Ferghana Valley is densely populated and ethnically highly diverse. Uzbeks, Tajiks, Kyrgyz and other groups live in scattered communities across the region. During Stalin's regime, the borders between the three Socialist Soviet Republics (SSR) that cover the Valley were demarcated along ethnic lines. The results are some of the oddest borders on the planet that still failed to effectively include each ethnic pocket within the corresponding SSR. In Soviet times borders mattered little in practice, but after the collapse they became real obstacles to free movement within the Valley. This was exacerbated by the imposition of strict border controls, in particular between Uzbekistan and its neighbours. Conflicts about land straddling the borders soon started to emerge, as well as conflicts about infrastructure, in particular irrigation systems, that were designed during the Soviet era with total disregard of borders. The Swiss Development Cooperation Agency launched an initiative to establish a network of "goodwill ambassadors" from the three countries to help mediate in escalating conflict situations. They would go to the spot and bring local authorities and communities from both sides of the border together for negotiations and the identification of possible solutions. ABD programmes such as RRDP were engaged by SDC to support the implementation of cross-border projects addressing the problems.

A good practical example of tolerance promotion can be found in Crimea:

Crimea: Tolerance Promotion through Schools

Rural communities in Crimea are often ethnically mixed, with Russians and Crimean Tatars as the main groups. Relations between these two groups are generally poor as Crimean Tatars blame the Russians for their deportation to Central Asia in 1944, while many Russians see the returned Crimean Tatars as unlawful intruders laying claims on land and overburdening the dilapidated communal services. UNDP's Crimea Integration and Development Programme (CIDP) has actively worked with communities to establish self-help organisations. Several communities identified school repairs and computer classes as their top priority. CIDP agreed to support these communities under the condition that the projects would be linked up with initiatives of the schools and the Parent-Teacher Associations to promote tolerance among pupils from different ethnic backgrounds. One school came up with the initiative to use the computers provided by CIDP to establish a "virtual museum" of the community. Pupils visited grandparents and other elderly people to collect old photographs, record their memories of the history of the village, including during the war and the time of the deportations, and even record old songs. This information was subsequently digitised and put on display on the computers. Pupils and their parents claim that through this initiative they have learned much more about the history of their community and that it has greatly increased their understanding of the difficulties faced by the different ethnic groups living in the village. This initiative has subsequently been replicated in many more schools across Crimea.

Other Modalities:

There are of course many other modalities that can be employed in conflict and disaster settings. However, one deserves special mention here:

Ukraine: Psycho-Social Rehabilitation in Chernobyl-Affected Areas

The accident at the Chernobyl Nuclear Plant in 1986, now more than 20 years ago, has literally destroyed the lives of thousands of people living in the areas that were contaminated by radioactive fallout. Apart from the negative effects on people's physical health, thousands suffer from psychological traumas. The impact of the disaster, the subsequent clean-up operations, forced evacuations, the imposition of hazard zones, the disintegration of the Soviet Union and subsequent economic collapse has left many inhabitants in a state of severe shock and depression from which they are unable to recover. The Chernobyl Recovery and Development Programme has supported psycho-social rehabilitation services throughout the affected areas, providing people with treatment that enabled many of them to pick up their lives again.

Section 3 Case Studies

This section will provide some examples of ABD Programmes in Europe and CIS. For each category of specific development situations (see Chapter 1.4) one example will be presented, i.e.:

➢ Poverty: Enhancement of Living Standards in Ferghana Valley & Karakalpakstan, Uzbekistan

➢ Disasters: Chernobyl Recovery & Development Programme, Ukraine

➢ Conflict: Srebrenica Regional Recovery Programme, Bosnia & Herzegovina

➢ Exclusion: Crimea Integration & Development Programme, Ukraine

3.1   Poverty: Enhancement of Living Standards in Ferghana Valley & Karakalpakstan

Background &Development Situation:

The regions of Namangan (Ferghana Valley) and Karakalpakstan are among the poorest in Uzbekistan. More than 40% of the population in Namangan and 70% in Karakalpakstan live below the poverty line, in comparison with 27.5 for the country as a whole. High birth rates, rising unemployment, low productivity in agriculture, poor health conditions and poor conditions of infrastructure and services are main factors that have contributed to rising poverty levels.

A large part of Namangan is mountainous and relatively isolated. Karakalpakstan, in the extreme West of the country, is an autonomous republic that mainly consists of desert lands. Population density is less than 10 per square kilometre. Moreover, it has been badly affected by one of the worst ecological disasters in recent history: the shrinking of the Aral Sea due to the deviation of water for large scale irrigation from the two rivers that feed the sea.

Measures to enhance living standards in these regions require a wide range of issues to be addressed, including:

➢ Income generation for rural and urban areas and reduction of the negative effects of economic migration
➢ Industrial diversification and growth in micro, small and medium enterprises
➢ Agricultural diversification, particularly in encouraging farmers' enterprises, set against continuing state control for the main agricultural products (cotton, wheat and rice)
➢ Greater involvement of civil society in defining needs and priorities of the population, as well as their increased participation in development planning
➢ Improved basic social infrastructure and services (particularly education, health and drinking water supply)
➢ Enhanced social support for vulnerable groups and social safety nets

Against this background, UNDP and the European Union decided to form a partnership in order to develop a comprehensive area-based programme to enhance living standards in these regions and bring them closer to the national average.

Main Programme Outline:

Overall objective:
- Improve livelihoods through empowerment of local communities, income generation and job creation

Specific objectives:
- Support the authorities and local communities to develop and implement regional/local development strategies
- Empower local communities to engage in socio-economic development
- Increase and diversify access of the poor/farmers to finance

Expected Results: Component 1 – Regional and Local Development Strategies
- Regional development plan prepared
- Local development plans for three target districts
- MDG baseline reports for three target districts
- Poverty mapping and socio-economic data collection for monitoring and implementation of development strategies

Expected Results: Component 2 – Empowering Local Communities
- Awareness raised on civil society contribution to enhancement of living standards
- Increased capacity of regional and local governments to engage civil society in income-generating activities
- Local communities and civil society groups trained to undertake self-help initiatives, as well as undertake and administer various public schemes in their communities
- Social investment projects undertaken and completed by 50 communities through a combination of own financing and grants received from the Programme
- Experience codified and documented to allow subsequent intervention from UNDP and other organisations

Expected Results: Component 3 – Income Generation
- Institutional capacity of local microfinance institutions strengthened
- Micro-credit operations handled efficiently
- Loan products developed based on the local needs of men and women
- Increasing the number of small-scale entrepreneurial projects and micro-enterprises
- Pilot farmers' enterprises established and experiences documented

Target Areas:
- Namangan and Karakalpakstan Regions in Uzbekistan
- Three districts in each region

Target Groups/Beneficiaries:
- Regional/Local authorities, communities, microfinance institutions, civil society organisations, micro entrepreneurs

Project duration:
- Two years (2005-2006)

Project budget:
- € 2.2 million (€ 1.1 million for each region) from EU and UNDP (10%)

Programme Setup:
- Coordination unit in Tashkent (capital) consisting of 1 International Programme Coordinator, 1 National Technical Advisor and 1 National Public Relations Specialist

- Regional implementation units in Namangan and Karakalpakstan consisting of 1 Project Manager / Task Manager Regional and Local Development Strategies, 1 Task Manager Empowering Local Communities & 1 Task Manager Income Generation, and 12 to 15 other technical staff
- A team of two international and two national resident consultants and six visiting international consultants backstopping various components of the project

Successor Arrangements:

- As of late 2006, the Programme was likely to continue with EU support in Namangan while a similar Programme had already started in Ferghana Region and being planned in Andijan Region. In Karakalpakstan, the Programme may continue with support from other donors.

3.2   **Disasters: Chernobyl Recovery & Development Programme, Ukraine**

Background & Developmental Situation:

The accident at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant in April 1986 caused widespread radioactive contamination in southern and eastern Belarus, south-western Russia and northern Ukraine. In Ukraine, more than 163,000 people were resettled in the years following the accident, but it is estimated that more than 1 million people still live in Chernobyl-affected areas. In subsequent years, the population in the area has been affected by four main consequences of the accident:

- ➢ Economic decline: The economy collapsed after the accident, worsened by the post-Soviet transition and stigmatisation of products coming from the area, leading to high unemployment, rising poverty levels and dependency on (insufficient) social welfare handouts
- ➢ Poor health conditions: Continuing radiation exposure through using contaminated local produce has been linked to various health problems, compounded by psychological health disorders and the severed sense of community following relocation, resulting in high rates of suicide, alcoholism, drug abuse, crime and vandalism
- ➢ Inadequate local infrastructure: Years of underinvestment, partly caused by the high cost of cleaning up contaminated areas and social welfare, has resulted in dilapidated basic infrastructure and services in health, education, water supply and sanitation
- ➢ Culture of dependency: The socio-economic legacy of Chernobyl is a culture of dependency among the affected population, fuelled by government subsidies and support payments that undermined the motivation and capacity of individuals and communities to tackle their own social, economic and environmental problems

In accordance with the February 2002 UN Report on "Human consequences of the Chernobyl Nuclear Accident: A Strategy for Recovery", UNDP launched the Chernobyl Recovery & Development Programme (CRDP) in August 2002 to advocate and facilitate a transition from humanitarian assistance towards a long-term, comprehensive development approach, focusing on enhancing the self-reliance of individuals and communities by building their capacity to lead their own initiatives for improved living conditions.

Main Programme Outline:

Overall objective:
- Support different levels of the Ukrainian authorities in leading a transition in national an regional Chernobyl policies and programmes towards initiatives that support social, economic and ecological recovery and sustainable human development in affected areas

Specific objectives:
- Provision of advisory services and development support to policy-makers, administrators and institutions supporting Chernobyl recovery and development efforts
- Promotion of greater local self-governance in Chernobyl-affected areas trough the promotion of participatory community development
- Facilitation of information and educational services to improve the health and well-being of those living in Chernobyl-contaminated territories

Intended Outputs: Component 1 – Policy Advice and Development
- Capacity development within the Ministry of Emergencies and other key Chernobyl-related ministries
- Enhanced policy dialogue and development on Chernobyl
- Monitoring and impact assessment of policy implementation.
- Human resource development through training.
- Networking and partnerships for institutional change.
- Documentation and dissemination of recorded experiences
- Increased mobilisation of resources for Chernobyl rehabilitation and recovery initiatives

Intended Outputs: Component 2 – Community Self-Governance and Development
- Increased involvement of local people in participatory community-based organisations (CBOs) for social, economic and ecological rehabilitation in the Chernobyl region.
- Enhanced local collective decision-making through the establishment of community development plans.
- Generation of resources in support of local development plans through partnerships and local funding mechanisms
- Implementation of locally-established schemes for rehabilitation and development

Intended Outputs: Component 3 – Institutional Support Systems
- An enhanced and expanded capacity of Community Development Centres to facilitate, train and support the institutional development of beneficiary communities
- Increased CDC partnerships with local authorities in support of socio-psychological rehabilitation in affected communities
- Solid partnership between CDCs and existing research institutions to expand information provision on safe living to communities that need it the most
- Agreements established with oblast, raiyon and other local authorities in support of the work of CDCs and the implementation of locally-developed schemes for social, economic and ecological recovery in the Chernobyl region

Target Areas:
- 17 most affected districts in Kiev, Zhytomyr, Chernihiv and Rivne Oblasts (Regions)

Target Groups/Beneficiaries:
- Regional/local authorities, communities, civil society organisations and institutions

Project duration:
- Five years (2002-2007)

Project budget:
- US$ 3,657,912 from UN Trust Fund for Human Security (Government of Japan), CIDA, Swiss Development Agency (SDC), UNV Special Voluntary Fund, UNOCHA and UNDP

Programme Setup:
- Programme Support Unit in Kiev (capital) consisting of 1 Programme Manager, 1 Macro Policy Advisor, 1 Community Development Advisor, 1 Communication and Advocacy Manager and administrative/financial support staff
- Network of Community Mobilisation Assistants / National UNVs in the target areas

Successor Arrangements:
- As of late 2006, UNDP is in the process of launching a Local Development Programme, which will provide an umbrella framework for CRDP and other ABD Programmes in Ukraine to better coordinate and systematise strategies, approaches and methodologies, to strengthen capacity and involvement of local authorities, and to strengthen linkages between community-based practical experiences and central-level policy- and decision-making through knowledge networks

3.3 Conflict: Srebrenica Regional Recovery Programme, Bosnia & Herzegovina

Background & Development Situation:

The wartime horrors and political obstructions in the post-war period made the Srebrenica Area one of the most socially and economically depressed regions in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The area lags behind the rest of the country as it moves steadily from post-conflict reconstruction to long-term development. The challenges faced by the Srebrenica region are not drastically different from other parts of the country. The many issues to be addressed are: devastated infrastructure, destroyed private properties, weak governing structures with under-financed public services, weak primary health care, social services and public utilities, and lack of economic opportunities.

The Srebrenica Region is challenged by a difficult economic transition in which dual and intricate attributes of post-war and resource-based rent-seeking are reducing levels of production, shifting investment patterns, and reallocating employment decisions with different expected levels of efficiency. This situation influences a deepening unemployment. Notwithstanding redundancy, governmental revenues have shrunk tremendously and large inter-governmental transfers are requested to insure the minimum delivery of public services.

The UNDP-led Srebrenica Regional Recovery Programme (SRRP), which ran from 2002 to 2005, targeted an area of 1,100 square kilometres comprising three municipalities: Srebrenica, Bratunac and Milici (all in the Republica Srpska entity of the country).

The pre-war population of these three municipalities was 83,000. At SRRP's inception, the population had halved to about 40,000. The Bosniac population is now less than 10% of the total population, whereas before the war they accounted for 66%. In 2003, UNHCR reported that 5,232 Bosniacs had returned to the three municipalities. Due to the massacre of 7,500 men and boys the area has a large proportion of female-headed households. In Srebrenica, the proportion was 42% of all returnees. This particularly vulnerable group faced specific challenges related to issues of income generation, health and self-help reconstruction.

In response, UNDP launched SRRP as an integrated and comprehensive framework, which seeks to revitalise the human and physical capital of the region. Whilst focusing on the community as a whole, the direct beneficiaries of the SRRP are returnee families in the three target municipalities, with a focus on vulnerable categories, in particular women headed households. While the majority of beneficiaries are Bosniac returnees, internally displaced Bosnian Serbs (IDP's) also directly benefit from the programme.

Main Programme Outline:

Overall goal:
- To promote the socio-economic recovery of multi-ethnic communities with strengthened local government structures

Overall & Specific objectives:
- *Local Government: To support the municipal government reform process resulting in customer oriented, efficient, effective, transparent and accountable local administration which equally serves all citizens:*
  - To improve efficiency and effective use of human and financial resources at local level
  - To foster the adoption of transparent and accountable procedures of financial management and procurement
  - To create the conditions for interactive participation of citizens, civil society and private sector in municipal development planning and resource management
- *Economic Development: To create the conditions for sustainable economic growth aimed at reducing poverty*
  - To expand the access to financial services into new and underserved markets, primarily focusing on enhanced rural outreach
  - To provide sufficient level of business development services, creating conducive business environment
  - To increase levels of production in agricultural sub-sectors with endogenous growth potential that provides the best trade off between profitability and inclusion of the poor
  - To support actions enabling sustainable economic use of natural resources and better land management
- *Infrastructure & Housing: To support the return process and economic development through the reconstruction of infrastructures and living units*
  - To improve municipal public infrastructure using a participatory approach for the allocation of funds
  - To increase the access to the power supply system through the reconstruction of overhead lines, substations and high voltage lines
  - To reduce the human security risks by clearing mine contaminated areas
  - To support the return of displaced families to the Srebrenica region
- *Civil Society: To strengthen the capacity of civil society and individual citizens to voice and advocate for their needs or rights effectively in dialogue with local governance*
  - To promote partnerships and collaboration between Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) and Centres for Social Work laying down foundations for a sustainable service delivery to the vulnerable
  - To increase the transparency, sustainability, volunteerism and responsiveness of CSOs to their constituents through grant funded projects and trainings

> ➢ To build capacity among organisations and citizens to advocate and lobby at all levels
> ➢ To promote culture of peace through a Peace Education and Reconciliation programme implemented in primary and secondary schools

- *Gender Mainstreaming: To promote gender equity into all aspects of the Srebrenica region by increasing economic, social and political empowerment of women, particularly in returnee communities*
  - ➢ To support women in gaining a more effective voice to participate more fully in the civil society and in securing an adequate response to their needs
  - ➢ To enhance the level and the quality of women participation in the decision-making processes
  - ➢ To enhance the receptiveness of the municipal assembly to address women's issues particularly the vulnerable
  - ➢ To improve the access of women to economic opportunities by which they can raise their standard of living
  - ➢ To promote the practical implementation of the new Gender Equality Law and CEDAW principles

Expected Outcomes

- Improved management system, organisational structure and service delivery mechanisms towards meeting international standard parameters (ISO) for each municipality
- Reduced poverty through increased income levels for the poor
- Improved governance by strengthening participation in public expenditure management
- Improved access to municipal and public services through the implementation of strategic infrastructure projects
- Improved physical conditions for the long-term social and economic development of the target area
- Improved gender balance in economic, social and political sphere of life with special attention given to vulnerable women

Expected Outputs

- Higher gender awareness at level of civil society and municipal administration
- Established functional gender commission
- Mobilised youth from rural areas in community service activities
- Enhanced capacities of CSOs in complementing their services in order to satisfy their beneficiaries' needs
- Approved strategic development plan for management, transparency and participation for each municipality
- Implemented transparent tendering and procurement procedures at municipal level
- Established regional waste disposal site
- One business incubator created
- Improved municipal road grid, water networks and power supply networks
- Reduced mine risk
- Improved business skills
- Improved agricultural techniques

Target Areas:

- Srebrenica, Bratunac and Milici municipalities

Target Groups/Beneficiaries:
- Returnee Bosniac families and internally displaced Bosnian Serbs

Project duration:
- Four years (2002-2005) in two phases

Project budget:
- US$ 12,255,000 from The Netherlands, Republika Srpska entity government, Italy, CIDA, Canada, Denmark, Japan, Norway, NORAD, UK, UNDP, United Nations Foundation, BCPR and IFAD

Programme Setup:
- A Management Unit consisting of 1 International Programme Manager, 1 National Deputy Programme Manager, 1 Public Relations Officer and administrative/finance support staff
- Technical staff, including Economic Development Coordinator, Economics Specialist, Economic Development Assistant, three civil engineers, Local Governance Coordinator, Civil Society & Gender Assistant, Beneficiary Selection Assistant, Veterinarian, Livestock Specialist/Nutritionist and Milk Collection Mobilisation Officer

Successor Arrangements:
- In 2003, the Sustainable Transfer to Return-related Authorities (SUTRA) Programme started, which covers 23 towns and municipalities in Bosnia, including Srebrenica, supporting the participation of Bosnia & Herzegovina in the Stabilisation and Association Process (SAP) through assistance to the development of functioning government institutions and fostering reliable partnerships with civil society organisations able to effectively mobilise social capital for development, especially with a view to supporting the full implementation of the Dayton Peace Agreement

3.4   Exclusion: Crimea Integration & Development Programme, Ukraine

Background & Development Situation:

The mass return after 1989 of more than 260,000 Crimean Tatars, who were forcibly deported from Crimea in 1944, coupled with the shock of the majority ethnic Russian population of becoming citizens of an independent Ukraine and the social and economic collapse following the disintegration of the Soviet Union created tensions during the early nineties that quickly escalated to a point where widespread violent conflict seemed likely, with potentially destabilising effects for the young Ukrainian state.

Timely and concerted efforts by the Government of Ukraine and the International Community have contributed to stabilising the situation in Crimea during the nineties. However, the vast majority of Crimean Tatars continued to find themselves in a marginalised and excluded position vis-à-vis mainstream society, while many other Crimeans, in particular in the rural areas, were equally struggling to make ends meet.

Most Crimean Tatars are now living in isolated settlements in the rural steppe areas of the northern two-thirds of the peninsula, which often lack basic services such as water, gas and even electricity supply, as well as schools and health facilities. For many Crimean Tatar households, the only source of income is what they can produce and sell as surplus from their kitchen gardens. Unemployment is over 40%, according to the most conservative estimates.

Besides, they have only belatedly been recognised as eligible recipients of land titles under the ongoing land reform programme when most of the land was already distributed.

Having been severely threatened in their survival as a nation in a premeditated way during the years of deportation, the majority of Crimean Tatars is acutely aware of its identity and keenly determined to recover what was lost of its culture and to pass it on to future generations. This aspect is frequently misinterpreted by other ethnic groups in Crimea as "radicalism" or "fanaticism" and sets the Crimean Tatars further apart from the rest of society, thereby adding cultural and political exclusion to the social and economic marginalisation described in the previous paragraph. In such a situation, it is easy to identify scenarios that may trigger renewed conflict.

Against this background, UNDP launched the Crimea Integration & Development Programme (CIDP) in 1995. Its main goal since mid-2001 is to encourage and empower disenfranchised communities of Crimean Tatars and other ethnic groups to jointly and actively take part in decision-making processes that affect their daily lives as full citizens of society and to improve their living conditions through self-help initiatives. The below outline reflects the amended Programme strategy since 2005.

Main Programme Outline:

Overall objective:
- To foster sustainable human development in a manner that contributes to the maintenance of peace and stability in Crimea through initiatives aimed at preventing interethnic violence and enhancing peaceful coexistence among different ethnic groups

Specific objectives:
- Community-based governance, integration and development as cornerstone of decentralisation and democratisation policy and practice
- Entrepreneurship, SME development and community-based income generation in multi-ethnic rural districts
- Mainstreaming tolerance, integration and social development through Crimea-wide networks of schools, health facilities, cultural institutions and youth organisations
- Sustainable basic infrastructure and services in support of integration and development
- Policies for peace and prosperity through Human Security monitoring, gender mainstreaming and other cross-cutting themes

Intended Outputs: Component 1 – Community-based governance, integration & development
- Expanded coverage and outreach throughout Crimea by establishing Integration & Development Centres (IDCs) in all regions and networks of focal points in all representative councils and government administrations for promoting community mobilisation/organisation and democratic governance
- A training and learning centre for community mobilisation and decentralised governance that provides systematic capacity building, facilitates networking and field visits, organises conferences and seminars, and becomes a knowledge hub for research and policy formulation
- A Crimea-wide network of locally managed Regional Community Integration & Development Funds that enables Community Organisations throughout Crimea, in partnership with their Village Councils, to apply for financial support to address priority integration and development needs in their settlements

- Formation and organisation of Regional Associations of Community Organisations in each target region and gradual transfer of management of Community Integration & Development Seed-Grant Fund
- Integration & Development Centres fully incorporated into Regional State Administration, funded from the budget or through management fees levied on contracts with COs.
- Comprehensive legal/policy framework prepared and adopted, institutionalising community mobilisation and decentralised governance at Crimea level and subsequently at national level, promoting its application in other parts of Ukraine

Intended Outputs: Component 2 – Entrepreneurship, SME development & community-based income generation

- A Crimea-wide network of Business Promotion Centres in rural regions that provide members and other clients, including existing and aspiring entrepreneurs and COs in villages, with access to basic office, information, legal, financial and networking services
- A Crimea-wide network of "one-stop-shops" to issue permits for carrying out business activity, dialogue mechanisms and other government support institutions for entrepreneurship and enterprise development in rural regions
- Community Organisations supported in undertaking income & employment generating initiatives by promoting community-based saving and credit-schemes, local economic development planning, farmers' service cooperatives, and by providing access to training opportunities and technical support
- A Legal/policy framework prepared and adopted by the Crimean Ministry of Economy for promoting the establishment of regional business support networks throughout Crimea and for improving the regulatory framework for entrepreneurship and Small and Medium Enterprise development

Intended Outputs: Component 3 – Mainstreaming tolerance, integration & social development

- A Crimea-wide network of educational institutions in rural regions promoting tolerance and social cohesion through mobilising school communities of parents, teachers, students and school administrations, in collaboration with local authorities, into undertaking self-help initiatives
- A Crimea-wide network of "Creative Groups" of educational, cultural and youth institutions in urban areas promoting tolerance and social cohesion through joint initiatives
- Social Integration Funds established for awarding seed-grants to social, tolerance and integration initiatives based on available funding and clear criteria
- Dissemination and adoption of Preventive Health Initiatives throughout Crimea as integrated part of the health care system
- Preparation and adoption by the Crimean Ministry of Education of a legal/policy framework for promoting tolerance and social cohesion through school-based self-help initiatives, Peer-to-Peer education and other mechanisms in Crimea and subsequently in other parts of Ukraine

Intended Outputs: Component 4 – Sustainable basic infrastructure & services

- Top priority needs in medium- and large-scale basic social infrastructure and services addressed in multi-ethnic urban and rural settlements of Crimea, identified through participatory consultations between communities, local authorities and relevant departments at Republican level, in order to improve living conditions

- Strengthened capacity of Reskomnats and other relevant Government departments in identifying, designing, and implementing priority projects in a cost-effective way that meets expectations and actual requirements and that can be managed in a sustainable manner
- Preparation and adoption of a legal/policy framework for general application of community-based management and operation mechanisms for social and communal infrastructure and services in Crimea, facilitating the sustainable and cost-effective provision of social services to Formerly Deported Peoples (FDPs) and Non-FDPs

Intended Outputs: Component 5 – Policy and institutional development
- Human Security & Development monitoring and analysis established and institutionalised as a main tool for promoting policies for peace and prosperity in Crimea
- A Network of independent universities, research institutes and NGOs providing complementary research and analysis on key policy areas and subjects
- A Human Security and Development Policy Institute established

Target Areas:
- The Autonomous Republic of Crimea

Target Groups/Beneficiaries:
- Republican/local authorities, communities, civil society organisations, entrepreneurs and others

Project duration:
- Phase I & II (1995-2000), Phase III (2001-2007)

Project budget Phase III:
- US$ 8,351,171 (2001-2006) from TICA (Turkey), CIDA (Canada), SIDA (Sweden), SDC (Switzerland), Matra (Netherlands), United Kingdom, Norway, Greece and UNDP. UN Trust Fund for Human Security (Government of Japan), CIDA, Swiss Development Agency (SDC), UNV Special Voluntary Fund, UNOCHA and UNDP (16.6%).

Programme Setup:
- Programme Management Unit in Simferopol, Crimea consisting of 1 International Programme Coordinator, 1 International Regional Development Advisor, 1 Community Development Specialist, 2 Engineers, 1 Economic Development Specialist, 1 Social Development Specialist, 1 Tolerance Promotion Specialist, 1 Senior Researcher / Data Analyst, 1 Information & Communication Specialist, 1 Health Specialist, 1 Agronomist, and administrative/financial support staff
- Network of 24 Community Mobilisation Assistants in the target areas

Successor Arrangements:
- As of late 2006, UNDP is in the process of launching a Local Development Programme, which will provide an umbrella framework for CIDP and other ABD Programmes in Ukraine to better coordinate and systematise strategies, approaches and methodologies, to strengthen capacity and involvement of local authorities, and to strengthen linkages between community-based practical experiences and central-level policy- and decision-making through knowledge networks

Annex 1:   Overview and Brief Analysis of Area-Based Development Programmes in Europe & CIS

Programme (follow links for more info)	Area	Development Setting (main)	Time-frame	Components (see below table for keys)						
				PAG	CE	BIS	LED	SD	CPT	PIR
Albania										
Kukes Regional Development Initiative -KRDI	Kukes District	Poverty	2005-2006	X	X	X				
Shkodra Region Area Based Development Programme	Shkodra Region	Poverty	2007-200?	X	X	X				
Azerbaijan										
Economic Opportunity Enhancement in Nakhichevan through Community Mobilisation & Micro credit	Nakhichevan	Poverty (isolated exclave)	1998-2004		X	X	X			
Belarus										
Support for the "Cooperation for Rehabilitation" (CORE) Programme in Chernobyl-affected Areas	4 districts in Chernobyl affected regions	Disaster (nuclear accident)	2003-2007			X	X	X		
Bosnia & Herzegovina										
Integrated Resettlement Programme for the Bosnian Canton of Travnik	Travnik Canton	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	1997-2002			X	X	X	X	
Posavina Regional Return Programme - PLAP (and 2 precursors)	North-Central Posavina	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2000-2003	X		X	X	X	X	
Brcko Local Action Programme - BLAP	Brcko District	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2000-2003?	X		X	X	X	X	
Srebrenica Regional Recovery Programme – SRRP	Srebrenica Region (3 municipalities)	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2002-2005	X		X	X	X	X	X
Integrated Return Programme for Gornji Vakuf – Uskoplje & Donji Vakuf	Gornji Vakuf-Uskoplje & Donji Vakuf	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2002-2003			X	X	X	X	
Sustainable Transfer to Return-related Authorities - SUTRA	23 towns & municipalities	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2003-2006	X	X	X				
Croatia										
Local Economic Rehabilitation in War-affected areas in Croatia	Dalmatia, Banovina, West & East Slavonia	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2002-2004			X	X			
Socio-economic Recovery of ASSC and under-developed regions in Croatia	Banovina-Kordun, E. Slavonia, Lika, etc.	Poverty	2006-2008	X	X	X	X	X		
Georgia										
Samtskhe-Javakheti Integrated Development Programme - SJIDP	Samtskhe-Javakheti Region	Exclusion (ethnically mixed)	2002-2006		X	X	X	X	X	
Samtskhe-Javakheti Regional Development Programme - SJRDP	Samtskhe-Javakheti Region	Exclusion (ethnically mixed)	2007-200?		X	X	X			X

| Programme	Area	Development Setting (main)	Time-frame	Components (see below table)						
				PAG	**CPE**	**BIS**	**LED**	**SDA**	**CPT**	**PIR**
South-Ossetia Rehabilitation Programme	South-Ossetia	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2006-200?		X	X	X			
Abkhazia Recovery Programme	Abkhazia (3 districts)	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2004-200?		X	X	X		X	
Kyrgyzstan										
Preventive Development Programme – PDP (+ related programmes in same area)	Kyrgyz & Tajik parts of Ferghana Valley	Exclusion (ethnic, cross-border)	2000-200?	X	X	X			X	X
Macedonia FYR										
Immediate Community Rehabilitation Support - ICRS	Tetovo area	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2001-2006			X		X		
Russian Federation										
Sustainable Reintegration & Recovery in the North Caucasus	North-Ossetia & Ingushetia	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2004-2007	X		X	X		X	
Serbia										
Municipal Improvement & Revival Programme – MIR (and 2 precursors)	South Serbia (13 municipalities	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	2001-2007	X	X	X				X
Tajikistan										
Tajikistan Rehabilitation, Reconstruction & Development Programme - RRDP	Sughd, Khatlon Oblasts & Rasht Valley	Conflict (returnees, recovery)	1996-2004	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Communities Programme	Sughd, Khatlon Oblasts & Rasht Valley	Poverty	2004-200?	X	X	X	X			
Ukraine										
Crimea Integration & Development Programme - CIDP	Autonomous Republic of Crimea (12 districts)	Exclusion (Formerly Deported)	1995-2007	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Chernobyl Recovery & Development Programme - CRDP	Chernobyl-affected areas	Disaster (nuclear accident)	2002-2007	X	X	X	X	X		X
Municipal Governance & Sustainable Development Programme (MGSDP)	(Semi-) Urban areas	Poverty (urban degradation)	2004-2007	X	X	X				X
Uzbekistan										
Enhancement of Living Standards in Ferghana Valley & Karakalpakstan - ELS	Ferghana Valley & Karakalpakstan	Poverty	2005-2008	X	X	X	X			X
Area Based Development Programme	Kashkadarya Region	Poverty	2006-200?	X	X	X	X			X

PAG – Public Administration & Participatory Governance; **CPE** – Community Participation & Empowerment; **BIS** – Basic Infrastructure & Services; **LED** – Local Economic Development; **SDA** – Social Development & Assistance; **CPT** – Conflict Prevention & Tolerance Promotion; **PIR** – Policy & Institutional Reform

Brief Analysis of Table:

Total number of Programmes included:	27 – 100.0%
Main development setting: Conflict:	13 – 48.1%
Main development setting: Poverty:	8 – 29.6%
Main development setting: Exclusion:	4 – 14.8%
Main development setting: Disaster:	2 – 7.4%
Basic Infrastructure & Services:	27 – 100.0%
Local Economic Development:	20 – 74.1%
Community Empowerment:	18 – 66.7%
Publ. Administration & Governance:	17 – 63.0%
Social Development & Assistance:	12 – 44.4%
Conflict Prevention & Tolerance Promotion:	11 – 40.7%
Policy & Institutional Reform:	9 – 33.3%

From the table it can be seen that ABD programmes related to conflict as the specific development situation represent almost half of all in the RBEC Region, reflecting the relatively large number of conflicts resulting from the disintegration of the former Soviet Union and Yugoslavia. Another 30% is primarily related to poverty, while Exclusion and Disaster related programmes are much less common. In terms of components, all programmes include Basic Infrastructure & Services, while three quarters focus on Local Economic Development and two thirds on Community Empowerment as well. More than 40% include Participatory Governance & Planning and Social Development & Assistance components and one third include Policy & Institutional Reform in their programme frameworks. Seventy percent of the programmes have four or more components, with 4 and 5 being the most common, showing the multi-dimensional character of ABD.

ABD Programmes
Main Development Setting

- Conflict
- Poverty
- Exclusion
- Disaster
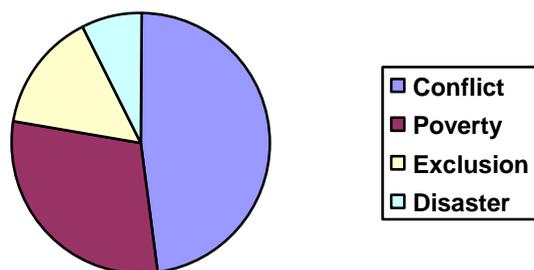
ABD Programmes
Main Components

BIS	LED	CPE	PAG	SDA	CPT	PIR
27	20	18	17	12	11	9
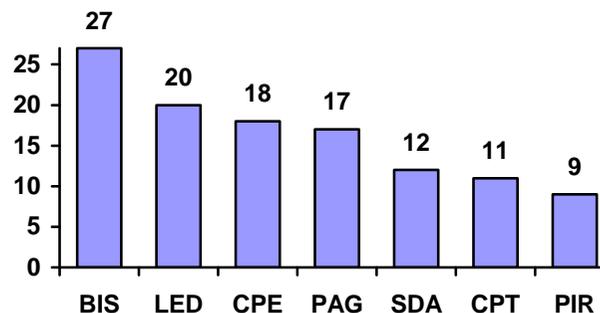
Annex 2: Additional Resources

The following links provide further information on Area-Based Development related discussions, guidelines, projects and practices.

- [UNDP/RBEC Area-Based Development Sub-practice.](#) Here you can find brief outlines of ABD Programmes and related documents in the Europe & CIS Region.

- [Consolidated Reply: Urgent/Tsunami Recovery: Sri Lanka/Integrated or Area Based programmes/comparative experiences](#). Here you can find a discussion on Area-Based Development approaches and practices, which was cross-posted on various UNDP Practice Networks. It also has numerous references to projects and relevant documents globally.

- [Information on the EU Regional Programmes](#). This site provides an overview of the EU's Regional Development Programmes.

- [UNDP/RBEC Area-Based Development Practitioners Workshop, Crimea, Ukraine, 29-31 October 2003: Main Outcomes](#). One of the main outcomes of this workshop was a definition of Area-Based Development, which was used in this document as well.

On the site of [UNDP Bureau for Crisis Prevention and Recovery](#), information can be found on BCPR activities as well as links to other organisations active in the field of crisis management, conflict prevention and recovery that are relevant for Area-Based Development. A **Guidance Note on Early Recovery**, which BCPR is putting together with the Interagency Group (cluster) on Early Recovery, is expected to be completed by Feb 2007.

A large number of methodologies and tools that can be applied for formulating ABD Programmes can be found on the [Multi Stakeholder Processes Resource Portal](#) of the Wageningen University and Research Institute.