

CSO DEVELOPMENT EFFECTIVENESS – SEARCHING NEW WAYS

Czech Contribution to the Global Process
of Civil Society Organizations





FORS

České fórum pro rozvojovou spolupráci
Czech Forum for Development Co-operation

Czech Forum for Development Co-operation – FoRS is a platform of Czech non-governmental non-profit organizations (NGOs) and other non-profit subjects, involved in development cooperation, development education and humanitarian assistance.

FoRS was founded by 15 NGOs in September 2002 and legally registered as an association of legal entities in October 2002. By the beginning of 2009, **FoRS already represented more than 40 organizations** - among those are NGOs, foundations, international organizations, universities and others.

FoRS organizations share the common interest of pursuing more relevance and effectiveness of both Czech and international development cooperation and enhancing its positive impact on people living in developing and transition countries. The main task of FoRS is to represent the common interest of its members and to strengthen the relations and cooperation between the state administration in the Czech Republic, the European Union, and non-governmental organizations in the field of development cooperation.

FoRS was one of the founding members of CONCORD, the European NGO Confederation for Relief and Development (www.concordeurope.org). CONCORD is an umbrella association of national platforms and networks of NGOs from the EU Member States that represent all together over 1600 NGOs. CONCORD regularly engages in dialogue with the European institutions, and FoRS can defend the interests of Czech NGOs at the European level by means of active participation in CONCORD.

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Development Effectiveness – Searching New Ways

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Introduction

Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) are key actors in development cooperation. Their strength consists in the diversity of the roles they play. CSOs carry out education, awareness and development projects, they play an important role in advocacy, in promotion of human rights and good governance, and they bring important financial resources from private donors and public. The ability of CSOs to deliver effective development results however also depends on the environment they work in.

In 2005, donors and governments adopted the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness. CSOs were not invited to contribute to its preparation, but they started a parallel process aimed at defining their own principles of development effectiveness. Such reflection should support global partnership between CSOs and other stakeholders and strengthen the CSOs engagement in creating and promoting policies focused on the fight against poverty. The process of development effectiveness complements efforts of governments and donors, but it goes much beyond the principles of “technically better aid” stated in the Paris Declaration. It opens up a new dimension of CSOs’ own responsibility for the impacts of development cooperation. The basis of this process called “Open Forum for CSO Development Effectiveness” (www.cso-effectiveness.org) is an open dialogue and cooperation between all stakeholders.

The aims mentioned above have inspired the Czech non-governmental organizations gathered in the Czech Forum for Development Co-operation – FoRS to choose **CSO development effectiveness** as a priority topic during the Czech Presidency of the Council of the EU in the first half

of 2009. In the framework of their joint activities and discussions, FoRS organizations have reflected on the effectiveness factors in the context of their own projects and about the role of CSOs in development cooperation. This publication is the result of these reflections. It brings to the global process the perspective and experience of partner countries and the Czech Republic, which only several years ago was a recipient of development assistance. We believe that our joint initiatives represent the beginning of a way leading to a strengthened role of CSOs in formulating and implementing development programs, but in particular to an achievement of positive changes in developing and transition countries.

We would like to thank all authors who contributed to this publication, their organizations and partners in the Czech Republic as well as in remote regions of Africa and Asia. This publication could not exist without their open approach to sharing their own experience. Very special acknowledgments belongs to Daniel Svoboda from the Czech organization Development Worldwide for his unflagging energy with which he assumed the coordination of the process of identifying development effectiveness principles within FoRS and the editing of its results in the following texts.

Jana Krczmářová and Marie Zázvorková
FoRS Secretariat



The Basic Aspects of Multinational and Multicultural Cooperation



Jiří Silný | Ekumenická akademie

A) People and context

The implementation of a development project goes behind the technical aspects and includes also many other personal and social interactions in the given context which is usually culturally distinct. These interactions are key determinants of success and a long-term goal of the project. A development project should by definition support the human development and development of community and society in which it takes place. Not only expert knowledge but also soft skills of the project team play a significant role. Broader political context also has its importance.

The development cooperation and humanitarian aid has become an important sector of the economy, but also a tool for pursuing donor interests, sometimes even connected with pressure and corruption. In many similar situations, the development worker faces ethical dilemmas and needs support of his organization as well as local partners. Organizations which mix the development cooperation with pursuit of own interests are inevitably bound to lose their credibility.

Even in situations where only the aid matters, good intentions do not suffice. It is necessary to consider the impacts of this aid and above all respect those who are to be helped. For example, the situation in Sri Lanka after the tsunami has shown how the industry destroyed the local systems of mutual assistance by throwing around money. The uneven distribution of resources has resulted in renewal of the civil war.

The causes of poverty and other risks of the South are from a great part rooted in the behaviour of people in the rich countries which by diverse means exploit the poor countries. The current global economic crisis exposes the hypocrisy of governments in rich countries clearly enough: just a small fraction of resources provided to bankrupted banks and companies would get rid of all its undignified poverty in the world. Direct development cooperation should always be accompanied by supporting the efforts driving the systemic change of this undesirable state of affairs.

Clarification of roles of individual actors

Even though we are not speaking about development aid, but about development cooperation, the situation continues to be divided between those who have the financial, technical resources and know-how, and those who need the project, and also possess the competences to implement it. This imbalance of wealth and power leads to feelings of dominancy on one side and subordination on the other. Sufficient efforts must be invested in creating partner relationships as in their absence the project will not likely yield ideal results. Such a partnership is objectively based on interconnected nature of the world, on universal interest in development, elimination of inhumanity and reduction of potential conflicts.

The European project workers should reflect and admit their motives. Is it the intention to change the world? The desire to help? Curiosity? Working in an exotic job? The drive to self-fulfilment? Career? To escape from personal problems? Feelings of shame from living in a rich country?

Study interests? What does each of these motives mean for the project implementation?

The role of a project worker is determined by each project, but in all cases the important factors include: openness vis-à-vis the partners, capability to perceive their reality or their understanding of reality and on mutual willingness to understand the project as a common mission.

The local partners are specialists in local life. The project cannot function well without their active participation from the very beginning to the very end. Continuous communication and resolution of potential misunderstandings are essential.

Analysis of the Environment

At least a basic knowledge of history, culture and economy of the given country should be broadened with an analysis of the local and regional economic and social systems and their key players (central and local governments, private sector, religious and civic organizations).

The local community has its rules and roles which need to be recognized and respected to utilize local resources and knowledge to its greatest extent. This does not mean that an outsider is prevented from introducing a useful innovation – e.g. to help establish a cooperative farm, support the emancipation efforts of women etc. Such changes should be based on the needs which the given community defines by itself and this process should originate and be carried out within the community. The key role therefore lies in facilitation, in offering alternative solutions rather than promoting one's own visions.

B) Local Economy

The long-term economic and environmental sustainability of the development projects are linked to the strengthening of the local economy. The developing countries have a greater exposure to the world market turbulence, which they cannot influence. A great economic crisis often renders the results of long term local efforts useless. It also has been shown that big volumes of foreign direct investments usually mean for any country more risks than benefits. Economic localization is the most effective way to secure sufficient supplies of food and efficient use of other natural materials. Special benefits can be provided by the combination of self-subsistence and production for sale as practiced, for

example, within the fair trade system. The traditional methods of farming can be often combined with technical support, knowledge and methods which can be introduced by development cooperation.

One useful method is the promotion of buying local goods and services. The greater part of the available resources is returned to the local economy, the better the multiplication effect of revitalization and development works. The money spent on local produce and services help the employment, increase the local purchasing power and help to stabilize the farming. At the same time, it is desirable that the greatest possible part of infrastructure and public services are owned and managed on a local or a regional level that serves primarily to satisfy the needs of the inhabitants rather than to create a profit flowing out of the region.

A simple model for monitoring the flow of money in local economies called "Local Multiplier" can be found on the web pages of the Trust for Economics and Society (www.thinktank.cz).

C) Participative Democracy

The sustainability of development projects depends very much on their true adoption by communities for which they are intended. Each project should allow participation of all persons involved to support the good governance principles from the lowest level. A successful project can serve as an inspiration for other activities initiated by the community or as a catalyst for the community's development.

An interesting inspiration can be drawn from the practical principles of self-governing participative democracy as applied in Latin American people's movements. It needs to be stressed that these principles are not a theoretical model or doctrine, but a self-determination grassroots process open to further evolution. The experience with the participative democracy has shown that:

1. The participative democracy is initially used only in limited social environments such as villages or quarters. This fact is caused among other things by the need for accountability and trust.
2. It grows usually on the basis of shared identity, which can be historical, geographical or formed by a common interest.
3. The participative democracy starts with an open discussion during which no one is discriminated on grounds of gender,

age or other factors. It is often difficult to make sure that everyone has not only the right, but also the willingness and chance to participate. Sometimes the discussion needs a facilitator who beyond any doubt does not manipulate or monopolize the discussion.

4. Even though the participative decision making process leads to establishment of a spokesman who articulates common decisions, no autonomous decision making power is delegated to this function. That is why consensus is the most frequently employed principle as majority decisions require several spokespeople – one for the majority opinion and others for the minority beliefs.
5. The structure of participative democracy presupposes that the leader or representative does not make decisions by himself and ongoing consultations with the community take place in the participative decision making mode. This requires a horizontal structure of the decision making process resembling a net rather than a pyramid.
6. The goal of such co-decision process is the greatest possible level of decision making autonomy. The key values of the decision making community is independence and social responsibility.

A favourable environment for application of these principles exists in societies and communities with a great level of solidarity. On the other hand, an attempt to spread these principles is the process of learning the social cohesion. The principles of participative democracy can be well combined with the cooperative organization of the economic life. The good governance element suitably complements the element of common economic management for the greater benefit of all.

D) The Role of the Civil Society Organizations (CSOs)

There are certain types of projects (excluding, for example, great infrastructural or industrial constructions) that the Civil Society Organizations have a better predisposition for delivering the effectiveness and sustainability than commercial or governmental organizations. The advantages of CSOs are greater motivation of workers, flexibility, low operational and administrative costs, easier connection with the target groups and hands-on experience. This holds particularly well in developing countries when another CSO or the local government stands by the partner's side.

The CSOs are also in the best position to transform one-way development aid into both-way development cooperation. There are many ways to achieve that in the course of a development project, for example by using donor reports, public relations etc. In addition to the usual highlighting of project successes, the opportunity must be used to advocate the interests of partners in the developing country as it can be assumed that a single project could not address all of their problems. The most effective projects always operate from the beginning within a broader strategy to stimulate systemic changes towards economic, social and environmental sustainability, or their combination. Such projects can inspire the necessary changes in the developing countries.

Often we surprisingly discover that in some developing countries, an advanced and well-organized civic society has a relatively greater influence over public affairs than it has, for example, in the Czech Republic. The development cooperation with such partners can also have a result in knowledge transfer and finally strengthen our own civic society. Knowledge transfer and joint action networks within the global civil society are important elements, which balance the economical and political interests of governments and private companies. Such connections help the CSOs to increase their legitimacy and reputation in their domestic environment.

The CSOs are also at risk of being transformed into service organizations implementing projects on behalf of donors without influencing their orientation and strategy, or becoming an instrument of political interests. The CSO which loses its independence and its critical perspective ceases to be a true organization of a civic society. This problem is of course connected with the financing of the projects and with the conditions set out by the donors. It is obvious that the current trends tend to limit the independence and influence of CSOs in the European environment. We need to stress once again that the changes in the desired direction can be brought on only by collective and long-lasting efforts. Well functioning communication, coordination and cooperation between individual organizations in national platforms and other associations is instrumental to these efforts. The opposite trend of distrust and rivalry even between organizations with similar goals exists as well, which weakens the civil society.

The strategy of financing plays a key role in securing independence and freedom of decision-making. The financing

should be based on multiple sources of funding including contributions from members and supporters of the organization, or from its own for-profit activities if these are in line with the organization's principles.

The position of a CSO will be certainly compromised by insufficient transparency, above all in financing, the decision making process or the member base. The opposite can be achieved by creating and adhering to inner ethical standards or by practicing open communication towards the public and the stakeholders.

The role of CSOs is unique both in society and development cooperation. The deserved social position and recognition

is, however, not immediately granted but must be defended by demonstrating competence, trustworthiness and critical engagement.

Jiří Silný, Ekumenická akademie, March 2009

Jiří Silný is a theologian and the director of Ecumenical Academy Prague active in the field of development education, campaigning and networking in Czech Republic and internationally. He focuses mainly on structural problems of development (debt crisis, international financial institutions, trade) and on advocating alternative models of development such as fair trade.

This study was originally intended as an introduction for the following chapter on sustainable technologies and local cycle management. It, however, addresses questions and principles that are fundamental for the whole development cooperation area and the role of the civil society organizations within this process. Our recommendation to readers therefore is to interpret the following chapters within the perspectives outlined above.

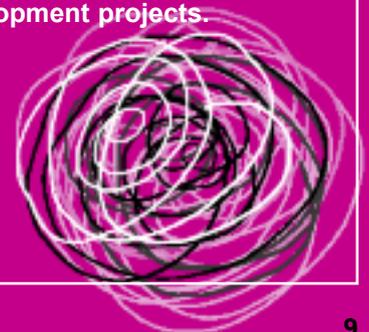
Daniel Svoboda, Editor

Sustainable Technologies

The Framework Document has been prepared by an international working group of specialists from NGOs and other sectors. The group's discussion lasted for several months and was concluded at a workshop in February 2009. The Framework Document analyzes the sustainable development from four key perspectives:

- Renewable energy sources
(and local power supply)
- Sustainable agriculture
- Use and protection of water sources
- Local cycle management.

The analytical work and recommended actions included in this document reflect our extensive project experience as well as inputs and suggestions from research and academic institutions. Selected sections of the Framework Document are also illustrated in case studies based on specific development projects.





Zambia, photo: Tomáš Tožička

A) Framework Document of the Working Group for Sustainable Technologies “Sustainable Technologies and Local Power Supply“

We have gathered a group of development professionals working on both practical and strategic levels to seek suitable tools for development of the poor and the poorest regions of our planet. We share the vision that we need to develop and utilize technologies which can be used on the local level, are sustainable and have the greatest multiplication effect. In addition to the technological perspective, we need to choose suitable management methods which will be participative, intercultural, transparent, controllable and accessible. These starting points have led us to focus on the following areas: renewable energy sources; sustainable agriculture; use and protection of water sources and local cycle management. The requirement of local sustainability gains special importance in the current time of global economic crisis, which further complicates the position of the developing countries.

We understand that:

1) As regards the renewable energy sources:

a) The fossil-nuclear energetic sources cannot respond needs of remote rural communities due to high cost of building and maintaining the power distribution networks and to energy losses from transmission at long distances. It is above all in the developing countries where the photovoltaic systems offer stable output of energy. Compared to central Europe, their power generation capacity is approximately double. The cost of electricity supplied by distribution networks will be in close future greater than cost of locally generated electricity from renewable sources. The ever increasing costs of fossil and nuclear sources will paralyze the life in developing countries.

The key objective of the local development projects is to achieve the greatest possible self-subsistence, security and dignity. It is essential to create political and economic conditions which will secure sufficient production, local job opportunities and income for the whole community. Cross-cutting objectives include improvement of the position of women and other marginalized groups in society, and environment protection. We want to introduce these principles with the cooperation of NGOs, academic institutions, private companies and public institutions which all participate in the implementation of development projects.

Therefore we believe:

1) As regards the renewable energy sources:

A) It is essential to seek suitable energy sources for remote communities utilizing the existing technologies such as photovoltaic, wind turbine, small scale hydro power, biomass etc. At the same time, the direct transmission of mechanical energy to machines and equipment should be considered. It is important to create clear technological procedures, guidelines and handbooks for implementation and suitable combination of energy sources, covering both individual installations and construction of local distribution networks (*see examples from Zambia and Kenya*). It is necessary to increase capacities within existing educational programs to include the renewable energy sources, above all in the polytechnic education. The rationale of this is not only to create the technical

b) Even though there exist sustainable technologies which could help the poor and remote communities, these technologies are not ready for deployment in developing countries. It is necessary to adapt these technologies to ensure reliable operation even in extreme conditions of developing countries.

c) The single greatest energy need of poor people in developing countries is related to cooking. The increased demand for wood fuel often leads to deforestation. Imperfect burning conditions produce toxic emissions which create health hazards for women and children.

d) New technologies may have greater negative environmental impact

facilities, but also the skills required for reliable and safe operations. The training can be organized on site in the developing countries. Another approach is to organize the training in developed countries to include practical experience in companies manufacturing or installing the renewable energy solutions.

B) It is essential to focus on efficient adoption of modern technologies for deployment in poor and remote communities. The most prospective way is based on modules which allow combination of technological systems suited for a particular situation, with little requirements on on-site installation, easy to repair (via whole module replacement) and easy to manipulate. We also need to consider the protection against extreme operating conditions in the tropical and subtropical areas (e.g. high temperatures, humidity, electrostatic discharge, insects and other factors.)

C) More efficient ways of burning wood fuel in stoves must be discovered and implemented while respecting the traditional methods of preparing the food. Improvements in forest management should be introduced. Alternatives to wood fuel should be sought, for an example:

- using locally produced vegetable oil or materials remaining after oil extraction
- using biomass to produce biogas
- using solar cookers

D) Elimination and avoidance of negative environmental impacts must be considered from early stages of the project lifecycle. Procedures for recycling or safe temporary storage of waste must be introduced.

2) As regards the sustainable farming:

a) One of the main problems of developing countries is the commercially and export oriented monoculture farming whose impacts threaten the environmental, economic and social stability of the rural communities. The poor people lack appropriate technical assistance, suitable tools, quality seeds and markets for their produce.

b) Inadequate technological practice of (mostly commercial) farming brings about the risks of soil erosion, loss of soil fertility, salination, loss of biodiversity and increases the exposure to climate change, diseases, pests and other biotic factors. The health of workers is also at stake.

The cause of problems in many regions of the developing countries include insufficient knowledge (e.g. of natural fertilizers or pesticides, suitable irrigation systems etc.) or inadequate knowledge transfer.

c) Biomass which is not used for food, feeding or other direct use, can be potentially exploited as energy source, fertilizer, or mechanical protection increasing the effect of agricultural procedures. The production of energy from biomass can significantly enhance the living standards of rural people.

2) As regards the sustainable farming:

A) It is necessary to analyze the causes of problems, support agricultural systems based on environmental balance respecting local natural and cultural conditions, consider the preservation of biodiversity, cultural landscape, climate, air and water (*see the example from the Rusinga Island in Kenya*).

B) We have to focus on supporting the agricultural practice based on environmentally sustainable systems and cycles, work in alignment with them and sustain them. The inputs must be reduced by recycling, economizing the material used and energy consumption to conserve the quality of environment and preserve resources.

C) We need to look for suitable technologies to use residual biomass within the possibilities given by the social, economic and natural conditions of communities. We also need to support the spread of information and clear technological procedures, guidelines and trainings for recipients and implementing organizations of development projects in areas related to use of the residual biomass (*see the Angolan case*).

d) The agriculture of developing countries often commercially produces biofuel for export to developed countries at the expense of food safety and biodiversity.

e) Pharmaceuticals are often inaccessible, either due to their price, or due to lack of access to health care institutions. Traditional medicine used in the developing countries is often ineffective, based on myths, or does not meet hygiene standards.

3) As regards the use and protection of water sources:

a) One of the essential problems of developing countries is the access to safe water.

b) Use of inadequate water sources, absence of protective measures and low awareness of proper water protection measures in communities often lead to serious diseases, which in many cases have an epidemic scale.

4) As regards the local cycle management

a) Directive introduction of principles of industrial management or procedures required by donors is not suitable for the community planning approach.

b) The required level of sustainability of the development projects often does not take into account local conditions.

c) The impact of the project on the development of local economic mechanisms is often not considered in development projects.

d) The evaluation of short-term, medium-term and long-term impacts of development projects is not sufficient.

D) It is essential to support the production of biofuel for regional consumption only.

E) It is necessary to train health professionals and traditional healers to employ the efficient methods of traditional medicine, above all in growing healing herbs, preparing herbal medicines and other forms of herbal best practice.

3) As regards the use and protection of water sources:

A) It is essential to look for optimal water supply solutions and in greatest extent possible take into consideration the natural conditions and needs of local communities, suitability of proposed technologies and sustainability of use and protection of the water sources (*as illustrated on the case study from Kenya*).

B) The key objective is to increase the awareness of inhabitants about the principles of hygiene, water use and protection and to make them aware of key risks. It is also important to build technical infrastructure and train the operations staff. At the same time, waste water related risks need to be minimized (*see the case study from Uzbekistan*).

4) As regards the local cycle management

A) Use adequate management techniques in project preparation and execution. Develop adequate techniques in partner cooperation to reflect the local, social and cultural conditions and to strengthen the community ownership. The principle of common but differentiated responsibilities must be applied.

B) The sustainability and its role must be defined based on the focus and scope of development projects. Sustainability must be specified within given geographical, political, social and cultural context.

C) It is necessary to support the local economic relationships and multiplication effect of investments on local economic development. A suitable measuring tool is, for example, the Local Multiplier 3 (lm3) approach developed by the New Economic Foundation.

D) The goal of evaluation must be the transfer of knowledge, avoidance of future errors and general inputs for planning future projects. It is necessary to respect in the evaluation the specific sustainability of development projects (see section B) and support it in appropriate time horizon. The assessment must be based on cooperation with all of the stakeholders involved on the partner side. These stakeholders must be able to influence the selection of evaluation criteria and must be able to benefit from the evaluation report.

B) Electrification of Remote Areas of Zambia



Tomáš Tožička, Martina Mandová

An implementation team of a consortium of Czech NGOs completed several electrification projects in Zambia's remote rural areas of the Southern and Central Province. These projects took place between 2005 and 2007.

The project in Masuku has brought electricity and running water to a secondary school, a clinic and electrified households of 22 families. Its total cost reached 4.5 million CZK. The Czech and Canadian governments contributed 2 million CZK each while the rest was financed from sources of Czech and German NGOs, the United Church of Zambia and Zambia's Ministry of Health.

The Naluyanda project's total cost reached 2.3 million CZK. The project included an electrification of a well, a community center and a clinic. The Czech and Canadian governments contributed 1 million each, the rest of the costs were covered by Czech ADRA, German Gossner Mission and Naluyanda Integrated Project.

In both communities, solar-powered water pumps were installed to facilitate the access to clean potable water. Milan Smrž, the Vice-Chairman of the Eurosolar Association, describes the concept of the project: *"The Zambian government, according to declaration of the Ministry for Energy and Water Development, supports the electrification of rural areas. The Ministry acknowledges the fact that rural areas cannot be electrified by other means than isolated power systems. We were able to fulfill this requirement and helped to implement a project initiated by Masuku and Naluyanda communities. The use of photovoltaic panels is the most efficient solution considering the cost, power*

output and maintenance requirements. In addition to that, we used a small wind turbine as an auxiliary and backup source in Naluyanda."

Our assessment of a short-term impact concluded that electrification has had and will continue to have a positive impact on increasing the quantitative indicators of the clinics, the school and the community center (an increased number of patients and nurses, an increase of patients coming at night, shortening the hospital stay, an increase in the number of students, teachers or the number of trainers and people interested in activities at the community center). The qualitative indicators have increased as well in relation to the enhanced social position of the community (stabilizing the teaching staff, an increase in number of teachers extending their education, an improvement of hospital care thanks to the use of a sterilizer and other electric devices). In the school year 2006/2007, the grades of students in Masuku have significantly improved.

"The cooperation with the Masuku community is on relatively high level, great part of the work is taken care of by a dedicated commission. The commission is also responsible for maintenance, oversees effective operations and collects the usage fees," said Project Coordinator Tomas Tozicka. "The situation in Naluyanda is even more favorable as their project can use expert staff with greater technical facilities. The equipment will operate for at least 25 years, during which enough resources should be accumulated for replacement of the equipment and extension of the electrified area. The ADRA staff stays in touch with both communities after the end of project."

The project has also encountered problems. Thanks to proactive preparation of the project team and also thanks to dedicated financial resources for local logistics, the team has resolved issues related to the transport of materials for great distances on unpaved roads with limited supply of vehicles; as well as inadequate equipment on site.

The unresolved issues are related to changed electromagnetic conditions influenced especially in the Southern Province by heavy floods and increased incidence of storms that pose a danger to the equipment. It will be therefore necessary to improve the lightning protection and adapt the equipment to climate change.

Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

- **Link to global and national strategies** – the project complements the Millennium Development Goals (7th goal, task 9 and 10), and the plans of the Government of Zambia and addresses a situation in remote communities.
- **Ownership** – the need of these projects has been identified directly by the communities and the communities were directly involved in the project implementation. At the present time, they manage the operations and maintenance, participate in collection of usage fees (i.e. on financing of the operations), communicate and consult with the implementation team and participate in evaluation. Clear distribution of responsibilities among project stakeholders is also closely related to the ownership.
- **Harmonization** – the projects are good examples for cooperation between donors (trilateral program involving Canada, the Czech Republic and Zambia), local authorities, leadership of the communities and also several NGOs and technology suppliers.
- **Appropriate use of technology.** At the time of the project, only 2% of Zambia's population had electricity. Moreover, 60% of the population lives in rural, often inaccessible areas. Therefore, building local off-grid electrification using sustainable technologies is the only solution. The most suitable solution should consist from technological units that can be combined based on the need and are easy to deploy, operate and maintain. These units must also be adopted for the extreme subtropical conditions (protection against humidity and insects, materials resistant to high temperatures and temperature changes).
- **Environmental protection.** The projects supply locally produced electricity from photovoltaic and wind sources

and significantly reduce the use of fossil fuels for power generators and cooling.

- **Economic sustainability.** The money saved on fuel, candles and transportation, as well as revenue collected from electricity and water pump users will run over the technological twenty-five years lifespan of the photovoltaic systems, it will generate sufficient resources for small scale maintenance and partial replacement.
- **Socio-cultural impacts.** The projects were aimed at improving living conditions in the communities by supplying electricity and water for local institutions, their clients and staff. The positive impact on the life in the community can be documented above all by qualitative indicators such as an improved performance by students, an increase in teacher quality or an improvement in hospital care, which all enhance the socio-cultural status of the communities.

The Role of CSOs

- **Deeper interest in quality of life and needs of remote rural communities.** Remote communities with health or educational centres of the given area have limited significance from the national perspective and their location complicates the logistics. Therefore, efficient help to these communities is outside capacity of the central government and lies outside the interest of commercial institutions.
- **The support of financial self-subsistence of the communities.** The communities do not have the capability to secure their development by themselves without external financial resources. Projects of this type with local multiplication therefore increase the independence of communities.
- **Facilitating role.** NGOs have helped to connect the stakeholders on several levels (sponsors, local authorities, traditional leadership, communities, NGOs etc.).
- **Building local capacities.** The cooperation with a specific community and its inhabitants, creating the atmosphere of mutual respect, providing the training and consulting.

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Tomáš Tožička is a technician and theologian. In the 1990s he was occupying leading positions in diverse social services institutions. Since 1998 he has been focusing on the development agenda – co-organizing development education and public awareness projects. He coordinated a three-year electrification projects in remote areas in Zambia.

C) Katuše Kubíková: Electricity from the Sun Brings Water for Drinking and Irrigation



Katuše Kubíková

The first article analyzes the situation on a small and isolated area – the Rusinga Island in the Kenyan part of Lake Victoria. The region faces many challenges and an introduction of sustainable technology solutions is a possible way to resolve them. This article describes three completed projects aimed at the use of renewable energy sources, securing clean potable water and improving management of a family farm. The case studies include brief descriptions of the projects as well as an assessment of their impact up to date. The assessment was done based on the data provided by a local coordinator who has been involved in the project since the very beginning and who has been managing them since then.

The Energy from the Sun. In 2006, we installed the photovoltaic systems in four elementary schools and in the community center, “The Island of Hope” as a part of project called, “Electricity from the Sun to the Kenyan schools.” This project took place between 2004 and 2006 within the official foreign development aid of the Czech Republic. The project leader was NGO Narovinu, the supplier of the photovoltaic system was the Solartec Company whose staff also provided the initial training in Kenya and assisted with installation of the first three systems. In the following years, the installations were done with internal project resources, without the involvement of the Czech experts.

The standard unit designed for each school includes a photovoltaic field of five panels, a regulator, an inverter and batteries. Two computers with LCD display and an ink printer complemented each installation. The number of lights varies in each installation. An auxiliary system with

3 panels was installed in a community center which included a kindergarten, an orphanage, an educational center and a kitchen to provide sufficient energy for all of the appliances (5 computers, 1 printer, and 31 lights). The systems are also used to charge batteries of small devices. Since the installation (mid-2006), the system maintenance (community center only) has cost about 10 000 KES (30-40 000 CZK varying by the current exchange rate). The Center offers two paid services: recharges of mobile telephones batteries and printing. The monthly revenue from those activities reaches 1 000 KES, which means that ordinary maintenance can be easily covered from this income. A real issue is the limited chance to use computers whose power usage could consume all of the electricity needed for lightning the facility at night. Practically speaking, this means that only one computer can be used. Two other schools operate the photovoltaic systems without greater difficulties. At the other two schools, the system is out of order due to technical failure. The ordinary maintenance of systems can be covered from the battery recharging income, but greater service needs must be financed from the school's budget, which has shown to be an issue in a few cases.



The Water for the Island of Hope. The water from Lake Victoria is often used for drinking purposes without any purification, which results in high levels of waterborne diseases. To supply the community center and its vicinity with clean drinking water we designed a supply system with a well, a water pump, a multi-layer filtration and disinfection system, a storage space (15 m³) and distribution to the point of use. The equipment has the capacity to produce 50 to 60 m³ of water daily. Due to the lack of financial resources, the project has been reduced to supplying the community center with water, while the extension of the distribution network to other points of use is possible anytime in the future. The project was prepared in cooperation with o.s. Narovinu and companies GRYF HB and WASTECH a.s. The project was financed from the resources of o.s. Narovinu and other sponsors. The work of Czech experts and laboratory analyses were provided pro bono. The deployment had two stages: in 2007, the well was dug, laboratory analysis of water was performed and the construction of the water facility building began. The second stage included the completion of the building and washing room, preparation of the equipment in the Czech Republic and on-site installation (June 2008). Currently, the technology is used only for the needs of the community center. The current daily consumption is 2.3 m³ of water with expected future increase. Since the start of operations, 308 m³ of water has been processed. The only cost related to the technology is the fuel needed for the power generator and on a smaller scale also its maintenance. Operating costs for the first 9 months of operations were almost 70 000 KES (out of that 66 200 KES was the fuel cost). One liter of water is therefore produced for approximately 0.2 KES. The maintenance of the water processing part requires washing the filters approximately once every 3 months and measuring the active chlorine levels. The analyses of water is not performed due to unavailability of laboratories close enough to the location.



It is also appropriate to mention the problems encountered within the project. The project was unique in the local conditions as it introduced not only the technological facility, but also the method of digging shallow wells. Due to the lack of knowledge or low awareness of the importance of the project activities, there were some complications caused by missing preceding steps that were a prerequisite for completion of the given task. When the equipment was delayed for several days at Customs in Nairobi, the previously peaceful project implementation turned into a race against time. This resulted in lack of time for the trial period, its evaluation and proper training of the operations staff. On the other hand, we spent a great amount of time digging the filtering sand from local sources and preparing the fractions required for filtration. There was also an issue to prepare the disinfecting solution for the correct concentration. The only scales available (on workdays only) were fish scales with accuracy of ca. 100 g. We finally prepared the proper concentration using an electricity cable holder, a cable and a soap bar of specified weight. In addition to all these almost funny small problems we also encountered a more serious situation. Many risks find their way into the "External Threats" section of a project plan, but no one takes them into practical consideration. This serious situation was the post-election unrest which sprung up in Kenya at the turn of 2007 and 2008 and which among other things led to delay in project delivery by several months.

The first two examples are part of a greater project from a community center "The Island of Hope" on Rusinga Island. The operating and maintenance costs are included in the overall budget of the facility. The incomes of the facility are from the greatest part the gifts from sponsors (adoption) and tuition, the sustainability of the whole project and its individual parts is in a large extent dependent on external factors.

The case of the family farm is different from the first two examples. The project is not initiated and supported by NGOs or other donors, but it is purely a family matter. Until 2005, the family farmed on about 0.8 hectares of land. The yield has not been stable and has not sufficed to cover the needs of the family, especially in the last few years with limited rainfall most small farmers have been seeing unusually low harvests. After an evening discussion of the problem and advice from Czech friends, the head of the family has decided to try to improve the situation. The initial investment in a water pump, pipes and fencing reached almost 60 000 KES. The irrigation, however, significantly

increased the yields and the investment was paid back as early as in the first year. Currently, the family farms on almost 2 hectares, with two harvests a year. In the first half of year, the family grows corn, millet and beans, while vegetables are produced in the second half. About five people run the farm. The annual costs of operating the water pump, seeds, fertilizers, plant protection and maintenance averages 25 000 KES. The produce is marketed through an intermediary who purchases it directly from the farm. The annual return from the farm over the years with good harvests is as high as 250 000 KES. How does the head of the family see his decision after almost four years?

“I can certainly recommend similar activities to others. Farming is more advantageous than fishing and a properly managed farm can contribute greatly to the reduction of poverty. Many people from the neighborhood are now motivated by our example and want to start something similar. I do not take it as a competition. If needed, we can loan them the pump and pipes, we provide advice to each other. We plan to increase production and start growing fruits even though I am not sure whether my land is suitable for it. The family is now more self-subsistent, we have fresh vegetables, and source of income and our time is more efficiently spent. Yes, we have also problems with selling our produce as more and more people grow the same plants and the prices go down.”

Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

We used three cases to illustrate the solution to a given problem on a community level. When transferring the know-how and technology, it is essential to thoroughly consider the **comprehensibility** of the equipment for the recipient, the availability of spare parts and the service in the given country, provide sufficient room for training the local staff and include the individual project phases to a **broader context** of community activities. We must not underestimate the time factor, above all in the case of technologies previously unknown for the recipient and which require thorough preparation at the installation site.

We have also used one case to show a small family project, where **personal interest** on the outcome guarantees long term sustainability without external assistance. The successful family business also motivates people in the vicinity. Development of family businesses is certainly one of the effective ways of developing the remote areas.

The experience has shown that **ownership** is a very important factor driving success and sustainability of projects. The projects mentioned above were undertaken in area whose community assumed active role in solving its problems and the project scope was identified in cooperation with the community. The success of operations of the photovoltaic systems varies in each school and the most critical factor is the involvement of the school's management. This factor consequently determines the project sustainability. The passive approach and low willingness to create reserve funds to cover the maintenance threatens the success of the whole project.

The use of more advanced technologies (in the case of water processing facility) which requires both regular financing (energy and maintenance) and a higher level of technical infrastructure or qualification is suitable only in situations where financial resources for maintenance can be drawn from regular institutional budgets (e.g. school, community center), and where earlier cooperation has proven to be a proactive approach of the community and management capabilities. A specific factor to consider is the interest not only in the project maintenance, but also in its development and in spreading the knowledge to others. The role of **strong local individuals** who can motivate the community, direct it and explain the project has been confirmed more than once as essential.

A very sensitive issue is to create an atmosphere of partnership. If the recipient-donor relationship prevails, it can further deepen the passive role of the aid recipient. On the other hand, a situation with an active local community performing volunteer unpaid work must be also carefully handled to avoid feelings of “abuse” of unpaid workers vis-à-vis the usually paid local project managers.

The Role of CSOs

Perhaps the most essential value added by the civil society organizations is the truly **partner (friendly) relations** and a personal interest in the results. Purely “technological” solutions cannot work without personal responsibility and a human approach. It is also important to seek **co-financing** of projects from CSO's own sources which allows focus on long-term and complex development of target communities.

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D) The Story of One Island



Katuše Kubíková

The plane from Entebe, Uganda heading to Nairobi, Kenya flies over the silver surface of Lake Victoria which mirrors the morning sun. Small islands rising above the lake look like scattered pebbles. It is the rainy season and the flooded rivers bring thousands of tons of fertile reddish soil into the lake...

We are sitting on a stony hill with the local teacher: "I used to tend cattle here as a small boy. Everything around was juicy green, I was resting in the shade of trees and I returned home only at the evening," recalls Joash. Thirty years later, the place where we sit resembles a stony desert. There is not a single leaf, not speaking about trees. Only a few thorny bushes are struggling to survive in the harsh conditions. A few tens of meters lower the bushes get more frequent and further below you can see small fields which are for most of the inhabitants one of the few ways to earn a living.

A long time ago, small brooks ran in the island's valleys. Today, the valleys resemble deep and unhealed scars. Water fills them only in times of heavy rainfall when the unrestrained torrents cause more damage than good as they destroy all the roads in their way and year after year take away more of the remaining fertile soil into the lake. All local system of small scale farming unfortunately also contributes to the soil erosion. The traditional and most prevailing product is corn which increases the risk of erosion especially on sloped fields.

Looking at the green belt around the island coast is more optimistic. Vegetables and fruits are grown in addition to

corn and millet and the irrigation offers reasonable yields. Small farms are able to supply their produce not only to its own family or farming community, but also to the market which becomes an important source of financial resources. If the financial situation of a family allows to purchase a pump and irrigate its fields, yields considerably increase. However, only a small percentage of families are capable to carry out such an investment.



Despite the unfavorable conditions for pasture, small scale cattle raising is one of the ways to increase the self-subsistence and feed the numerous families. However, the dry season often brings cattle into a particularly miserable state and exceptionally dry summers drive up cattle deaths. The last green areas are continuously grazed by cattle and goats and any attempts to reintroduce the foliage have no effect without irrigation and fencing.

The traditional and up to date dominant occupation is fishing. The topic of fishing in Lake Victoria has already been extensively described and discussed. The artificial introduction of the Nile perch has led to substantial reduction in populations of other fish species, for some even leading to extinction. The decreasing fish population in the lake has led the government to introduce some restrictive measures. Nonetheless, fishing is the source of income for the majority of inhabitants. Currently, 20 000 inhabitants populate the 40 km² of the Rusinga Island and their number is sharply increasing...



The past years have seen significant changes in the distribution of rainfalls. Ten to twenty years ago, a sufficient rainfall count was provided by two rainy seasons. A short rainy season came after seeding, while the long rains secured sufficient growth of the crops. The island's inhabitants, however, cannot rely on this any longer.

The lack of water on the island washed by waters of the second largest freshwater lake is quite paradoxical. There is lack of water for the agriculture, but clean drinking water is also a great issue. The lake as understood locally is a multifunction system. In addition to fishing it provides drinking water, at the same time it serves as a bathroom, a washroom, a car wash and a deposit of sewage from the densely populated mainland areas... A negative impact on the natural flow of water brought the construction of an artificial causeway which has connected Rusinga to the

mainland. It allows easy connection between the mainland and the island, but creates a barrier for the boat transport and for smooth movement of water masses. The water next to the causeway is highly contaminated, higher levels of eutrophication occur and the fragile ecosystem of the area is further misbalanced. This is by far not an exhaustive list of issues, we could continue on and on...

It is obvious that the environmental balance of the island is significantly disturbed and the future of this area is at stake. The situation cannot be restored to previous state, but we can at least save what is threatened.

Rusinga Island is only one of the countless cases which can be found with small differences all around the globe. Any attempts to significantly improve the situation is usually limited by insufficient funds, missing technical facilities and often also by a lack of shared understanding in the community that the interrelated problems need to be addressed in context and not in an isolated way.

Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

The closed "island" systems are more dependent than others by overall environmental balance. The issue is that the communities often see only the problem symptoms rather than its causes. At this respect, we need to stress the **importance of working with community**, the need to analyze the causes and the context of the problems and seek ways to a sustainable solution. It is important to underline the **need of a complex solution** and inclusion of all particular projects in the community systems.

The examples such as Rusinga Island are a challenge for broader **introduction of sustainable technologies** – use of renewable energy sources, sustainable and conservative agriculture, securing access to clean drinking water and inter-linking all parts of the project with the community systems.

The Role of CSOs

Working with community, the ability to understand the local needs and capabilities is the key advantage of the CSO, as no technology can start an efficient development without support and full participation of the community. The role of CSO is also very important when finding new **partnerships** across sectors or regions.

E) The Sustainable Technologies in Agriculture – Experience from Bié Province, Angola



Jana Mazancová, Jiří Hejkrlik

Introduction

For many years, Angola was affected by war and conflict which influenced all aspects of life for Angolans who are primarily and directly dependent on agricultural activities. The traditionally agricultural province Bié is one of the areas most affected by the consequences of the war. The following facts present the greatest impediments to the development of agriculture and food self-sufficiency of the population: great share of farming land is mined; arable land with low share of organic matter is unilaterally exhausted; absence of measures against soil erosion; an absence of diversified seeding plan; an absence of market with agricultural inputs; lack of knowledge of agricultural technologies; disruption of the transfer of agricultural knowledge between generations etc.

The Foreign Development Aid of the Czech Republic sponsors building the agricultural education in Bié since 2004. These projects have included cooperation with NGO CARE International in the field of implementation of sustainable technologies enhancing the agricultural processes. These technologies included the introduction of composting, mulching and testing of energy production from biomass.

Composting and Mulching

Composting and mulching are two techniques which require very simple procedures while offering very good results, especially in Angolan climate.

CARE International helped us to select rural communities already participating in other CARE programs. The first meeting with the community was organized as a personal

visit and allowed discussion with the local representatives around the possibilities of including the community in agricultural consulting program with on-site demonstrations of compost and mulch production. In case the community showed interest, the second meeting was organized as a practical workshop about procedures and principles of manufacturing the compost and mulch. Due to large sizes of communities, the workshop could not be organized for everyone. The community, however, decided to select a group of 20 people which will represent all the social groups, i.e. also those defined as “endangered” – youth and girls, women and widows. It is assumed that after the end of this program, the target group will continue to spread the acquired knowledge. During the practical part of the workshop, a suitable place and material to set up the compost was chosen based on agreement with the community. The compost was to be set up by the next meeting in four weeks. Consultations on composting and mulching continued once per month, if the state of roads permitted the visit to the community. The whole project took seven months (most of it in the rain period) and included three communities. At the beginning of the implementation, the conditions were measured by Rapid Rural Appraisal methods and additional research was made in the course of the project to map the requirements of the communities in the field of rural development. The development opportunities of each community were assessed from the perspective of competences, labor force and resources.

Project Deliverables:

- 3 x 20 trained community members who gained new skills and knowledge through the workshop and follow-up consulting process

- Community I – three piles of compost set up, two of them developed to the mature stage and applied on local fields
- Community II – set up one pile of compost, but lost interest after two months.
- Community III – three compost piles set up which were stolen in the time of maturity
- In addition to the community composts, the community members reported having set up private composts (the project staff has seen only two private composts in Community I)
- In each community, a layer of mulch was applied on several fields adjacent to the houses.



Key Challenges and Specific Recommendations:

- Due to the “emergency” situation in the post-war Angola and a great number of programs based on distribution of food or agricultural inputs, it was very difficult to find communities willing to accept the participative development activity which must be carried out by the community (the project team supplying only the know-how and on-site consulting). Unfortunately, the project team was also physically attacked in one community after its members found out that the program is not based on distribution.
- Community selection of the target group. In most cases, the formal requirement to represent all groups of given society. However, not all participants joined the group voluntarily and by own interest, which adversely impacted their participation in the workshop and the work as such.
- In all cases the target group included the highest representatives of the community, which complicated any collective discussions and decisions due to their authority.
- The distribution of work duties during setting up and maintaining the compost. The proposal of work distribution, responsibilities and benefits was discussed

- in participatory way on the initial workshop and follow-up consultations. The project team wanted to create in cooperation with the group a single plan of work, responsibility and benefits. This, however, was achieved only in one case. The fulfillment of the plan was not very successful either, unless a controlling person was someone from the representatives of the community.
- To achieve successful implementation, it was necessary to perform the study of daily routines, which is a participative method to find optimal distribution of composting work from the perspective of the group as well as individual. This approach is very demanding on capacities and time of everyone involved (project team, group, individuals).
- The compost piles were several times destroyed by animals (home or wild), it is recommended to protect them well.
- Even though manure is suitable material for composting, it is necessary to make sure that only manure from herbivorous animals is used and also adequately handled (above all respect the hygiene).
- The implementation of mulching has been relatively successful. The reason can be very simple manufacturing technique, short production time and high availability of material.
- The quality of infrastructure was very bad in the whole province and the more isolated and more remote community was completely inaccessible, which impacted the implementation results. It is therefore more suitable to organize pilots in closer communities which are reachable also in worse conditions.
- The implementation period was unfortunately too short to reach satisfactory and visible results and to properly educate the community in the given practice.

Testing of Biogas Production

Within the foundation and management of the Center of Agricultural Education of the Bié Province in Kuito, we constructed and tested equipment for biogas production. The biogas production was intended above all for demonstration purposes – within the specific courses and to spur interest in the expert community. A simple biogas reactor was designed to supply biogas for cooking. This would save time which rural women spend collecting wood fuel and limit their exposure to landmines (women often look for wood in mined or potentially mined areas). With appropriate extension of technology and increased biogas production, it could be also possible to use biogas to

generate electricity. This form of use, however, requires greater initial investment.

Project Outputs

- Successful construction and launch of one-cluster biogas reactor which utilizes agricultural waste.
- The reactor was used for demonstration during the courses on secondary agricultural school in Kuito.

Key Challenges and Specific Recommendations

- The design of a single charge reactor was derived from instructions in an FAO handbook. The instructions were clearly and simply described. When translated into Portuguese and Umbundu and complemented by pictures of the demonstration reactor, the handbook could be well used to spread the technology to rural communities.
- Material to build the reactor. In 2005, it was necessary to import all parts, but the situation has changed for better and in 2009 all needed material is available in Angola. It is of course always recommended to source material locally.
- The organic matter used to produce biogas. Due to strong agricultural tradition in the Bié province, the project expected sufficient availability of agricultural waste material. In 2005, however, we encountered absolute lack of manure from herbivorous animals as the basic material for biogas production. The situation changed for the better in the following years and currently the quantity and quality of organic matter should not present any issue.
- The research conducted randomly in several rural communities in 2005 and 2006 has revealed that the interest to implement biogas technology is very limited. This lack of interest stems from the following facts:
 - Low price of fuels. Even though fuels were not always available in the province, the farmers often preferred waiting for some time without fuel to introducing a new technology.
 - Traditional practice of collecting the wood fuel, or producing the charcoal. This, however, negatively influences the local ecosystems and leads to deforestation.
 - Financial and labor requirements to construct the reactor, the need to find the material. The need to invest time and labor to collect and prepare the organic matter and manipulation with manure.
 - Wrong time to introduce the technology in Angola (rural population was involved in programs distributing food and agricultural inputs), and relative sufficiency

of financial resources for technology implementation.

Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

Based on the above experience, we find it necessary to consider the following principles when designing and implementing rural development projects:

- **Mechanisms of true responsibility** – own completely open assessment of efficiency, effectiveness and real impacts of the project. Learning from the outcomes of this internal evaluation.
- **Local project ownership** – the need to base the project on real needs and clear interest of the target groups. External pressure or introduction of artificial rules are not efficient, even though they are generally beneficial for the target groups.
- **Technologies and procedures suitable for the local conditions.**
- **The knowledge of local socio-economic environment** – the need for mutual understanding and empathy, the need to understand the rules and dynamics of the given society, its traditions and habits.
- **Shared responsibility for the results** – the participative mechanisms provide room for shared responsibility of the target group for the effectiveness and real impacts of the undertaken measures. The distribution mechanisms are not sustainable and often have minimal long-term effects, and often they also have negative effects.

The Role of CSOs

The CSOs are responsible not only to donors and sponsors, but also to the citizens. Thus, they have a greater chance in winning the confidence of the community and to catalyze and **facilitate** the necessary changes.

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F) Improving the Quality of Drinking and Irrigation Water in the Aral Sea Area



Josef Miklík

Introduction

Uzbekistan as a historical territory gained independence after the fall of the USSR and set on a journey of difficult contemporary development. The Czech Ministry of Agriculture has decided to direct development cooperation efforts with Uzbekistan and has opened a project called, “Improving the Quality of Drinking and Irrigation Water in the Aral Sea Area using Czech equipment and sorbents.” It was decided that this project will be undertaken by the Czech University of Life Sciences Prague, Institute of Tropics and Subtropics in cooperation with the company PROTE, Ltd.

At the end of 2008, the project was successfully completed and handed over to the people. I will try to outline the project history and its key lessons.

The Environmental Situation in the Aral Sea Area

Large scale irrigation of mainly cotton fields has caused serious environmental problems in Uzbekistan. Their most dramatic impact is the drying of the Aral Sea. According to the World Bank, the negative impacts of irrigation have impacted the Aral Sea region in the following ways:

- 1) Loss of fish in Aral Sea caused by higher salinity and chemical pollution
- 2) Soil degradation caused by over-irrigation and salination of irrigated soil
- 3) Incidence of new plant diseases and pests due to monoculture orientation of agriculture to cotton impacting the cotton yields

- 4) Adverse effects on human and animal health as result of contaminated dust carried away by the wind and **poor quality of drinking water in the whole area of Uzbekistan**
- 5) Change of local climate

The main cause of environmental pollution are waste waters containing residual mineralisation and pesticides which are freely released into drainage systems in the areas surrounding the desert. These waste waters then leak and contaminate the groundwater.

As regards the access of population to potable water (or at least water conforming to hygiene standards), the access to modern sources of potable water is reserved only to a fraction of inhabitants outside the large cities. Water sources in cities are usually contaminated thanks to obsolete and leaking pipes, which means that the end user receives biologically and chemically contaminated water with high salinity far exceeding European standards. From this perspective, construction of smaller sources supplying drinking water and biologically safe water for household use makes perfect sense.

Project Implementation

The task of our project assigned by the Czech government was to choose a building site to demonstrate technologies for cleaning drinking water which comply with international drinking water standards.

The Situation in Children Tuberculosis Sanatorium

After an agreement with local Uzbek authorities, we have chosen a children tuberculosis sanatorium in Nukus. After an on-site inspection, we found out that water purification alone would be inefficient given the inadequate state of plumbing, sanitary facilities (toilets, showers, and kitchen) and other installations.

The Karakalpakstan government organizes a three month long recovery stay for children after clinical treatment of tuberculosis or for children from families where tuberculosis was diagnosed. The capacity of the children tuberculosis sanatorium is 320 children in summer and 200 patients during the winter.

From our perspective, the dreadful state of the kitchen block shows the level of “hygiene” for children who are potential carriers of open tuberculosis and which are concentrated in this facility from the whole region. This is the place where all the dishes used in the sanatorium are washed. Gas heater which supplies hot water to the kitchen block is located in the corner of the room.



The admittance area for incoming patients is in similar technical state like the kitchen facility. This is the condition of showers for 200-320 persons where children shower when admitted to the sanatorium and during their stay. Hot water is supplied by gas heater of similar quality like in the kitchen block. The western hygiene standards do not apply here.

The toilet facilities for 200-320 children consists of two dry squat toilets. It is of no surprise that there are no dedicated toilets for boys and girls. It is not possible to wash your hands after using the toilets. The summer natural wash basin for washing hands is about 150 meters from the toilet.

Project – The Proposed Solution

Taking into account the situation of the sanatorium, it is necessary to upgrade its facilities to adequate standards:

1. Improve the quality of drinking water supplied to the building
2. Finish the construction of sanitary facilities (toilets, showers, and washing rooms) to improve the hygiene standards of patients, staff and visitors
3. Improve the hygiene level of the kitchen rooms
4. Reconstruct the water and sewage pipes
5. Provide a local water heating separately for each of the buildings
6. Build a laundry room
7. Reduce the dustiness in the sanatorium grounds by increasing the area of washable surfaces of the walkways and roads. Change the playground surface to dustless.
8. Improve the irrigation system on the sanatorium grounds

Given the limited budget available (despite many promises at several levels of the local government) only the first three points were finally carried out. Point four was done in limited extent – in the kitchen block and in the new buildings constructed by PROTE Ltd. in the sanatorium. The only partner fully keeping its word was the local branch of the NGO ADRA. The remaining points are waiting for additional financial resources from governmental grants, NGOs or sponsors.

Benefits from the Project Delivery

The project delivered an automatic water processing plant designed to meet EU standards to the children tuberculosis hospital in Nukus including the installation of distribution technology. The use of clean drinking water in this hospital will not only improve the health conditions of the children but also positively influence them.



Another part of the project included the delivery of two mobile sanitation units equipped with toilets, showers and wash basins with the distribution of processed drinking water to the showers and toilets and technological water to the toilets. The water heating was done by heaters located in each of the units. The units were purchased from the resources of PROTE, Ltd. and ADRA, civic association.



The photographs show that the sanatorium has received a facility which is in local conditions completely inaccessible and unknown to the child patients. Also, for some of the adult employees such facility presents something well above their usual standard. It was therefore necessary not only to train the staff on how to operate the equipment installed, but also to teach employees and above all the child patients the elementary principles of hygiene.

Well prepared technological documentation and a permanent connection of the sanatorium with PROTE will ensure basic and medium scale repairs of all equipment.

Going Behind the Operations of Technologies in Extreme Conditions

When helping developing countries, we need to supply the target region with advanced technology, not an outdated one. To keep this principle, it is necessary to:

- Complement the technology with ensuring **independently** thinking and working staff. Without such a staff, the technology will shortly stop working (perhaps due to a trivial error).
- For cases of failure or inability of the staff to repair the failure, there needs to be a way to contact the supplier (via telephone, Skype, e-mail etc.) which will help to resolve the situation remotely. A technological manual for maintenance and repairs must be supplied with all equipment.
- A small centralized storage place with the most necessary material for future repairs must be set up in the region or community.

Each country has national plans for water management. All our water treatment efforts must correspond to these plans. In this sense, local workers must play their role even before applying for grants or projects (e.g. the workers of ADRA in the particular regions).

There are few places with an absolute absence of water sources. The most prevalent issue, however, is the complexity, difficulty, time and high cost of water processing from both the surface sources and drilled ground sources which usually offer a more favorable water quality.

In most cases, we are, however, speaking about technological water which needs to be further processed to become drinking water. Such water processing and the technology it requires make the availability of clean water much more expensive. The demands on qualified operations staff are in this case more than obvious.

During the development project in Uzbekistan, we were to provide clean water complying with EU standards to a child tuberculosis sanatorium and construct sanitary facilities. The water available from the municipal water supply exceeded three times the standard amount of salt, and the sanitary

equipment was based on two latrines located ca. 150 meters from the living quarters.

The awareness about sanitation and health needs are here on a very high level. The management of sanatorium had an extreme interest on both projects and helped to expedite their implementation.

The Following Problems were Encountered During the Project:

1. The consumption of untreated water for drinking, cooking and washing dishes was about 2 m³ per day, while 0.5 m³ per day was needed for sanitary purposes. The current capacity of water processing expected consumption of about 2.4 m³ per day. By constructing 10 water toilets, 6 showers and 10 washbasins, the consumption has increased to 4.5 m³ per day, which means that the daily water consumption has almost doubled compared to the original estimate.
2. The existing sewage system (damaged, in some places without slope and above all with 2/3 of the profile jammed by sediments and grease from the kitchen) was not able to lead away the increased volumes of sewage and became stuck. That meant that the toilets could not be used.

The measures on the sanatorium side have been more or less restrictive – the increased consumption of water has led to increased water bills and thus also to limitations on using the water toilets, showers and washbasins.

The measures on the donor side focused on emergency cleaning of the sewage and other necessary measures above the project scope. For example, a grease trap was installed to capture the grease from the kitchen's waste water.

Despite increased costs on the donor side, the project impact will be limited as the necessary operating costs of the sanatorium (greater consumption of water) were not increased.

Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

The awareness perspective. The presentation of Czech technology in Uzbek conditions alone lead to an extension of knowledge in the area of water protection. Greater interest in solving the critical conditions in the area was recorded on all levels of the Uzbek authorities.

Understanding the context. The access to clean drinking and irrigation water will significantly improve the situation as well as treatment of the children tuberculosis patients in the Nukus sanatorium. Uzbekistan is still using planned economy and even though the government tries to deploy certain projects to improve the living conditions in the country, the situation in the area can be classified as very difficult, but not irresolvable. The factors mentioned above have a great impact on cultural and social development of the area.

Appropriate selection and deployment of technological solutions. The environmental impacts are generally positive, but the project cannot address the general water issues in the Aral Sea region. The deployment of Czech water treatment and purification technology has convinced the Uzbek experts about the possibility to operate the Czech technology in the Uzbek conditions. The key positive factors were reliability, performance, low maintenance requirements, availability of consumption materials and price. The adequate selection, efficiency and replication of the chosen technological solution are good examples for other areas and countries in this region.

The Role of CSOs

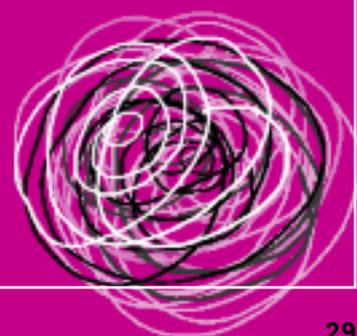
CSOs in similar projects have the combined role of donor (co-financing), organization responsible for project implementation and **facilitator of the cooperation** of several sectors (NGO, university, private company, sanatorium, local government). It is obvious that sound and sustainable long-term results cannot be achieved without these roles and without the cross-sector cooperation of all actors.

Ing. Josef Miklík is working in field of ecology and environment, focusing on modification of drinking water and wastewater purification. He participated in project „Improvement of drinking and irrigation water quality in the area of Aral sea” using Czech water treatment equipment and sorbents.



Market in Accra, Ghana, photo: Daniel Svoboda

Migration and Development





Užhorod, Ukraine, photo: Lukáš Houdek



A) Why Remittances?

The Development Potential of Remittances and the Role of Non-Governmental Organisations – An introduction



Tereza Rejšková | Multicultural Center Prague

This study aims to present the issue of remittances – transfers of money earned by migrant workers abroad back to their countries of origin – in the context of the development agenda. Focusing on the situation in the Czech Republic, the study presents the results of research that has been carried out among migrants and non-governmental organisations.

But how does the problem of remittances interact with the field of development co-operation, and how does this study relate to other studies analysing the effectiveness of non-governmental organisations? Part of the answers can be found in a text by Robert Stojanov who supports a general view of remittances as an effective tool of economic development in less developed countries. Even a brief glance at the figures justifies this argument. The World Bank estimated that global remittances to developing countries reached \$305 billion in 2008.¹ This astonishing figure exceeds the volume of funds earmarked for these countries in the form of development aid² or foreign direct investment. The GDP of some of these countries is dependent on remittances. It cannot be said that remittances always and only increase the standard of living in countries of origin (part of the funds cover debts related to migration; remittances also bring certain disadvantages in

macroeconomic terms). Still, remittances are indisputably an important aspect of development.

Put shortly, the development potential of remittances can be enhanced both in destination countries and in countries of origin. In destination countries, the goal should be to minimise migrant income deductions and losses (above all by lowering the fees for international transactions, or by reducing wage deductions going to employment agencies). As for the countries of origin, the families of migrants should be able to use financial services enabling them to invest money or deposit it in a bank account under favourable conditions. In reality, these families often incur losses because such financial services are unavailable. As the World Bank's Donald F. Terry pointed out at a recent seminar on remittances - *"It is expensive to be poor"*.

Why should the Czech Republic be concerned with remittances at all? The Czech Republic has become an immigration country, with a large number of migrants coming here to work. At the moment, there are about 440,000 foreigners with long-term or permanent residency status. Many of them earn a living here and send part of the money that they earn back to their families and friends in the form of remittances. The issue of remittances is

¹ http://www.migration.ucdavis.edu/mn/more.php?id=3517_0_5_0

² For example, member states of the OECD's Development Assistance Committee earmarked \$119.8 billion for ODA http://www.oecd.org/document/35/0,3343,en_2649_34487_42458595_1_1_1_1,00.html

complex, as it touches on both development and migration policies, and its potential has increasingly caught the interest of various players, including the Czech Ministry of Finance, the Czech Statistical Office, the Czech National Bank, commercial banks, academic institutions and non-governmental organisations that work (often face-to-face) with migrants. We tried to encourage a relevant and broad discussion of the issue within the FoRS project which included, among other events, the seminar “Remittance Flows from the Czech Republic and their Development Impact”³. Despite positive feedback, it remains unclear how much participating institutions will co-operate in the future. Still, the seminar enabled a joint discussion between various institutions, which have previously communicated with each other to a very limited extent even though they are public institutions. As a result, these institutions have identified their joint interest in particular problem areas and have started to co-operate. Some unusual forms of co-operation were established, such as between the Czech Statistical Office and experts from the non-governmental sector. The fact that the seminar was organized by non-governmental organisations which operate outside complex bureaucratic structures, which often limit any access to essential information, seems to be an advantage. For example, the Ministry of Interior has learnt from the website of a non-governmental organisation that the Ministry of Finance has also been dealing with the issue of remittances. By contrast, non-governmental organisations often strive to make all information as accessible as possible, as quickly as possible.

We would be particularly satisfied if we could establish the idea of migrants participating in the decision-making of Czech institutions. We believe that non-governmental organizations, which often take up the role of advocating migrants’ rights and mediating between migrants and state representatives, have a greater chance of gaining migrants’ trust and persuading them to participate in the monitoring of remittances, or in potential information campaigns and other programmes. Nevertheless, we are aware that this may also be difficult because migrants are often reluctant to talk about financial issues.⁴ Therefore, informing migrant associations and individual migrant representatives about the benefits that active co-operation, e.g. with public authorities, has for migrant

communities could be a key task for non-governmental organisations. At the same time, it is important to put pressure on public authorities to listen to migrants. Migrants have been completely excluded from the decision-making process at the level of state institutions thus far. This could have a negative impact - measures may be taken that no one will be interested in.

In this sense, non-governmental organisations are able to voice migrants’ views when trying to influence political decisions. Many Czech non-governmental organisations already have had a very good experience in this regard. For the time being, it is uncommon for migrant communities and civic organizations in the Czech environment to engage in policy-making. Czech non-governmental organisations could share their experience with these associations.

Non-governmental organisations often offer migrants individual counselling (legal, social, psychological) and thus have the opportunity to learn about the reality of their life from individual perspectives. For understandable reasons, public authorities and other representatives do not encounter these micro-perspectives. Hence, in this sense, co-operation between public and non-governmental sectors could be very useful. Nevertheless, it is important for non-governmental organisations to strengthen public sector trust in them and a willingness to establish partner relations.

One of our sub-tasks was to evaluate the activities of non-governmental organisations so far and assess their potential to operate effectively in the field of remittances. We have contacted almost all the Czech organisations that work with migrants, trying to find out more about their experience with counselling on money transfers and related problems. However, most organisations do not deal with these kinds of problems, mainly due to a lack of interest from migrants. Above all we have considered the extent to which non-governmental organisations could serve as a source of information for optimal means of money transfer, and hence help to increase the development impact. Some organisations have stated their willingness to take part in a potential information campaign. Still, it remains to be seen whether institutions, which migrants themselves do not consult when trying to find out more about remittances, would

³ A recording of the seminar “Remittance Flows from the Czech Republic and their Development Impact) and further information about the seminar are available at <http://www.migrationonline.cz/remittances/>.

⁴ You will find out more on the willingness of migrants to disclose information about remittances in Chapter 3 “Sending Remittances from the Czech Republic to Countries of Origin. Report on a Research Pilot”.

be suitable distributors of such information. Non-governmental organisations stated that clients seek their assistance mostly when they find themselves in an emergency situation in the Czech Republic and need to arrange a money transfer from their relatives in their countries of origin. This supports the hypothesis that migrants in the Czech Republic mainly turn to non-governmental organisations in moments of crisis, which limits the scope of their action to a great extent. It would be desirable to change this set-up in the future. In addition, migrants consider the topic of personal finances very sensitive and do not want to discuss it among themselves, let alone among strangers.

To be comprehensive, it is important to note that we have not focused on projects that could be implemented in countries of origin (such as the promotion of financial literacy in the families of migrants, or connecting families with micro-financial institutions).

Despite the shortcomings that non-governmental organisations face in this field, it is indisputable that these organisations could play a significant role in increasing the development potential of remittances sent from the Czech Republic. This is because their primary objective is to help migrants without bias or agenda (as could be the case with public or academic institutions).

Structure of the Study

The study comprises this introduction followed by three main parts. In the first part, Robert Stojanov introduces the issue from a global perspective, presents basic data and relevant research about remittances and outlines their position in the development paradigm.

In the second part, Pavlina Solcova maps the research and political efforts concerning remittances in the Czech Republic up to the present. There is a general lack of relevant data, as analyses and discussions of the issue of remittances at an international level have only recently appeared. No wonder therefore that there has been almost no research into this topic in the Czech Republic so far.

In order to increase the development potential of remittances, it is absolutely crucial to find out more about the situation: the numbers of migrants sending money home; the way they channel the funds, the problems migrants and their families encounter in countries of origin, etc. Our aim was to map innovative research on remittances sent from the

Czech Republic; to use our own well-established contacts within the migrant community and contribute with an authentic research project based on detailed individual interviews. The project results can be found in the third, pivotal part of this study. In this part, Blanka Tollarová and Tereza Rejšková present their research pilot, conducted between December 2008 and February 2009, which uncovered the experiences of migrants, migrant associations and non-governmental organisations in relation to the sending of remittances. The results reveal the problems associated with sending remittances and uncover some facts that are specific to the Czech environment.

It is important to bear in mind that efforts to increase the development potential of remittances and their regulation in the Czech Republic are only just beginning. Our primary objective is to learn more about the situation and avoid preventable mistakes in the future, rather than to assess the projects and measures hitherto undertaken. Our second goal is to provide information to any parties that may be interested in conducting further research or who might wish to coordinate their actions with a view to avoiding the waste of energy and financial resources caused by imperfect communication among different institutions. We believe that this study will make a valuable contribution to the discourse on the approach that institutions in developed countries, including CSOs, should take with regard to remittances and developing countries.

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B) Development Potential of Remittances – A Brief Outline of the Issue⁵



Robert Stojanov | Faculty of Regional Development and International Studies,
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I. Introduction

The relation between international migration and development is currently discussed by development and migration studies specialists. The idea of reducing socio-economic differences through the development of economically less developed countries and through liberalization of workforce mobility has been present in the political agenda for the last ten years. Remittances figure highly in discussions on this topic.

Based on an analysis of selected secondary sources, the author of this text comes to the conclusion that international migration flows in the form of remittances have a predominantly positive impact on the development of economically poor regions. The first part of this article outlines some of the current international migration trends. The second part provides a brief analysis of the conclusions that studies on the impact of remittances on development and poverty in economically poor countries have drawn.

International Migration as a Global Phenomenon

The migration of populations is a process that significantly influences the long-term development of mankind. According to the estimates of United Nations the number of international migrants⁶ was 191 million in 2005; this represents about 3 percent of the world's population. The total number of international migrants rose by 15 million in 2005, compared with estimates for the year 2000 (UNPD 2005)⁷. The traditional routes and intensity of migration flows vary according to the level of development in individual countries. The development paradigm – which contains the idea of progress in the sense that “the situation develops for the better” - thus gains a firm position in considerations of migration. In this way Skeldon (1997)⁸ points to the fact that basic development indicators, such as life expectancy, or access to health services and education, improved for a large part of the world's population over the last 60 years. However, this is not applicable to all countries and regions. The reality of “insufficient” or minimum development encourages further research.

⁵ The text is also part of the thematic concept 05 of the research project “Czech Economy in the Process of Integration and Globalisation, and Development of Agricultural Sector and the Services Sector under the New Conditions of Integrated European Market“ by the Mendel University of Agriculture and Forestry in Brno MSM 6215648904.

⁶ An international migrant is defined as a person who relocates to a country other than the country of his/her usual residence for a period of at least one year.

⁷ UNPD (2005): *Trends in Total Migrant Stock: The 2005 Revision*. [online]. Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat. New York: United Nations Population Division, 2005. [cit. 2007-05-17]. Available at <http://esa.un.org/migration>.

⁸ Skeldon, R. (1997): *Migration and Development: A Global Perspective*. Harlow: Longman, 1997.

The present era of global migration began at the end of World War II. Its current manifestations are closely related to new means of communication and transportation, which are better and faster than ever before, and reduce the role of distance between countries of origin and countries of destination. The falling costs of international telephone calls and of international transport, as well as the introduction of fax and e-mail communication, have enabled migrants to stay in touch with their country of origin in far more intensive way. This lowers the pressure on migrants to relocate their entire family to a new destination. International migrants are thus able to gain the best from both worlds – they earn high income in areas with high prices and spend it in countries with low incomes and prices. In addition, they have a greater chance of preserving their cultural values and family ties (Hugo 2003)⁹.

The highest intensity of migration flows is seen within the regions of developing countries. But from the point of view of the international migration-development nexus, it is important to analyse migration flows between economically advanced and developing regions. According to Massey et al. (1993)¹⁰, these flows started to soar at the end of the 1960s, as immigrants from Asia, the Caribbean and the Middle East were heading for Western Europe.

The total estimated number of international migrants has more than doubled, from 75.5 million in 1960 to 190.6

million in 2005. The relative increase in migrant numbers for the same period, calculated as a ratio of the total population of the Earth, is a lot more modest, rising from 2.5 percent in 1960 to 3.0 percent in 2005. The ratio has not changed very much in the last two decades (see Table B.1).

Most international migrants stay in Europe (more than 61.1 million), followed by Asia (53.3 million), North America (44.5 million) and Africa (17.1 million). In 2005 an enormous increase in migration was registered in Europe, where the relative migrant figures doubled, from 18.9 percent in 1960 to 33.6 percent. For this period, the absolute figures increased by almost four times (UNPD 2005).

Globalisation has played a significant role in changes to the form of international migration that have been noted in recent decades. Supposedly, the most important change is that pull factors have become as relevant as push factors. Migration flows are driven not only by the combination of poverty, demographic pressures and other push factors, but also by pull factors – the Western comfort displayed in movies and TV programmes, the entertainment and consumer goods sold on local markets. Hence, migrants may wish to increase the quality of their life not only in economic but also in social and cultural terms (IOM 2003)¹¹.

A fairly new phenomenon is the growing number of women in international migration flows. Women currently account

Table B.1 – Estimated Number of International Migrants Worldwide and their Percentage Share of the World Population (1960 – 2005)

Year	Estimated international migrant numbers	Share of international migrants in world population (%)
1960	75,463.352	2,5 %
1965	78,443.933	2,4 %
1970	81,335.779	2,2 %
1975	86,789.304	2,1 %
1980	99,275.898	2,2 %
1985	111,013.230	2,3 %
1990	154,945.333	2,9 %
1995	165,080.235	2,9 %
2000	176,735.772	2,9 %
2005	190,633.564	3,0 %

Source: UNPD data (2005)

⁹ Hugo, G. (2003): *Circular Migration: Keeping Development Rolling?* [online]. Washington, DC: Migration Information Source, The Migration Policy Institute, June 2003. [cit. 2007-07-17]. Available at <http://www.migrationinformation.org/Feature/display.cfm?ID=129>.

¹⁰ Massey, D.S., et al. (1993): *Theories of International Migration: A Review and Appraisal*. *Population and Development Review*, Vol. 19 (1993), No. 3, pp. 431-466.

¹¹ IOM (2003): *World Migration 2003: Managing Migration - Challenges and Responses for People on the Move*. Geneva: International Organization for Migration, 2003.

for almost a half of international migrants and dominate migration flows to economically advanced countries. Simultaneously, women are among the most vulnerable migrant groups, above all in the area of human rights violation. Women increasingly migrate alone, and in practice they are often the main earners for the family left behind. This trend is expected to continue because the demand for labour in traditional female occupations in industrialised countries has been growing. These occupations encompass jobs in household, nursing and caring services, cleaning, entertainment and the sex industry, retail jobs and work in factories. The migration of women also affects countries of origin, as it tends to increase the number of divorces and widowed persons, cause childlessness or solitude. By contrast, migration brings many women better access to education, makes them aware of their rights and improves their chances of finding a job and gaining new experiences (GCIM 2005)¹².

There is a common view that most migrants come from the poorest strata of society. However, research has shown that this is not the case. Moreover, if we accepted this view, it would be the same as saying that migrants (who are the poorest) send money home to the richer, non-emigrant part of the population. And this would not make sense (Skeldon 2002)¹³. In fact, emigrants usually achieve higher education than those who remain in the country of origin. Most migrants to the OECD countries completed secondary or higher education (see Carrington & Detragiache 1998). This is natural because most migrants need sufficient knowledge and finance to cross borders, whether legally or illegally. The poorest people usually do not meet either of these preconditions.

Development Aspects of Remittances

Classical migration theories (Massey et al. 1993) see the socio-economic differences between developed and developing regions as the main driving forces that “dictate international migration” (Drbohlav 2001)¹⁴. The nexus between development opportunities and migration processes

creates a complex of relations and impacts that are the subject of the current research. The development aspects of remittances are among the leading research themes.

A whole range of studies consider remittances as a useful tool for the development of economically poor countries, particularly in rural areas (see for example Taylor 1992); some even see them as an alternative development tool. But what exactly are remittances?

Put simply, remittances are transfers of money or goods from migrants living abroad. Statistical data published by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) identifies three categories of remittances. However, both generally and in specialised literature on remittances there is a tendency to use the term remittances in the sense of the first category (Gammeltoft 2002)¹⁵.

- *Workers’ remittances* are transfers of goods and finances from workers who remain abroad for a period of one year or longer;
- *Compensation of employees* are transactions from persons who remain abroad for a period shorter than one year;
- *Migrants’ transfers* are flows of goods and funds linked to cross-border migration (for example, daily commuting to work across borders)

Other classifications of remittances are based on distinguishing among types of remittance senders and receivers. Carling (2005) identifies seven distinct remittance forms:

1. *Personal deposits or investment* – money transfers for personal use (investment, consumption, entrepreneurial development, home building, purchase of land, savings, etc.). Migrants themselves directly control the use of the expenditure.
2. *Intra-family transfers* - money sent by a migrant to his/her relatives or friends in the country of origin. In most countries these are the most important remittance flows, often sent on a regular basis (on a monthly basis or on the occasion of an event important for the family, religious festivities, etc.). This remittance type covers the basic subsistence needs of the family: expenditures

¹² GCIM. (2005): *Migration in an interconnected world: New directions for action. Report of the Global Commission on International Migration. Geneva: The Global Commission on International Migration, October 2005.*

¹³ Skeldon, R. (2002): *Migration and poverty. Asia-Pacific Population Journal, 2002, Vol. 17, no. 4, pp. 67-82.*

¹⁴ Drbohlav, D. (2001): *Mezinárodní migrace obyvatelstva – pohyb i pobyt (Alenky v kraji divů). In: Menšiny a migranti v České republice: My a oni v multikulturní společnosti 21. století. Praha: Portál, pp. 17-30.*

¹⁵ Gammeltoft, P. (2002): *Remittances and other financial flows to developing countries. International Migration, 2002, Vol. 40, no. 5, pp. 181-209.*

- on food, education and health care services. Remittance receivers most often decide how the money is put to use.
3. *Charity donations* – used for charitable purposes, sent to churches and mosques.
 4. *Collective investment aimed at promoting development* – the most frequent fund transfers from migrant organisations abroad, which should stimulate community development in countries of origin.
 5. *Taxes and deductions* – obligatory contributions flowing to public institutions such as schools and hospitals in order to secure education or health care services for family members and friends in the country of origin.
 6. & 7. *Old age pensions and other transfers related to social security services*¹⁶ – these comprise of regular transfers from former employees, pension funds and the governments of countries where a migrant was employed.

Monetary remittances are sent through a large number of transfer mechanisms. Carling (2005)¹⁷ mentions seven remittance transfer methods:

1. Electronic cash transfers (cash-based systems)
2. Electronic fund transfers from one account to another (account-to-account systems)
3. Transfer of funds using (microchip) cards (card-based systems)
4. Transfer of funds using paper documents (cheques, bills of exchange, cash vouchers)

5. Informal Value Transfer Systems (IVTS)¹⁸
6. Personal couriers
7. Remittances in kind

As with many other migration-related issues, remittances are very difficult to measure. There are estimates for remittance volumes but it is important to highlight that these estimates are based largely on funds sent through formal channels. According to research (quoted in Puri & Ritzema 2001)¹⁹ carried out predominantly in the 1980s, the estimated volume of remittances sent through informal channels represented between 8 and 85 percent of the total official remittances flow, varying from country to country. Remittance statistics do not include these figures.

The economic distribution of remittance inflows shows that developing countries are the dominant remittance receivers, with middle-income countries being the largest and low-income countries the smallest receivers. This ratio has remained flat over the last decade.

The geographical distribution of remittances in the last nine years indicates that Sub-Saharan Africa has received the lowest volume of remittances, compared to Latin America and the Caribbean, and East Asia and the Pacific (see details in Table B.2). No significant changes in this trend are expected in the foreseeable future.

Table B.2 Distribution of Workers' Remittances, Employee Compensation and Migration Transfers According to Individual Regions in 2001 – 2008 (in \$ billion).

Region	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008*
East Asia and Pacific	16,7	20,1	29,5	35,4	39,2	46,9	52,9	65,2	66,9
Europe and Central Asia	12,8	12,4	13,7	15,5	22,2	31,2	38,3	50,4	53,1
Latin America and Caribbean	20,0	24,2	27,9	36,6	43,3	50,1	59,2	63,1	63,3
Middle-East and North	12,9	14,7	15,2	20,4	23,0	24,3	25,7	31,3	33,7
South Asia	17,2	19,2	24,1	30,4	28,7	33,1	39,6	52,1	66,0
Sub-Saharan Africa	4,6	4,6	5,0	6,0	8,0	9,4	12,9	18,6	19,8
Developing Countries	84,2	95,2	115,5	144,3	164,4	194,8	228,7	280,7	305,3
World	131,5	146,8	169,5	207,3	234,9	267,8	306,6	370,8	397,0

*estimations

Source: World Bank (2009)²⁰

¹⁶ As these often appear together, they constitute a single category.

¹⁷ Carling, J. (2005): *Migration Remittances and Development Cooperation*. Oslo: International Peace Research Institute, 2005.

¹⁸ IVTS are known by different names in various parts of the world. Among the most common used in media are hawala which means transfer (Carling 2005).

¹⁹ Puri, S. - Ritzema, T. (2001): *Migrant Worker Remittances, Micro-finance and the Informal Economy: Prospects and Issues*. Working Paper, 21. Geneva: Social Finance Programme, International Labour Office, 2001.

²⁰ World Bank (2009): *Remittances dataset*. [online]. World Bank staff estimates based on the International Monetary Fund's Balance of Payments Statistics Yearbook 2008, updated on March 2009. [cit. 2009-05-06]. Accessed at <http://go.worldbank.org/SSW3DDNLQ0>.

The statistics clearly illustrate the increasing importance of remittances in the economies of developing countries. But what is the link between remittances, development and poverty in the areas where migration originated? The complexity and range of this highly interesting topic makes any in-depth analysis of the issue in this chapter impossible. Still, let us look at the conclusions of studies by acknowledged authors.

Remittances naturally improve the standard of life of the receivers, with a development impact at the local level through classical multiplier effects, even if they are used for consumption “only.” Therefore, this type of remittance use could be considered a development tool with regard to secondary effects of increased consumption which are important, for instance, in creating local job opportunities. Studies by Adams & Page (2003)²¹ uncover statistical proof of the positive impact of remittances on poverty alleviation in developing countries, without concentrating on the use of remittances. Besides, remittances invested in the construction of new infrastructure, schools, community centres, houses, etc. improve and modernise local economic activities, and/or enable the establishing of new small enterprises that could stimulate or sustain development.

Ellis (2003)²² has come up with five fundamental ways in which remittances may help to reduce people’s vulnerability and poverty. Remittances mainly facilitate:

1. Investment in land or improvement of its quality;
2. Cash purchase of agricultural inputs (e.g. hired labour, control of diseases) with a view to using more effective cultivation methods and gaining higher revenues;
3. Investment in agricultural equipment (e.g. water pumps, ploughs, etc.);
4. Investment in education to secure better opportunities for future generations;
5. Investment in property (assets) with a view to generating profit in the place of residence, but outside the agricultural sector (e.g. a rickshaw, a hammer mill, a shop).

Studies also outline the negative attributes of migration and remittance sending. For example, according to Gammeltoft (2002), remittances may delay the necessary structural reforms and cause and/or increase the dependency of the population and local economy on remittances. Also, the absence of a parent in a family may have negative social impacts.

In this context, Skeldon (2005)²³ highlights the fact that remittances cannot be perceived as a universal panacea for poverty alleviation. Only a relatively small number of migrants cross international borders and even when they decide to become international migrants, they often come from a limited number of areas in a given country of origin. Therefore, according to Skeldon, international migration cannot be the crucial factor in the process of poverty alleviation at the national level.

Conclusion

Throughout the history of mankind, national and international migration has been an integral part of survival strategies and has provided a means of improving the quality of life. Restrictive migration policies in economically advanced countries cannot change anything about this and these restrictive policies are the reason why the development potential of international migration cannot be fully exploited both in advanced and developing economies. Further, restrictive policies, which close down opportunities for legal migration, often shift problems into the area of illegal migration. Illegal migration drains budgets in destination countries and negatively influences the perception of migrants by majority societies (Stojanov & Novosák 2008)²⁴.

Remittances constitute a significant component of international finance flows and have a profound impact on economic potential, both in macroeconomic and microeconomic terms (Ellis 2003). Remittances offer some interesting tools for stimulating development in economically

²¹ Adams, R. H. - Page, J. (2005): *Do international migration and remittances reduce poverty in developing countries?* *World Development*, 2005, Vol. 33, no. 10, pp. 1645-1669.

²² Ellis, F. (2003): *A Livelihoods Approach to Migration and Poverty Reduction*. Department for International Development (DFID), November 2003.

²³ Skeldon, R. (2005): *The Millennium Development Goals and Migration*. Workshop on Migration and Development: Mainstreaming Migration into Development Policy Agendas, Geneva, 2-3 February 2005.

²⁴ Stojanov, R.; Novosák, J. *Migrace místo pomoci? Remitence a cirkulace mozků jako nástroje rozvoje*. *Mezinárodní vztahy*, Vol. 43 (2008), No. 1, str. 38-77.

poor countries. However, the relation between these two topics is very complex and it includes many other issues, such as the migration of skilled persons, and return or circulation migration. This chapter focused on a brief overview of remittances and selected development issues relating to remittances, reaching a general conclusion that international migration flows in the form of remittances have predominantly positive effects on the development of economically poor regions.

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C) What Do We Know about Remittances Sent from the Czech Republic: Previous and Planned Research



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Introduction

The importance of remittances as a tool of economic development in poor countries – which are dominant remittance receivers according to the distribution of remittance inflows – has been increasingly recognised by development and migration studies in the Czech Republic in recent years.

Statistics show that the Czech Republic became a net-sender of remittances in 2006 (see graph C.1). In 2005-2007, the majority of remittances were transferred to Slovakia, Ukraine and Vietnam. The Czech Republic has become an attractive destination for foreign migrants, with about 440,000 foreigners registered as legal residents in 2009, accounting for around 4 percent of the total population of the country. Besides migrants from Slovakia, most foreigners come from Ukraine, Vietnam, Moldova and Russia. According to the World Bank, remittances from the Czech Republic reached about 55 billion Czech crowns

in 2007, that is 2 to 2.4 percent of the country's GDP (see details below). The funds were chiefly transferred to Slovakia (37%), followed by Ukraine (28%), Vietnam (11%) and Poland, Moldova, China, Mongolia and other countries (the remaining 24%). There is no data available on the average costs of remittance-sending. Estimated costs range from 6 to 18 percent.

It remains to be seen how remittance flows will change in the face of the economic crisis. For the time being, there are only estimates. In its latest reports, the World Bank estimates that in 2008 the total value of remittances worldwide was \$305 billion. Flows from EU countries have increased by 60 percent since 2004 (to 25 billion EUR), but in 2009, the volume of remittances is expected to fall sharply largely due to job losses among migrants. The situation is especially problematic in countries where income from remittances constitutes a large part of GDP²⁵.

Table C.1 Remittances (average 2005-2007)

Money inflow (%)			Money outflow (%)	
Country	Germany	36	Slovakia	37
	Austria	25	Ukraine	28
	UK	24	Vietnam	11
	USA	6	Poland	9
	Switzerland	3	China	4
	Other	6	Other	11
Total		100	Suma	100

Source: the Czech National Bank (CNB), compiled by the author

²⁵ Among the largest remittance receivers, calculated as the ratio of remittances to GDP, are Tajikistan (45%), Moldova (38%), Tonga (35%), Lesotho (29%) and Honduras (25%).

Graph C.1 Developments in remittance inflows and outflows (2005-2007)



Selected Earlier Research on Remittances in the Czech Republic

The issue of remittances is often mentioned in research reports or other publications. However, few of these were specifically concerned with the situation in the Czech Republic. Works by R. Stojanov and Novosák²⁶ as well as Ondřej Horký²⁷ analyse the topic at a theoretical level. Horký has criticized the inaccessibility of data: *“The relationship between migration and development is not quite clear mainly because of the lack of data ... In the Czech Republic we do not have reliable data on any of the phenomena. Hence, potential coherence or incoherence between immigration and development policies may only be estimated.”* In his text, Horký outlined the following recommendations for public institutions dealing with migration issues (and remittances):

- The Czech Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MPSV) to carry out a critical analysis of the development potential of temporary migration to the Czech Republic;
- The Ministry of Finance to continuously monitor out-remittances and produce high quality statistics on their volume and territorial distribution; in cooperation with banks and other financial institutions to facilitate fund transfers to migrants’ countries of origin;
- The Minister for Human Rights to aim to arrange a minority status for significant ethnic minorities from developing and transition countries that have no such status so far; in cooperation with other players to engage diaspora in the development cooperation programme.

Marie Říhová of the International Organization for Migration (IOM) considers searching for earlier research projects on remittances (back to 2007) a wild-goose chase, as no such large-scale projects exist. Yana Leontiyeva of the Institute of Sociology of the Czech Academy of Sciences agrees with this opinion. She also mentioned a research project **commissioned by the Czech Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs**, which focused mainly on the level of education

and qualifications of migrants and their intentions concerning their stay in the Czech Republic²⁸.

The survey contained two questions related to remittances. Results provided information about:

- The percentage of foreigners who send money to their countries of origin.

Table C.2: Q33. Do you send money back to your family or relatives in your home country?

Yes	52
No	38

N = 1 011, no answer 1

- Dependence of families on the money sent.

Table C.3: Q34. How important is the money you send home for your family?

They cannot make ends meet without the money, they are dependent on it.	46
They aren’t totally dependent on the money, but it significantly improves their livelihood.	44
They could live without the money; it augments their income.	10

N = 630, no answer 1

(Source: documentation provided by Y. Leontiyeva)

Remittance sending according to selected characteristics of respondents (age, sex, nationality, etc.) – based on the research results, Y. Leontiyeva outlined the following remittance-related hypotheses:

- Remittance sending depends on the character of migration, migrants’ plans and their intention to settle down in the country of destination;
- Migrants’ economic situation and their position on the labour market of a host country play an important role in remittance sending; research has shown that highly qualified migrants send lower amounts of money;
- Apart from economic reasons, remittances are also influenced by the situation in migrants’ families, especially by divorces resulting from the departure of husbands or separation of parents from their children;

²⁶ *Migration instead of Aid? Remittances and Brain Circulation as Tools of Development. International Relations. 2008. Stojanov R., Novosak J. et al. Development, environment and migrations. Olomouc 2008. ISBN 978-80-244-1966-4.*

²⁷ *Ondřej Horký. Policy Paper: How to Strengthen the Coherence of Czech Policies for Development? A Realistic Approach in the Fields of Migration, Trade and Agriculture. July 2008. Institute of International Relations Prague. Available at: <http://iom.cz/files/PPKCoherencePolitik.pdf>.*

²⁸ *Project name: “The research on immigrants from the “Third countries”, who come to the CR to work on the basis of work permit, and their intention to settle down for a longer period or to stay permanently in the CR”. Duration: 2006 – 2007. Commissioning body: Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs of the Czech Republic. Research Co-ordinator: Institute of Sociology, Czech Academy of Science, v.v.i. Principal investigator: Mgr. Yana Leontiyeva.*

- Older migrants often support families in their countries of origin to a greater extent than the younger ones. However, it is important to differentiate between this factor and the situation in families;
- A strong correlation between gender and remittance sending was registered; research results have indicated that men are more often the breadwinners than women;
- Remittance-related behaviour of migrants varies with nationality.

The researcher has made the following recommendation: *“If we take into consideration the latest findings and the fact that migrants from various countries are often differently concentrated in regions of the country of destination, research into remittances should cover specific locations with a high concentration of groups of selected migrants (since, for instance, the Vietnamese are concentrated in different regions than the Ukrainians and Russians).”*

According to Dušan Drbohlav from the Charles University, one of the projects dealing with the issue of remittances indirectly is the study named **“The risk of possible outflow of qualified experts from the Czech Republic abroad”**²⁹. Although focusing on remittances sent by Czech citizens living abroad, the study analyses the costs and benefits of remittances for countries of origin (questions such as expenditure on education, the effects of fund re-transfers, knowledge sharing, etc.), and the impact of the outflow of qualified experts on the economy and competitiveness of destination countries. In a similar way, we could comment on other research projects, concentrating mainly on Ukrainian and Russian immigration to the Czech Republic, but none of them dealt specifically with the issue of remittances.

The key project on remittances in the Czech Republic, which has particularly interested the public authorities, was **“A review of the market for remittances in the Czech Republic on the basis of the CPSS - World Bank General Principles for International Remittance Services”**^{30,31}. In May 2008, at the request of the Ministry of Finance of the Czech Republic, a team of World Bank experts conducted

research on the market for remittances in the Czech Republic on the basis of the general principles set out by CPSS – World Bank³¹ through a series of interviews. These interviews were mainly with representatives of the Czech Statistical Office (CSU), the Czech National Bank (CNB), the Czech Ministry of Interior (MV), the Czech Ministry of Finance (MF), the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the Czech Banking Association and the Charles University (UK). The team recommended a set of measures to reduce the costs of remittance transfers and make remittance-sending generally safer and more efficient. *(A note from the author: the economic crisis has certainly changed the situation; hence some of the information mentioned below may not be current).*

- **A CSU representative** informed about the long-term tradition of wage monitoring by the Czech Statistical Office and the crucial differentiation in the CSU records between resident and non-resident migrants³². He mentioned that in 2008 the CSU planned to prepare a review of data and calculation of remittances (usually a competence of the CNB, this year delegated to the CSU). The information needed for calculation is obtained mainly from the MPSV, the MV and local employment offices, the Czech Police, the Czech Ministry of Industry and Trade, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Education. As of 2005, the records of employed foreigners in each firm have to be kept separately on the basis of their (non-) residence in the Czech Republic.
- **The Czech National Bank** has no reliable data on the means of sending remittances. It is estimated that about one half of the volume is transmitted through the banking system and the other half is channelled through other money transfer providers. The CNB has been discussing this issue with its partners, concentrating mainly on the new methodology of remittance calculation. The CNB has tried to consult with central banks of other countries on the issue of remittances but, unfortunately, these institutions have been facing the same problem. In the words of a CNB representative: *“...it is thus very difficult to tackle the issue of remittances in a comprehensive and appropriate way.”*

²⁹ Final report of project No. 1J 019/04 DP2. Jana Vavreckova, Ivo Bastyr, Ludvik Michalicka, Dusan Drbohlav, Jakub Musil – Praha: VUPSV, v.v.i., 2008. - 144 p. - ISBN 978-80-7416-013-4

³⁰ Published in September 2008. In January 2007, the World Bank and its Committee on Payment and Settlement Systems (CPSS) issued General Principles for International Remittance Services whose application should help to achieve public policy objectives of making remittance services safe and efficient.

³¹ Methodology is available in: The World Bank. General Principles for International Remittance Services. Basel: Press and Communications, 2007. ISBN 92-9131-732-2.

³² A resident is an individual who has a place of residence in the Czech Republic, or who stays here for at least 183 days in a calendar year (either 183 consecutive days or the total of 183 days in a given year).

- **Representatives of the MV** mentioned projects concerning migration as part of the EU's Eastern Neighbourhood Policy in Moldova, Ukraine, Serbia, Western Balkans, Georgia and Bosnia-Herzegovina, which started as early as 2001 – 2002.
- **The Financial Analytical unit of the Czech Ministry of Finance** outlined a new law against money laundering and on the fight against the financing of terrorism³³.
- **The International Organization for Migration (IOM)** has been dealing with the issue of remittances at an international level. In this regard, the organisation has carried out small missions in selected countries (Georgia, Mongolia, Iraq and Serbia) as a part of a project that started about four years ago, which has provided valuable experience from work among migrants coming from Mongolia, Moldova and Ukraine, among others.
- **Representatives of the Czech Banking Association** mentioned that remittance use varies from country to country. For example, Vietnamese migrants tend to also send remittances home for entrepreneurial reasons, aside from the purpose of subsistence.

Results of the World Bank report were presented during a public seminar organised by the Czech Ministry of Finance on July 3, 2008 in Prague. According to the report, the main barriers to the official transfer of funds through remittance service providers³⁴ are: high costs on the part of both sending and receiving countries; complex rules; poor access to banking services for migrants; a lack of co-operation between financial institutions in the remittance-sending and remittance-receiving countries; insufficient banking infrastructure; limited banking services and a lack of consumer protection in developing countries (for example, the end users of remittances are often in a weaker position than banks and have to accept inconvenient exchange rates). As a result, migrants use alternative or even illegal channels to transfer funds that carry numerous risks for both migrants and the state (a lack of transparency, disappearance of money during transfer or money laundering, for instance).

The report provides an evaluation of the application of five main principles set out by the CPSS-World Bank in the Czech Republic. A set of recommendations is outlined in the following table.

Table C.4 Selected recommendations of the World Bank for the Czech Republic on the basis of General Principles for International Remittance Services

General Principles (P 1-5) for International Remittance Services	Recommendations for the Czech Republic
<p>P1 (transparency and consumer protection): The market for remittance services should be transparent and have adequate consumer protection.</p>	<p>Studies about migrants should be carried out in the Czech Republic (cooperation among public authorities, universities, NGOs, etc.) that would map basic features of the market for remittances. Public authorities should collect and publish data on fees, foreign exchange rates, and further information related to remittance sending. Consider setting up an information telephone number for migrants or a database accessible to the public, providing comparative price information about remittance sending. Undertake campaigns and programmes promoting financial literacy.</p>
<p>P2 (payment system infrastructure): Improvements to payment system infrastructure that have the potential to increase the efficiency of remittance services should be encouraged.</p>	<p>It is important to aim at stricter requirements concerning transparency of transfers to countries outside the EU (legal framework, cost of remittance sending). Explore the possibilities of the use of payment cards and advocate ever greater use of ATM and terminal networks by remittance service providers (RSPs); analyse the possibility of payments via Internet or a mobile phone. Reach agreement at a national level and introduce a common methodology for the calculation of prices of remittance services to make it clear for migrants what is included in the price. Reform of nation-wide postal services, including the modernisation of the telecom infrastructure and operations procedures.</p>
<p>P3 (the legal and regulatory environment): Remittance services should be supported by a sound, predictable, non-discriminatory and proportionate legal and regulatory framework in relevant jurisdictions.</p>	<p>Establishment of a legal framework on the basis of the principles set out by the World Bank – in the process of adaptation of the Czech legal system to the European environment. Finalise prepared reforms and establish adequate regulation governing national payment systems. Explore the possibility of setting out specific rules and procedures concerning remittances with international applicability, including countries of the EU.</p>

³³ The law No. 253/2008 Coll. on certain measures against legalization of revenues from criminal acts and financing terrorism.

³⁴ Remittance service provider (RSP) is an institution or an individual providing remittance transfer services to individual migrants for profit making purposes. RSPs may be viewed as a sub-group of payment service providers (in practice, RSPs do not deal only with remittances, but also with other transfers).

<p>P4 (market structure and competition): Competitive market conditions, including appropriate access to domestic payment infrastructures, should be fostered in the remittance industry.</p>	<p>Pay attention to the dynamics of the market for remittances, based on market research carried out in the future. Continuously monitor whether conditions for entering the market are fair. Undertake campaigns with a view of increasing the number of persons remitting funds through regulated channels.</p>
<p>P5 (governance and risk management): Remittance services should be supported by appropriate governance and risk management practices.</p>	<p>Remittance service providers in the Czech Republic use their own manuals and employ trained staff, but there is no oversight (except for RSPs under the direct oversight of the CNB), or a continuous control of their procedures. A specialised institution should be established in this regard. Rules of regulation should be set out that would protect rights of users of remittances or other cross-border payments. A financial arbitrator should have the adequate competence and authority to settle disputes arising from abusive conduct or the RSPs' insolvency.</p>

Source: World Bank report, compiled by the author

The following is a list of remittance-related events in the Czech Republic:

- **Seminar by the World Bank** (July 3, 2008, Prague, the MF) – *“Remittances in the Czech Republic – A matter of principles”*, a follow-up on the World Bank’s mission in Prague. The objective of the presentation by Massimo Cirasino (Lead Financial Sector Specialist) was to present the results of the above-mentioned report on the market for remittances in the Czech Republic, followed by a discussion.
- **Seminar organized jointly by the Multicultural Center Prague (a member of FoRS)³⁵ and the Ministry of Finance** (February 24, 2009, Prague, the MF) – *“Remittance Flows from the Czech Republic and their Development Impact.”* The aim of the seminar, hosting acknowledged experts, was to introduce the issue of remittances in a broader context, learn about the experiences of international financial institutions and non-governmental organisations with regard to remittances, assess the recent developments in the field of remittances in the Czech Republic, provide for communication between individual players and contribute to raising awareness of the development potential of remittances. The presentation of a research pilot carried out by Blanka Tollarová and Tereza Rejšková, described in detail in the following chapter, was a key event.
- **Seminar by the CSU** (April 3, 2009, Prague, the CSU) – *“The Work of Foreigners in the Czech Republic and Estimated Remittances Sent to their Country of Origin.”* The seminar has highlighted the fact that there is no integrated, common methodology for gathering data on remittances. The CSU uses four phases of calculation

modelling: estimates of the number of working foreigners, of their incomes, of their expenses, and of the savings that can be sent to their country of origin. These indicators are influenced by a variety of factors in individual national groups: type of work, consumer behaviour, duration of stay, national habits and the like. The quality of the calculation depends on the data and structuring of inputs (the CSU lacks suitable and sufficient data due to a lack of coordination and willingness to share data among public authorities).

National accounts use the definition of remittances provided by the balance of payments that sees remittances as the total volume of transfers from household to household: the net income of non-resident households from persons working abroad for less than one year, transfers from foreigners to residents, and transfers from other citizens. Unfortunately, the banks’ statistics cannot capture remittance flows. There are no records of sale/purchase of foreign exchange, and the CNB only keeps records of money flows through payment cards.

Further Developments (new projects, research studies, etc.)

Projects of the Ministry of Finance, supervised by the World Bank

The above-mentioned report highlighted the increasing importance of remittances. It is in the general interest of the Ministry of Finance, the institution which commissioned

³⁵ The seminar was part of the project “Civil Society Organisations Development Effectiveness”, carried out by FoRS on the occasion of the Czech EU Presidency. The project is funded by the EU and the Czech Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The seminar was organised with the financial contribution of the Czech Ministry of Finance. The transcript of the seminar is available at <http://www.migraceonline.cz/remittance/>.

this study, to comply with the outlined recommendations. In this connection, crucial actions should be taken with a view of strengthening the efficiency, trustworthiness and transparency of the national market for remittances. The World Bank put forward five possible remittance-related projects: a survey of the market for remittances, a national remittance database, participation in the reform of the legal and regulatory framework, educational campaigns for migrants, and the training of specialists. Based on consultations with the World Bank, the Ministry of Finance decided to carry out a survey of the market for remittances and set up a national database on remittances.

- Survey of the market for remittances – a survey will be conducted under the supervision of the World Bank, in cooperation with the Ministry of Finance, consulates and embassies. Results will be presented at a seminar whose primary focus will be to share collected data with specialists, other stakeholders and migrants.
- Setting up a national database that will provide data on the costs of remittance sending – this will include detailed monitoring of remittance flows and the cost of remittance sending (including exchange rates). The database should be updated about twice a year³⁶ and should bring more transparency into remittance services, raise the awareness of clients and possibly increase competitiveness and reduce fees. The World Bank, the Ministry of Finance and other stakeholders will participate in the project.

According to Donald F. Terry of the World Bank, a final report summarizing the results of the survey of the market for remittances should be released in autumn 2009 and the database on remittances should be launched in spring 2010. Although, the Czech Republic has become an attractive country for international migrants, there is currently no information source on remittance prices that migrants could use. According to the Ministry of Finance and the World Bank, the Czech Republic could become a source of knowledge and experience for neighbouring countries in the future.

A Czech Statistical Office Project

V. Ondruš, director of the Department of Annual National Accounts of the Czech Statistical Office, outlined the

establishment of a Working Group on the Impacts of Globalisation on National Accounts³⁷, operating under the umbrella of the UN Economic Council for Europe, whose task is to prepare methodological guidelines concerning remittances, the migration of workers and electronic and transit trade by 2010. The Eurostat was another body to identify the growing significance of remittances. The CSU has applied, together with Eurostat, for a grant to conduct a research project on remittances in 2010 that would analyse the expenditure behaviour of individual migrant groups. The Czech Statistical Authority has formed a working group consisting of Czech experts who will analyse the research.

A Charles University Project

If the Grant Agency of the Czech Republic approves the research proposal of D. Drbohlav, a research project that aims to explore the impact of Ukrainian migration on the Czech Republic will be carried out. The research should also cover the issue of remittances (the volume, mechanisms and conditions under which they are acquired, transmission and the final use of these funds). Quantitative and qualitative research tools will be applied (mainly interviews and questionnaires), with a focus on Ukrainians working in the Czech Republic and the families they have left behind.

Recommendations and Critical Remarks

In the final part, some select recommendations and critical opinions on earlier and future research and policy measures are presented.

- **Reactions of experts to the World Bank's review of the market for remittances in the Czech Republic**
 - According to L. Vacková (from the CSU), the World Bank data on the value of remittances in the Czech Republic are only gross estimates as they were derived from inaccurate data provided by the CNB. This is a consequence of a general absence of a consistent methodology for calculation of remittances and a lack of necessary data.
 - The Czech Banking Association points to the fact that findings in some parts of the report are generalised

³⁶ *The database will be created using the World Bank methodology that launched its own database on remittance prices in September 2008. The World Bank database maps the prices of remittances in more than 120 global corridors. See <http://remittanceprices.worldbank.org>.*

³⁷ *Working Group on the Impacts of Globalisation on National Accounts. Further details available at <http://www.unece.org/stats/documents/2008.04.wqgna.htm>.*

to such an extent that significant differences in the functioning of remittance services, the level of regulation and supervision, as well as differences across areas become blurred. Problems often have their roots in the remittance-receiving countries and therefore, in some cases, it is unlikely that they will be influenced by the proposed measures. The recommendations proposed by the World Bank have their flaws – a one-size-fits-all perspective prevails and little consideration is given to the differences between subjects under strict supervision and other RSPs. Little attention is devoted to the fact that the Czech Republic will implement legislation (Act No. 253/2008 Coll. on certain measures against the legalisation of revenues from criminal acts and financing of terrorism, or the Payment System Act³⁸), which will influence the functioning of RSPs in a fundamental way.

- Marie Říhová (IOM) states that the amount of remittances that legal migrants have sent through informal channels is far greater than portrayed in the report. In the Czech Republic there is a lack of finance-related literature for migrants. It is also important to pay more attention to the training of employees in the public and banking sectors. The report does not tackle the development impact of remittances on developing countries and the interconnectedness of remittances and development projects.

■ General remarks

- According to Marie Říhová, it is necessary to engage migrants in future projects and focus also on development potential. Leila Rispens-Noel (from Oxfam Novib) expressed a critical view of the database on remittance prices in the sense that even if migrants had the information about the prices of sending funds through various institutions, their choice would be limited by the presence of a given bank or provider in the remittance destination. A tricky question remains how to involve illegal migrants in legal sending of remittances. L. Rispens-Noel also took a negative stance towards the use of new technologies, such as mobile banking, as they cannot be used in countries that lack basic infrastructure.

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I would like to express my gratitude to M. Říhová (the IOM), Y. Leontyieva (the Institute of Sociology of the Czech Academy of Sciences), D. Drbohlav (the Faculty of Natural Sciences of the Charles University) and Leila Rispens-Noel (Oxfam Novib) for providing me with valuable information.

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³⁸ *The bill comprises three specialised areas of payment systems that are related to the subject of the directive on payment services, issuing electronic money and operation of payment cards.*

D) Sending Remittances from the Czech Republic to the Country of Origin Report – from a Research Investigation



Blanka Tollarová, Tereza Rejšková | Multicultural Center Prague

Introduction

This chapter comprises a report from a research investigation into remittances sent from the Czech Republic to migrants' countries of origin. Our investigation provides a fundamental insight into the financial market for remittances: we show how migrants sent money to their country of origin, the costs that they incurred and the alternative forms of transferring remittances that are available. The estimates of world-wide remittance flows are astonishing. Hence, remittances have become an interesting economic and financial topic. The investigation highlights the importance and social value of remittances: remittances not only support migrants' families and relatives or increase their standard of living; they also help to strengthen family ties and add new dimensions to relationships between relatives. The final part of this chapter and the introductory part of the study are devoted to the last important thematic focus of our investigation – the role of the non-governmental sector in addressing the issues associated with remittances.

With regard to the context of this project – tackling the development impact of remittances – our investigation focused exclusively on sending remittances to developing or transition countries outside the EU. It has to be pointed out that this report does not represent any kind of extensive and representative research. Our main objective was to map the field and identify some current themes related to remittance-sending in the Czech Republic. We thus see our work as forming the pilot phase of a potential more extensive research project on remittances, which is yet to be carried out in the Czech Republic.

1. The Research Process and Methodology

Data on remittance-sending was collected over a period of eight weeks between December 2008 and February 2009.

1.1 The Research Technique

When planning the research investigation, we considered the use of structured and semi-structured interviews, or alternatively, focus groups from the very beginning.

For the purposes of this study, we defined remittances as funds sent by migrants to their country of origin. We did not take into account international trade transactions or payments for goods and services related to entrepreneurial activities. Remittances were understood primarily as intra-family transfers, either in the form of regular sums of money (parts of migrants' wage), or in the form of less regular or irregular money transfers sent home on various occasions.

The available literature on remittances and current trends in development projects, particularly with regard to measures that should make sending remittances easier, influenced our choice of thematic areas:

1. How do migrants send money from the Czech Republic to their country of origin?
2. What are the costs of remittance-sending and who bears them?
3. What are the social aspects of sending and receiving remittances?
4. What means can be used to inform migrants about different ways of sending money, further, what means

can be used to influence them or change the ways of sending?

On the basis of these thematic areas and a questionnaire prepared by the World Bank for the general purpose of remittance research, we designed an interview schedule. However, we tried to be flexible; interviews also allowed room to pursue other thematic areas and cover other dimensions of the examined problem than those outlined in the schedule. As the size of our sample was relatively small, we did not concentrate on determining the exact volume of remittances. Instead, we were interested in the amounts of money sent and the frequency of money transfers. Given the sample size, it was clear to us from the beginning that the collected data would not allow for any general conclusions to be drawn. Hence, we did not focus on this purely financial information, and many respondents apparently appreciated this approach. Numerical data provided in this report should be understood as examples rather than statistically relevant findings that are generally applicable to the population of migrants in the Czech Republic.

We noted migrants' responses down directly in the course of the interviews and, in some cases, audio recordings were made to capture the details of responses we received from interviewees.

Besides interviews, observations from the field were another important source of information. In many cases, interviews were not conducted according to the outlined schedule; instead data was obtained on the basis of personal contacts, via telephone or e-mail. Some informers played the role of intermediaries or gatekeepers (those opening the door to people who would take part in a research interview and share information), but at the same time, they provided us with valuable data. Some migrants did not want to be formally interviewed, but they were willing to discuss some remittance-related topics informally, outside the interview. There are a number of reasons why migrants refused formal interviews, the main being: the sensitivity of all questions concerning migrants' finances; intra-family financial flows; and social contacts established on the basis of financial matters. This is why we often obtained information by talking about the experiences of other migrants rather than the personal experiences of respondents (although, in fact, respondents may have been talking about their own experiences). In our opinion, this highlights the sensitivity of the topic: giving information about other people was easier than talking about one's own affairs.

1.2 Identifying Participants

We identified and contacted three categories of respondents: 1) representatives of Czech non-governmental organisations (NGOs) whose field of action is the provision of assistance and counselling services to migrants; 2) representatives of migrant organisations and associations; 3) migrants who send money to their country of origin. The sample comprised of representatives of the main nationalities of migrants living in the Czech Republic (and coming from outside the EU) – Ukraine, Russia, Moldova, Mongolia and Vietnam. Ultimately, we also included a small number of respondents from Belarus and informers from China.

A formal interview was conducted with 17 migrants. Further 15 migrants gave us brief information about their strategies of remittance-sending or provided us with important information (for example, interpreters, migrant employers, immigrants who opened the door to further contacts). The respondents come from the city of Prague, Ústí nad Labem and Pilsen.

Tracing suitable respondents was a more difficult task than we expected. As a rule, NGOs specialising in the provision of counselling services lack meaningful knowledge of the remittance issue. They do not deal with it very often, because clients do not turn to them with remittance-related concerns. None of the addressed NGOs are specifically involved in this field. We fared better with migrant organisations and associations for two reasons. First, the representatives of these organisations were migrants themselves and thus had personal, firsthand experience with sending remittances, and second, a number of migrant organisations have professional experiences with companies specialising in international money transfers.

We searched out individual migrants using snowball sampling techniques, using the social contacts of various initial intermediaries: friends, doctors, interpreters, shop assistants, journalists and others. We tried to trace migrants with diverse backgrounds in terms of length of stay in the country, job position or their level of integration into the majority society.

In general, we found it relatively easy to gain information about remittances from representatives of organisations and individual migrants from Ukraine and Russia. We did not experience any communication problems or reluctance to disclose information on sending remittances or their use.

By contrast, we encountered difficulties when communicating with migrant organisations and individual migrants coming from Asia, namely Vietnam, China and Mongolia. Information was also difficult to obtain from the respective representatives of these migrant communities, perhaps due to cultural differences in how this kind of information is discussed; most informers stated that their countrymen do not discuss this topic among themselves. They do not talk about it even with friends, less so with researchers – representatives of the majority society. Except for two individual interviews, we had to rely on information provided by the intermediaries who collected data for us, making use of their contacts with migrants from Vietnam, China and Mongolia: interpreter-migrants, migrants that are well-integrated in the majority society or Czechs engaged in activities supporting these communities.

2. Sending Remittances from the Czech Republic to Country of Origin

2.1 What are Remittances?

Our investigation revealed two relevant forms of remittances – money and goods. However, this does not mean that other forms of remittances are not relevant to migrants staying in the Czech Republic. The limited sample size does not allow us to quantify the volume of remittances sent home in monetary and material form, but responses indicate that migrants view the sending of both money and goods as important and interconnected.

The goods sent across borders comprise items that are unavailable or expensive in the country of origin (digital devices, quality groceries, delicacies), as well as cosmetics, clothing, shoes and other goods of day-to-day consumption, or gifts and trifles (items typical of home country, crosswords etc.). The culture of gifts proved to be a strong motivation factor for sending remittances: a large number of migrants regularly send gifts to their relatives. Presents are symbols of social ties and the intensity of social contacts, rather than economic support (although this aspect is often also taken into consideration, because presents may be very expensive). Also, the early experiences of migrants (usually gained in the country of origin) and their being practical lead to maximum use of items in migrants' households or households of their relatives.

Some migrants compare the prices of goods in the Czech Republic with the prices in their country of origin and send

home items that are significantly cheaper in the Czech Republic (oil, cosmetics, clothing bought at discounted prices). Some of the items sent to the country of origin are further distributed or otherwise marketed. For example, migrants buy many pairs of shoes, family members keep those pairs that fit them or that can be used within the household and the remaining pairs of shoes are sold to neighbours. The high importance of sending items back may be explained by the fact that these items help to extend social contacts and, in a way, emphasize the quality of the migrants' social ties.

2.1.1 Sending in Both Directions

Our investigation shows that many migrants see the flow of remittances from the opposite direction as equally important. Although the primary focus of the project was on remittances sent by migrants to their country of origin, it is important to bear in mind that some migrants receive, at least at some point during their stay in the Czech Republic, financial support from their family in the country of origin. Flows of money and goods in both directions often provide the framework for respondents' perceptions concerning remittances: some migrants only send home regular sums (part of their wage), while many others view sending and receiving in both directions as essential.

We discovered a number of reasons for sending money to migrants living in the Czech Republic. One of them can be the sale of property in the country of origin and subsequent transfer of funds to the migrant's country of current residence. Another reason may be the direct financial support of migrants by their families. This is also the case among migrants coming from poor countries, such as Vietnam or Mongolia, when they are exposed to sudden job loss, illness or other unfavourable circumstances. Migrants finding themselves in these situations often use the services of fast international transfer providers and obtain money from home that will help them to get through the difficult times and cover living expenses (such as rent or medical treatment fees) until they find a new job. Some immigrants who reside in the Czech Republic permanently earn relatively low income (for example successful applicants for asylum or workers employed in low-skilled occupations), and are therefore supported on a regular basis by relatives in their country of origin, both in monetary and material terms.

Many goods that are sent to migrants in the Czech Republic by their families represent material relief: for example, some

clothing items (underwear, hosiery) or toys for children are cheaper outside of the Czech Republic. At the same time, migrants receive gifts that have identity-related or emotional significance – migrants like to have a cup of “*their tea*” or want to wear something sent from home (“*I’m wearing part of Belarus.*”). These material remittances may not have great economic value - they are mentioned due to their context. Most respondents described remitting money and items home as an intensive two-way flow. What they find meaningful is the cyclical and dynamic nature of this cross-border movement.

2.2 The Means of Sending Remittances

This section focuses on financial remittances and financial institutions that help transfer funds to remittance destinations. Each migrant who sends remittances has his/her own way of optimising money transfers: how to transmit funds, which currency to exchange money in and which currency to get hold of the money in at home. Whether the transfers are made on a regular or one-off basis, over time each migrant develops a routine that he/she considers to be reliable. The way in which migrants send remittances home depends on many circumstances. The sums transferred vary and the reasons for choosing a particular way of sending remittances are complex. The status and experience of a migrant in the new society as well as the place of residence of the migrant’s family or remittance end users are also influential factors.

Many migrants seek comparative information on remittance-sending, compare offers by the providers of financial services and consider the amount of money to be sent as well as the accessibility of branches or agents. Other aspects taken into consideration include the costs of remittance-sending and the ways of getting hold of the money in a migrants’ country of origin. Other migrants follow the example of their friends, relatives, and countrymen. Naturally, migrants share and discuss their experiences, comparing best practice within migrant social networks. Some migrants send remittances in a way recommended to them by their employers or clients (job intermediaries, often illegal or semi-legal). Some recruitment agencies have begun to treat their employees in a “sustainable” way: apart from a job and accommodation, they also arrange remittance-sending, with the conditions of transfer being continuously optimised. In doing so, the agencies gain, among other things, the trust of migrant workers and relatively positive feedback. It is thus more likely that the

workers continue to use the services of these agencies. Respondents mentioned that many migrants – especially those who intend to work temporarily in the Czech Republic, earn money and return home – prefer to employ a client or an agency to make all the necessary arrangements on their behalf. These migrants are ready to follow the agency’s instructions and advice, often without attempting to understand the process. This also applies to the market for remittances.

The ways of sending remittances are divided into three categories according to the extent to which the services of official and established institutions are used: 1) formal way – using the services of well-established financial institutions; 2) informal way – physical transfer of cash by migrants themselves or other persons; 3) various combinations of formal and informal ways.

2.2.1 Official Financial Institutions: Companies Specialising in International Money Transfers, Banks, Post Offices

Despite the limited sample size, we managed to encompass the most important financial institutions offering international transfers of funds into our investigation. In principle, remittances are sent through companies specialising in international money transfers, banks and post offices. Our aim here is to give only a brief overview of the notable features of individual money transfer providers and the reasons that migrants choose their services, rather than to provide a comprehensive list of providers operating in the Czech market. There are multiple companies providing remittance services that are easily accessible, especially to those living in urban areas. Accessibility and price are among the main criteria applied by migrants when choosing financial institutions for sending remittances.

Companies Specialising in International Money Transfers

These companies offer one-off international transfers of funds: the client deposits money with a branch or an agent, gives the name of the receiver and obtains a transaction number, which he subsequently discloses to the receiver. At an agreed time, the receiver goes to an agreed branch or agent in the remittance destination, shows the transaction number or identifies himself/herself, and picks the money up.

Companies that specialise in international money transfers are a symbol of security for migrants. Some migrants

exclusively use the services provided by these institutions, others use them from time to time or prefer informal ways of sending money. Still, migrants using informal channels are aware that there is always the option to use the services of an official provider if they need to send or receive money fast and/or the informal channel that they usually use is not available. Compared with banks, the fundamental advantage of these companies is that clients are not obliged to show identity cards, which enables migrants in an irregular position to use their services. In addition to the advantage of specialisation in transferring money and no requirement of registration, the fact that there are no conditions regarding the use of other contract-based services (such as bank account) is appealing to many migrants.

The fees charged for international money transfers are set in such a way that it is inconvenient to send small amounts of money. According to the companies' websites, fees, particularly for sending higher sums (over \$1,000, also for lower amounts sent to Asia), range from 2.5 to 4 percent of the transferred amount; fees for lower sums reach between 8 and 16 percent. All fees are set for intervals (for example the transfer of EUR 50 – EUR 100 costs x percent, EUR 101 – EUR 200 costs y percent) and decline with the amount of money sent. A fee for sending a small sum falling into the lower part of the interval could reach almost 30 percent. These high costs put many migrants off and support their view that these services are unfavourable. In particular, those who had no personal experience with these companies or had only sent smaller sums stated that companies specialising in international money transfers charge fees reaching about 20 to 30 percent. Naturally, they see the services of these companies as absolutely unfavourable and so do not use them. Past experience probably plays a significant role here, as fees used to be higher.

Respondents who had used the services of these companies considered that the fees were justified by the level of reliability and speed of the transfer. Many of them followed the developments in transfer rates on the market and always aimed to send money in the most convenient way. In the overwhelming majority of cases we investigated, fees are paid by the sender, except in Mongolia, where, according to some informers, receivers are charged fees too. These fees are related to transfers between the capital city and respective regions.

Migrants who came to the Czech Republic with a view of earning money in order to support their families are particularly

sensitive about their expenses. Thus, people who tend to send regular small sums (\$50 - \$100), for which the fees are relatively high, seek cheaper alternatives and use the services provided by companies specialising in international transfers on a one-off basis. Even if they sent larger amounts, which would entail lower fees, the total fees, accumulated over the time of their stay in the Czech Republic, would be so big that they prefer informal ways of sending money. An advantage of these companies is that the transactions are fast and reliable. Many migrants, especially migrant workers who stay in a dormitory or who share an apartment with other people, cannot physically keep money with them since the risk of theft in a dormitory is high and there are also gangs that rob migrants of money on pay-day. Thus they tend to send money home straight after they are paid their wage. The fee is then considered the lesser of two evils.

Apart from fees, there are other costs related to the use of services provided by these companies, namely the rate of exchange between currencies. Different companies have different methodologies for receiving and dispensing money. This is another aspect that influences migrants' decisions as to whether they will exchange currency with these companies, or individually in exchange offices, or send money through informal channels.

Western Union

Western Union is a large and obvious player on the market for remittances. Many respondents who remit funds via informal channels use Western Union's rates as a reference basis. Western Union is a symbol of certainty; a backup option that makes it possible to send money abroad if other ways are unavailable. At the same time, there is a widespread view that the company's rates are high. Western Union branches are easily accessible, as the company co-operates with the Czech Post and therefore also has branches in smaller towns. For instance, one of them is located within SAPA, a big Vietnamese market place in Prague. According to respondents, the dense network of branches also allows easy access in remittance receiving countries. As for the disadvantages, respondents mentioned the fact that the money can often be withdrawn only in local currencies.

Chequepoint

The company has an interesting strategy. It establishes branches in the offices of migrant organisations or firms that are willing to include this aspect in their line of business. Individuals may also act as Chequepoint agents, for instance interpreters, who have contacts with other migrants and

access to their communities. Respondents maintained that the financial reward is not the main motivation for arranging transfers. Some of the main motives that agents mentioned were the extension of contacts and the possibility to influence migrants. For instance, a large number of migrants, especially migrant workers, come to the civic association Oberig in Ústí nad Labem and the Czech-Mongolian association in Pilsen to use a Chequepoint counter. These migrants would not otherwise have known about these non-governmental organisations. Apart from having their financial transfers arranged, the migrants get updates about the lives of migrants in the Czech Republic, legal job opportunities, accommodation, health insurance, etc. An advantage of this system is that Chequepoint agents (for example in the civic associations of migrants) are willing to accept money at times convenient for migrants, especially after working hours or during weekends.

In countries of origin, Chequepoint co-operates with exchange offices and banks (either their own or on the basis of a contract) which provide money withdrawal services. However banks and exchange offices, and hence, Chequepoint services, are not as easily accessible as Western Union branches. Still, respondents considered it an advantage that remittance users can choose the currency in which they want to receive the money and therefore were able to choose the most favourable exchange rate.

PDW, Anelik

Respondents characterized these two companies as oriented to Russian-speaking clients. They are supposedly reliable and easily accessible in the country of origin.

MoneyGram and UNiStream

These companies were mentioned only by a few informers. MoneyGram services are used for example by migrants from Mongolia. UNiStream focuses predominantly on Russian-speaking clients.

Banking Services and the Use of a Bank Account

Depositing money in an account with a Czech bank and withdrawing cash using an international payment card is a relatively common way of sending money through banks. Migrants open an account in the Czech Republic and obtain a payment card which they put at the disposal of remittance receivers. Although the fees charged for ATM cash withdrawals abroad are usually high, it is a relatively easy and cheap way of sending remittances. Some recruitment agencies or migrant employers choose this way to pay wages to migrant workers employed in big

factories – they credit workers' wages to their accounts (the opening of the account is pre-negotiated with the bank). The bank issues an international payment card which is used by the migrants' relatives in their country of origin. In this way, employers solve the problem of sending remittances on their employees' behalf.

There are also other ways of transferring remittances through banks, namely account-to-account transactions. This form of money transfer is used rather for one-off purposes in situations where there is no other alternative. Transfer fees are very high and, what is more, it is necessary to check the conditions and fees charged by individual banks for each transaction and also how the transaction will be processed. This is complicated and it is only really convenient with large money transfers, or when further cashless transactions are to be made, or the money is to be used for specific purposes (for example, the sale of an estate in the country of origin and a purchase of estate in the Czech Republic). Some respondents had negative experiences with this method, with bank staff reluctant to arrange a transfer (for example, in less common currencies). This corresponds to the World Bank's findings that one-off international transactions are not a priority for banks. Correspondingly, gaining information on the conditions of money transfer is difficult and time-consuming and the price of the transaction is high. As a result, most migrants are put-off sending remittances through banks.

Some migrants view the limiting factors of using banking services for sending remittances as quite substantial. Many migrants do not have a bank account in the Czech Republic for a variety of reasons. Only a couple of years ago some banks applied a relatively discriminatory approach towards migrants who, as a result, could barely open an account. Banks required various certificates, or they only offered an account to persons with permanent residence status, or the account service charges were very high. Although many banks reviewed their approach, many migrants still do not use the services provided by banks.

Another reason why migrants do not have formal bank accounts is the fact that they are often not used to depositing money with banks in their country of origin. In many countries of origin the banking sector is only in the process of development and stabilization and is not considered safe. For instance, respondents from Ukraine mentioned that people are often reluctant to deposit their money in a bank account because of high fees and the risk that the bank

may collapse. Therefore, there is a general distrust of the banking sector.

Banking transactions remain an unpopular means of sending remittances because transactions are not as easy, compared to the one-off and relatively anonymous service offered by companies specialising in international money transfers.

Money Transfers via Post

Money transfer through the post is generally considered expensive. Migrants choose this form of sending remittances only when the receiver does not have access to other institutions than the post office. We observed a strong distrust of post offices, either in the case of sending money or other shipments (respondents mentioned cases of letters being opened, checks and disappearance of their contents).

2.2.2 Informal Ways of Sending Money

According to the respondents, many migrants send remittances through informal channels, which involve the physical transfer of cash, sending money via friends, relatives or drivers and passengers travelling on public transport. They consider this form of sending money natural, traditional and do not look for alternative ways. This method is not only used when delivering money across short distances or to locations directly reachable by bus or train. Migrants ask their friends and relatives travelling home to carry the cash on their behalf, and often send cash in this way even to remote places in Europe and Asia.

Migrants who use this form of transfer are members of relatively broad social networks that are mobilised abroad and are determined by a migrants' social background. Many respondents stated that they have so many friends and relatives that not a week passes without someone going home and possibly carrying something. Apart from seeing this method of transfer as completely natural (*“when someone is travelling to the country, town or village where I come from, it is obvious that I send money through him/her”*), another reason for choosing an informal way of sending money is the aim to keep transaction costs to a minimum. Migrants usually do not pay friends or relatives for carrying money to the country of origin. However, sometimes migrants also employ special couriers who transport money to some places, and this service is paid (the costs are often shared among a group of persons who want to use courier services). This often includes the task to (conveniently) exchange the money for agreed currencies.

Another reason for using informal channels for remittances is the fact that a significant number of migrants do not trust official institutions, or institutions that are not connected with their countrymen. A clear advantage of these informal channels is the fact that cash can be transported in a migrant's currency of choice. Money can be exchanged in the country of origin or it may be exchanged for dollars or euros in the Czech Republic and then taken out of the country in this form. In recent years, the cross-border transport of cash, for example to the countries of the former Soviet Union, has become easier, compared with the 1990s when migrants were obliged to declare and clear cash at border checkpoints. At present, the cash declaration limit is set at such a high level that the transport of cash is practically unregulated.

Sending Remittances by Bus

If cash is not carried by friends and relatives, there is an option to send money by bus, especially to the countries of the former Soviet Union. In this case, cash is physically carried by a bus driver or a person on board who is contacted by the migrant in advance. Drivers usually get “adequate” compensation of about CZK 100 to CZK 200 for the transfer of a bag, or 2 to 2.5 percent for delivering money in an envelope. Other ways of sending money by bus is to utilize company buses, buses operated by agencies or non-public bus lines used only by certain people, their relatives and friends who know that these lines exist.

Migrants usually use bus lines to send money and, above all, various items. Respondents that had used this method of sending remittances, consider it safe and smooth, especially when the driver comes from their country of origin. Czech drivers are often unwilling to transport items because they do not want to bear any responsibility. Sending cash or items by bus is based on a mutual trust that they will not be picked up by someone unauthorised. This relation of trust between countrymen was a very important aspect for many migrants, especially in the case of sending remittances by bus, and represented for them a positive aspect of a particular migrant group.

As for the disadvantages of sending remittances by bus, respondents mentioned the risk of theft, either during an ambush on a bus (which is a matter of the past) or when one item, bag or envelope is stolen. Some respondents stated that they cannot send cash and other items by bus as often as they would wish because bus lines to some areas do not operate very frequently. Others felt that

remittances may be sent via bus almost anytime or to a sufficient extent. Another drawback mentioned by respondents was that receivers have to be at a bus stop when it is scheduled to arrive: they often have to wait for hours because the bus is delayed (the amount of time needed to cross borders is unpredictable) or the bus arrives at inconvenient times. There can also be a crowd of people at the bus stop waiting for remittances transported by the bus. Although sending money by bus appears to be a well-functioning form of transfer, many migrants do not trust it and do not use this channel. This is particularly true for those who are used to sending money through financial companies, who consider this way of sending money less reliable and relatively dangerous. The driver does not bear any responsibility in case money disappears and there is no chance to retrieve it. Some respondents expressed negative opinions of the informality and lack of structured social interaction. They found it embarrassing to come to a platform at a bus or train station and ask a complete stranger or a driver to transport an envelope.

2.2.3 A Combination of Formal and Informal Ways of Sending Money

An example of a combination of formal and informal ways of sending remittances is an agent who sends money through an official intermediary. This is the way used by some migrants from Mongolia and, in principle, sending money through a client functions in a similar way. The client not only arranges jobs and accommodation for foreigners but also regularly sends remittances to their country of origin. Intermediaries charge fees for the provision of these services, amounting to, for example, one percent of the transferred amount, which can increase the costs of sending to a great extent. The services of intermediaries are used by migrants who do not wish to communicate with an official institution, but also by those who cannot make it to the office of a financial company within official working hours.

2.3 Risks and Problems Encountered when Sending Remittances

In the 1990s particularly, the transfer of remittances in cash entailed high risks and many migrants were robbed. Apparently, the overwhelming majority of migrants, especially migrant workers, transported cash by bus, train or car. Specialised gangs (respondents called them mafia) picked individual migrants and robbed them in various ways – on

a station platform before the departure of a bus, on a night train, when migrants were changing trains/buses, at border crossings. Buses were ambushed and the transported money served as a ransom. However, respondents referred to these dramatic situations as to a matter of the past; people no longer physically carry such large amounts of cash and increasingly use cashless transfers. Also, the security on trains has improved (presence of the police on trains, train staff warn migrants, compartments can be locked), and practical organisational measures were taken on train and bus stations. For example, bus lines to Ukraine depart from frequently used platforms of the Florenc bus station in Prague where potential thieves or blackmailers would be seen by many witnesses. Nevertheless, respondents admit that it can still happen that a strange person on a station platform or on a train will attempt to find out whether a passenger is carrying any cash.

According to the statements of respondents, it seems that there are currently no significant problems connected with sending remittances from the Czech Republic that would make sending money complicated or withdrawing money in the country of origin more difficult. However, given the limited sample size, we cannot speak for the accuracy of this picture. It is natural for people to try to present themselves as individuals who manage their day-to-day problems and tasks well. Similarly, our respondents described the process of sending remittances as a well established, optimised and satisfactory routine. It is also important to take into consideration the common attitude of migrants towards their status in society and their options in the host country: migrants often take conditions as pre-determined and difficult to change. Therefore, their primary goal is to cope with all problems under these conditions and not to consider other alternatives.

2.4 Social Aspects of Remittance-Sending

2.4.1 Remittance Receivers and the Amounts of Money Sent

Within our sample, we only registered the sending of remittances to relatives. None of the respondents mentioned sending money to institutions, individuals or subjects outside of the family.

With regard to the limited extent of our investigation, we only present here examples of amounts of money sent by respondents. Therefore, these figures do not illustrate the

volume of remittances sent by migrants in the Czech Republic. Our aim is to provide readers with some examples of the value that remittances can reach. The value of money remitted to migrants' relatives depends on a number of circumstances, the main being the actual reason for sending money, that is, whether a migrant's income is the principal source of finance for his/her family or whether it only augments the family's income. In this sense, our sample was broadly representative of this dimension of sending remittances. There are migrants whose families live off the remittances, as their incomes would not cover their subsistence (for instance some respondents from Vietnam, with old people being totally dependent on their children). For some people, remittances represent a significant contribution to their income and protect them against poverty (for example, remittances raise the net income from a low to an average level). For other people remittances ensure a more comfortable life and secure higher living standards, compared with other people living in the country of origin. For example, it is meant to be obvious which families in Mongolia receive support from abroad simply from looking at them.

Migrant workers who stay in the Czech Republic without their families try to send as much money as possible to their relatives on a regular basis (the values can range from CZK 10,000 to CZK 15,000 per month). Migrants who only send money from time to time, on special occasions such as festivals, for specific purposes or as an irregular support, might send 100, 200, 300, even ranging to 500 euros or dollars.

Another important factor is the level of migrants' income and their expenditures in the Czech Republic: the value of remittances is determined not only by the amount of money they earn, but also the amount of money they spend. Many migrant workers are able to save up a lot of money while having very little expenses (their cost of living is very low) in the Czech Republic. They will even voluntarily sacrifice their own comfort in terms of the accommodation they use and the nutritional content of what they eat. The cost of living in the Czech Republic is relatively high – most migrants pay high rent and, if unemployed, they pay very high health insurance fees. They also have to cover other living costs, which affects the amounts of money that they are able to send home in the form of remittances.

The amount of money that migrants send home changes over time, along with changes in the migrant's family

circumstances or integration. Initially, migrants may send home up to one half of his/her wages every month. This amount may gradually decline as part or all of the family members relocate to the country of destination, or when a migrant finds a partner in the Czech Republic or makes new friends with whom he/she shares hobbies. Eventually, migrants send presents only twice a year to relatives on occasions of anniversaries. Financial expenditures, whether the volume of remittances or the cost of living in the Czech Republic, are connected with the life cycle – for example, the number of children that people have, how old the children are, whether expenditures primarily cover food and clothing or education, extracurricular activities or other investments with higher costs.

2.4.2 Use of Remittances in Country of Origin

The overwhelming majority of remittance flows mentioned by respondents serve to cover immediate consumption, either in the form of groceries, clothing, medicine, health care services, or purchasing goods and services of higher value such as a car, covering tuition fees, constructing a house, etc. Only one respondent stated that he would like to save up money, return to his country of origin and start up a business. He saw the money as a source of investment, as opposed to other respondents who expressed some surprise when asked whether they intended to invest the money or save it for future use. The use of remittances may be characterised by the response of one female migrant that migrants *“feed their children not set up businesses back home”*.

An interesting issue with regard to remittance use is the phenomenon of building a house in the country of origin. Many respondents mentioned that they know migrants who were building a house in the town or village that they come from. However, the house is empty because the owners now live permanently in the Czech Republic and are never likely to move in. Although migrants realize this, they continue to invest in the house, partly because they follow the example of neighbours and partly because they consider putting money into a house a better investment or means of storage than depositing it with a bank.

2.5 Migrants' Awareness of Remittance Sending Options

Many respondents believed that migrants share information about potential or established means of sending remittances

by word of mouth. Information provided by countrymen was considered a reliable source: the advice spread relatively fast and played an important role in deciding on the method of transferring money.

Announcements in newspapers, either nationwide (such as *Annonce*) or foreign-language ones issued for migrants, are another source of information. Companies offering international money transfers distribute leaflets within offices of the Czech Foreign Police. Respondents believed that if people read newspapers or information on leaflets, for example, they will be able to find out about the various options for sending remittances home.

Currently, there is no centralized information source in the Czech Republic that would provide a fast and reliable overview of the institutions that deal with international money transfers and their conditions. International projects are currently running that provide comparative price information about various alternatives for sending remittances and that enable individual migrants to choose the most convenient way in advance. Migrants in the Czech Republic can obtain information from the websites of individual companies offering international money transfers, but the way in which this information is presented varies from company to company. For example, there are significant differences in the clarity of the data that is presented on the websites, or the availability of detailed information, or accessibility of data on fees charged for money transfers or exchange rates.

The awareness of migrants concerning the various options when it comes to sending remittances depends on a variety of factors, such as: the migrant's status in society; the accessibility of various information sources, including the internet; whether migrants use the internet as a research tool; whether they monitor multiple information sources in order to find out about various ways of sending remittances, and whether they are interested in this kind of information at all. Many migrants search for information every time they plan to send money home. Others rely on information provided by their friends, countrymen or clients, or employ an agent to arrange a money transfer.

2.5.1 NGOs as Information Hubs or Intermediaries in Problems Encountered when Sending Remittances

Only a small proportion of migrants living in the Czech Republic use the services provided by non-governmental organisations (NGOs). There are a number of reasons for

this: for many migrants NGOs are not easily accessible as their offices are often located in big cities or their office hours overlap with the migrants' working hours. This may be inconvenient for many migrants. Another significant reason is the fact that many migrants often do not know or cannot even imagine what a non-governmental organisation is. For example, for migrants coming from remote parts of Asia, the idea of an NGO is a difficult concept to grasp – it is neither a public authority, nor a firm. The migrants are not familiar with the concept and, hence, NGOs remain unnoticed or ignored because migrants have no previous experience with these organisations that would make it easier for them to understand what NGOs do and how their services may be used. The fact that NGOs provide services free of charge puzzles migrants even more.

Many migrants are unable to communicate in Czech or in English and hence feel too embarrassed to turn to an institution. Many NGOs use the services of interpreters and it is important that migrants are aware of that and are not afraid to make contact. In the Czech Republic, migrant workers in particular do not expect to have intensive social contacts and hence they do not even think of using the services provided by NGOs. The barrier between them and the service provided by an office is too large. We also observed another factor that explains the attitude of migrants towards NGOs when talking to a respondent from Mongolia: NGOs serve all migrants, not a specific ethnic group. A similar feeling was expressed by respondents coming from Vietnam. Because NGOs are usually not ethnically targeted, migrants do not turn to NGOs.

Only one NGO worker mentioned that clients do inquire about options for sending remittances. However, this is not a frequent inquiry and migrants usually try to find out more about ways in which their relatives could send money to them (for example applicants for asylum at airports). Either way, these are people in need who have also had previous contacts with NGOs, such as present or former asylum seekers.

Our findings show that migrants turn to NGOs when they face problems that they are unable to solve independently. They do not contact NGOs with issues that are part of their everyday lives: this includes issues connected with remittances.

3. Conclusion

This investigation highlights many aspects concerning remittances and identifies areas requiring further research in order to gain more complete data on the volumes of remittances sent and their use in countries of origin. The findings provide an important basis for adopting further policy measures and practical steps that could increase the awareness of migrants regarding methods of remittance-sending and their efficiency. The promotion of remittance-sending could have direct or indirect implications for the economic and social development of the countries of origin of migrants coming to the Czech Republic. Furthermore, findings reveal the interconnectedness of the cross-national ties that migrants create between their country of origin and country of destination, and support the growing recognition by the field of migration studies that by migrating people do not abandon their mental, emotional, social and economic ties with their original environment. These ties are maintained and built up across borders in a dynamic way. In this way, migrants connect the places of their former and present residence, places that are closely linked to their personal history. The phenomenon of remittances is clear proof of this concept.

Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

Remittances often represent a key source of finances for individual families and in many cases for entire developing countries. From this point of view, the **mechanisms** of sending and receiving remittances and hence, losses and risk related to the transfer of remittances, play a significant role. It is therefore desirable to focus on raising awareness with regard to sending remittances as well as on optimising the conditions of safe, efficient and transparent financial transfers.

Many formal and informal institutions are involved in monitoring and the preparation of individual tools.

The co-operation of individual players, including target groups, i.e. individual migrants and migrant associations, is the second vital factor of effectiveness.

The necessity to better **understand the needs and motivations of migrants** is closely related to the previous point, as no mechanisms or system of communication will function properly unless they are based on empathy, mutual trust, and the gradual elimination of human and institutional barriers.

The Role of CSOs

The value of civic organisations emerges from their relation to the key aspects of effectiveness. Among one of the key strengths of CSOs is their ability to approach migrants directly, their ability to listen to migrants' needs and problems and their capability to connect individual players and support multilateral communication and co-operation.

Civil Society Organisations have greatly contributed to making the issue of remittances in the Czech Republic a prominent one, and to establishing direct co-operation between relevant institutions and organisations. They may also play an important role in research on remittances and especially in providing information or legal services to migrants as well as in promoting their engagement in the preparation of new policies and tools concerning migration. But success will always depend on gaining and strengthening mutual trust.

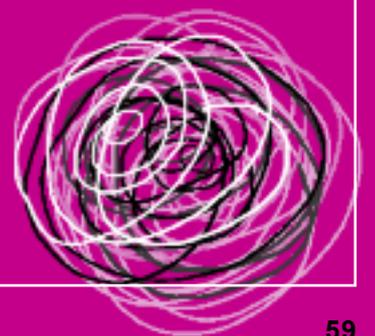
Tereza Rejšková works for the Multicultural Center Prague as an editor of www.migrationonline.cz, the center's website on migration. In the FoRS' project, she has coordinated the migration and development theme and co-organized a seminar on remittance flows from the Czech Republic.

Blanka Tollarová is a sociologist focusing on migration studies, most importantly on the status of immigrants in receiving countries. During her PhD she researched the institutionalized ways of assistance to asylum holders in the Czech Republic. She has cooperated externally with the Multicultural Center Prague.



School counsellors – Ngonhongane community in Mozambique.
Photo: Jana Krczmařová

Make development Inclusive



A) The Case of the Sue Ryder Foundation in Malawi



Kibble Ngalauka | Sue Ryder Foundation in Malawi

Introduction

This paper examines the work of the Sue Ryder Foundation in Malawi (SRFIM) and its relation to inclusive development. It focuses on the foundation's past and present work and describes what it has achieved to date in relation to the Millennium Development Goals. Two stories, one of a young epileptic girl, and one of a 60-year old man with asthma, are featured in this paper as case studies that illustrate this approach to the MDGs and inclusive development as perceived by the Sue Ryder Foundation. The foundation began as a charity and has been active for 19 years. Its programs did not originally involve indigenous people, who for a long while have been regular recipients of charity and assistance. Today, however, with the western world experiencing one of the worst economic crises in history, aid is becoming less and less available. Donors are drastically cutting budgets without concern for the innocent and less privileged people in the rural communities of Malawi. SRFIM looks at this as a challenge that, as harsh as this may sound, calls for a paradigm shift that will make communities in Malawi no longer the objects of charity, but of development. This is an opportunity for SRFIM to re-design its program and embrace the need for inclusive development. For this to be achieved, the Sue Ryder Foundation has decided that its volunteers and the communities must take an active role and be involved in all decision making, planning, implementation and monitoring of development policies. Making development inclusive is in line with the foundation's strategy. Let's briefly look at how to make development inclusive. What exactly does it mean?

Inclusive development seeks to ensure that all phases of the development cycle (design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation) support diversity, and that individuals with disabilities meaningfully participate in development processes and policies. Inclusive development guarantees that people with disabilities are recognized as rights-holding, equal members of society who are engaged in the development process. Development institutions, policies and programs must operate in an inclusive manner and must be assessed in accordance with their impact on the situation of disabled people (Dutch Coalition on Disability and Development, 2008.) In this way, inclusive development cannot be discussed without first tackling the issue of poverty.

1. Poverty and Disability

For SRFIM to tackle disability issues, poverty issues cannot be ignored. It is not surprising that many observers say that poverty leads to disability, while others observe that disability is the root cause of poverty (www.disabilitykar.net).

1.1 Why are so many disabled people in Malawi poor?

People with disabilities in Malawi, as in many other countries, face numerous challenges that result in their exclusion from mainstream society, making it difficult for them to access their fundamental social, political and economic rights. Many make their way through life impoverished, abandoned, uneducated, malnourished, discriminated against, neglected and vulnerable. Due to this, life is a daily struggle to survive. Whether they live in urban centers or in rural areas, they share these common problems. They are largely excluded

from essential services and they lack the protection of a family and community. They are often at risk of exploitation and abuse.

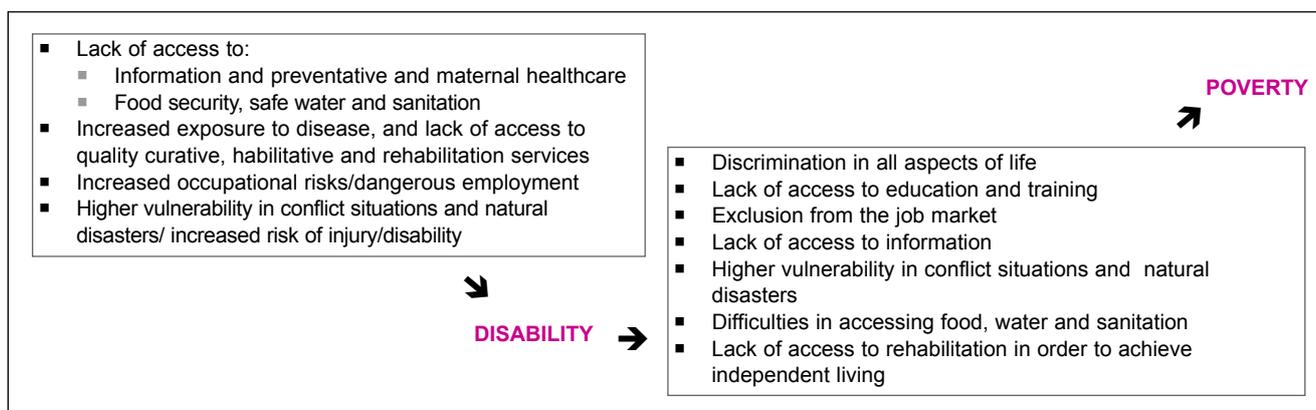
Poverty is both a cause and a consequence of disability. Most disabled people who became handicapped later in life feel that their disability made them poorer. The economic costs of disability are of the following kind:

- Direct costs of treatment, including travel and incidental expenses;
- Foregone income due to disability;
- Indirect costs to others who provide care and support to the disabled person.

In the area where SRFIM works, disabled people are seen as passive victims requiring charitable help. James Kalanje a disabled person in Bwanje valley said that he felt that he was seen as useless, was looked down upon, and treated as an object: *“Normally people say you are incapable, you can’t do things.”* Disabled people in the program area lack: voice, access to healthcare, assistive devices and rehabilitation, vocational training and income generation skills, access to disability benefits, confidence and awareness of their rights and entitlements.

The degree of social exclusion that a disabled person faces greatly varies according to his/her status as an individual, the type and severity of the impairment and, particularly, his/her gender. The situation for disabled women is particularly bleak. The diagram below clearly illustrates the cause and effects of poverty to people with disabilities.

The relationship between poverty and disability



Source: Make Disability Inclusive Manual, 2005

¹ Except where noted, statistics are drawn from a variety of sources, including the 2004 Human Development Report, 2004 Demographic and Health Survey and other online sources.

1.2 Malawi in Brief

Malawi is a small landlocked country in Southern Africa, with a total area of 118,480 km², of which almost 20% is covered by Lake Malawi. Malawi has a population of 12.8 million¹ people, and is growing at 3% per annum. Over 80% of people live in rural areas and practice subsistence farming. Life expectancy at birth is 36 years of age. Under-five mortality rates are high at 133 per 1,000 live births. Maternal mortality is among the worst in the world at around 1,000 deaths per 100,000 live births. The main causes of morbidity and mortality are HIV/AIDS, malaria, respiratory infections and water-related diseases. Malawi is an extremely poor country. Its Human Development Index of 0.388 ranks it 165th out of 177 countries in the world. Its GDP, of about \$180/person/year, places it among the world's poorest countries.

Malawi has a heterogeneous ethnic and religious composition in which the various groups live together with minimal tensions between them. Malawians have a strong sense of national identity and a determination to avoid the ethnic and religious problems that have affected many African countries over recent years.

2. Disability and MDGs

Earlier, poverty was briefly discussed. However, talking about poverty without talking about MDGs will be meaningless in terms of inclusive development.

NGOs are demanding that international donors and UN member states use the MDG's midway point as an opportunity to refocus and actively monitor and address the needs of the poorest people in society, those with disabilities. Despite their lack of visibility, there are 650 million disabled people in the world!

80% of people with disabilities live in the poorest countries. 82% live below the poverty line in developing countries. While investment in basic services, such as health or education, is insufficient and decreasing, the mortality of children with disabilities is as high as 80%, even in countries where the under-five mortality rate is below 20%. Despite this, people with disabilities are largely invisible in MDG activities and MDG reporting. The MDG targets and indicators fail to provide global data on the situation of people with disabilities living in poverty.

The MDG on Universal Primary Education aims to provide access to education for all. But at the midway stage of the MDGs, of the 22 million children out of school, one third of them are children with disabilities. Universal primary education will not be achieved if children with disabilities are not targeted and actively included in actions to promote and monitor progress in inclusive education (IDC, 2007).

Now is the time for the MDG project to address the rights of 10% of the world's population!

Facts related to the MDGs:

- MDG 1: Disability (physical or mental handicap) and poverty are mutually reinforced and people with disability (very often together with their families) represent the poorest groups of the poor.
- MDG 2: 98% of children with some handicap do not have access to basic education.
- MDG 3: Disabled women and girls face worse forms of discrimination and exclusion, which include being the subjects of violence.
- MDG 4: the mortality of disabled children under-five years of age is higher than 80% in development countries.
- MDG 5: Every year more than twenty million women develop a disability or long-term handicap as a result of pregnancy and childbirth.
- MDG 6: Disabled people are more often victims of other diseases, and many of these diseases (like malaria) are at the same time the cause of their handicap.

3. Sue Ryder Foundation in Malawi (SRFIM)

Over 19 years, the SRFIM has earned an excellent reputation for providing community-based nursing and rehabilitation to rural communities in Malawi. As a local and independent NGO, SRFIM provides treatment and care for people with physical disabilities and chronic conditions including epilepsy, asthma and cerebral palsy. It is the only organization in Malawi working for and with people in these areas offering such services.

In 2003, the Malawi Council for the Handicapped (MACOHA) carried out a study in the Balaka district. It established that the SRFIM programme has had a very positive impact on community perceptions of people with disabilities.

Individuals with physical disabilities face two major obstacles: limitations due to their condition, and limitations due to the community's perception of their condition. Often, the community does not involve the disabled in community developmental activities due to their thoughts that the disabled person is unable to participate. Likewise, it is difficult for the handicapped to take part in the activities that are necessary to maintain their own daily living standards.

People with epilepsy are seen as being of low intelligence and are often segregated due to this perception. Suffering from unpredictable seizures, often they are forced to live in isolation and not take active roles in community developmental activities or enterprises that may improve their standards of living.

Asthma attacks are triggered by the presence of allergies, an infection, or one's involvement in physical exertions. People with asthma tend to have attacks while participating in community or household development activities of a physical nature. Instead of trying to prevent the occurrence of these attacks, they often shun all physical duties, thus rendering them unable to contribute to the development of their community as well as the welfare of their lives.

As explained in the above chronic illnesses and physical disability scenario, the outcome is a decrease in participation in community development, resulting in the lowering of standards of living. This is a situation that negatively contributes to the government's aim of national development as well as poverty reduction.

The assistance offered by the SRFIM operates 5 days a week and focuses on three types of patients: those affected with epilepsy, those affected by asthma and those with a physical disability. The service is divided into two teams: the first provides a nursing service that mainly assists patients with epilepsy and asthma, while the second team focuses on rehabilitation of patients with disabilities. The two teams set out early in the morning to pre-selected locations where volunteers assemble the various patients with their family members or acquaintances. Taking into account the large number of people assisted by the SRFIM and the particular welfare conditions of Malawi (where there is a lack of public transportation and a great distance between public health centres and the homes of many patients), it is considered more practical to move the SRFIM teams so a number of patients can be visited at a specified location. This movement takes place a few days each month.

The locations where the patients assemble are known as “clinics”. There are approximately 60 clinics assisting a total of over six thousand patients. In this way, due to the organisation of the two teams who coordinate with the volunteers, a calendar is prepared with the dates of various appointments. This allows patients to know when they can benefit from the SRFIM services. In general, each group of patients is visited every six weeks. In the rainy season, from December to March, the interval between one appointment and the next may change depending on the location of the clinic. A mobile unit allows the two teams to reach these pre-established locations where volunteers bring together the patients and their relatives on a scheduled date. After a brief introduction by the volunteers selected from the neighbouring villages, the SRFIM staff begin medical examinations. These sometimes take place in a covered structure consisting of one or two empty rooms. Mats are laid on the floor for the members of the team and their patients. In other cases the visits take place under a tree in open air or outside the home of a family group. The volunteers organise the patients making sure that they all have a health card (prepared and donated by SRFIM), which is distributed to each person on their first visit and is, in effect, the patient’s personal medical record. Updates of their care are written on these cards. Using the personal medical records from the SRFIM office, a Community Nurse calls and manages each patient.

The Community Nurse (CN) for epileptics and asthmatics has the duty of regularly re-examining a patient (follow-up) and asking a series of questions to assess the effectiveness

of the therapy. He/she is also responsible for recommending a change in care in the case of a disturbance or worsening of the pathology. In this way, the therapy is confirmed or changed with the subsequent distributing of necessary drugs for the next six weeks, or until the next SRFIM visit. The follow-up conditions are recorded on the medical record held by the nurse and these observations are in turn recorded on the health card held by the patient. If the patient experiences problems not related to the medical issues expressed on the cards, depending on the seriousness of them, a consultation can be requested. The patient is then sent to a health centre or to another health structure upon a written request by SRFIM.

The activity of the rehabilitation team is quite similar to this. The patient is asked to execute a series of tasks or assume specific postures to assess whether or not they are capable of carrying out some physiotherapy exercises on their own or with the help of a volunteer or a family member. Again, the medical record held by the physiotherapist and the patient’s health cards are updated, and the therapeutic programme for the coming weeks is prescribed. In the case of symptoms unrelated to the physical disability a consultation at the health centre or another public health structure is requested.

The number of patients under treatment varies greatly. On average, approximately 30 to 40 people frequent the meeting places or Clinics.

Thousands of clients have benefited from the free medical and rehabilitation services of SRFIM since its establishment in 1990. Households now receive greater assistance when taking care of the chronically sick and dependent individuals with physical disabilities. The outcomes have been extremely good as illustrated in the stories below.

3.1 Laika, SRFIM Role Model

“God is indeed great! He gave these people the wisdom to help our children who seemed to have no hope at all but now they have a hope for their future,” said Laika’s mother whose daughter is now a role model. She has been discharged after successful treatment from the Sue Ryder Foundation in Malawi community based rehabilitation.

This is a statement most parents would agree to upon seeing their child, once with paralyzed limbs, now walk, sit and play independently, even perform household chores, after



undergoing community based medical rehabilitation exercises provided in the Ntcheu and Balaka Districts.

Until her first birthday, Laika Piano was a normal and healthy baby girl. Then came the fateful day when she started having fits and was taken to hospital. A medical doctor told Laika's mother that her daughter had cerebral malaria. She was given proper medication and got better.

However, the same year, Laika got sick again. This time, her parents took her to a traditional healer for treatment. Unfortunately, her condition did not improve and she remained sick and very weak for several days, which eventually resulted in her limbs (legs and arms) becoming paralyzed. Unable to move, she could only manage to suckle.

Laika was in this state until, one day, the Village Headman Silika advised Laika's mother to seek help from SRFIM community based care centre in the Balaka District.

It was at the SRFIM that Laika's mother learned that children like her daughter, who have lost control of their limbs, once registered, are able to receive physiotherapy at their (the clients') homes.

Unfortunately, Laika would have another challenge to her condition. At the age of three she was diagnosed with

epilepsy. At this time Laika's mother decided not to have another baby in order to provide all of her support and undivided attention to her sick child.

Laika, now 15, is a role model in her village, as well as at SRFIM. Once with paralyzed limbs, she is now able to do the same work any 15 year old could do. *"She is able to do the laundry, clean dishes as well as fetch water from the borehole,"* said Laika's proud mother.

She revealed that her worst fear was that her daughter would have a hard time coping during her adolescence due to her epilepsy:

"My fears were on how my child would cope up during puberty but now I am relieved that she understands that she is a young lady who should take care of herself. She takes a bath by herself as well as doing her laundry without problems," she said.

Beautiful Laika, now discharged from the community based rehabilitation, is in Standard 3 and is doing very well in all of her subjects at school. Being a Muslim, she also attends Madras (Islamic lessons) and enjoys playing around with friends in her village.

As a way of showing her gratitude to SRFIM, Laika's mother became a volunteer and encourages parents who have children with problems similar to Laika's to seek SRFIM's help. *"I would like to encourage parents to use mosquito nets to avoid malaria which leads to cerebral palsy among children,"* she advised.

When her child finished with the rehabilitation, she said she was so grateful to SRFIM and the volunteers for their excellent work - work that allowed her child become an independent young lady.

3.2 Living with Asthma: A Malawi Case

Wisitedi Bilisimo, 60, of Masese I Village, Ntcheu District in Central Malawi, an asthmatic, is considered to be very lucky. Not necessarily because, thanks to SRFIM, his condition is now controlled, but rather because he defied all odds and survived asthma at a very young age without medical assistance. He was born in a part of Malawi where poverty is a way of life and health facilities are not easily accessible, posing a big challenge to people living with asthma due to the nature of this chronic disease.

At the age of 5 or so, Bilisimo said he always felt tired, had extreme chest tightness and a cough that eventually resulted in the vomiting of whatever he drank or ate. A firm memory of how he could breathe like a cock crowing is permanently etched in his mind!

Some people in the community thought that the young boy had been bewitched, a typical traditional misconceptions due to high levels of illiteracy and poverty in Malawi. His parents tried everything, consulting one witch doctor after another, but all in vain. Eventually after some years, the asthma subsided but did not go away completely. Unable to travel the long distance to school, he was unable to continue attending classes. Due to these difficulties he was also not able to work on a farm.

When Bilisimo relocated to Bwanje Valley ten years ago, a predominantly small-scale tobacco growing area, his asthma condition greatly increased in severity. This time, it was so severe that he could neither go to the garden, nor move somewhere else once, so he stopped his work in the tobacco garden. He was reduced to an invalid. To make things worse, he lived 40 km away from the nearest health center, and the roads were in an indescribable condition.

“My life was one big uphill struggle as I could not manage to go to the nearest hospital because, as you know, an asthmatic tires easily and the roads are impassable,” Bilisimo said, adding that he almost gave up on life, as after struggling to get to the hospital, the medication for asthma wasn't available.

But thanks to SRFIM community volunteers that heard of his desperate situation, he made his way to one of the mobile clinics. There, amongst others, he met Jenny Mgwagwa, Principal Community Nurse for SRFIM, who warmly welcomed him and gave him asthma medication.

Asthma is a chronic disease that has clinical features such as shortness of breath, wheezing, chest tightness and cough among others. Although no clear statistics exist, it is believed that many people are exposed to a higher degree irritants such as smoke and air pollution when they work in tobacco gardens. This results in more severe attacks since people with asthma are more prone to allergens.

Jenny Mgwagwa, who joined SRFIM about 8 years ago, is particularly delighted to see asthmatic people who could once not go to their gardens, now enjoy them after receiving

medication from SRFIM mobile clinics. *“I love to work with the poorest of the poor in the villages and derive lots of happiness when I see clients, whose conditions are now controlled, working towards improving their lives and our country,”* Mgwagwa said. She also added that as somebody who has worked in government hospitals for a long time, she feels that people with asthma are grossly neglected and that there is a need for greater availability of asthma medications. Since asthma is a lifelong illness, uncontrolled asthma leads to unproductive citizens who cannot fend for themselves causing them to become a burden on the community and government.

According to Mgwagwa, a shortage of funds prevents outreach to a wider clientbase. Insufficient medicines and a lack of proper transportation are some of the factors that limit the expansion of mobile clinics to other equally needy and deserving areas. *“Our programme area has a high population rate but we fail to open up new clinics due to funds and I ask new donors out there to come to our rescue so that we can reach out to many people that need our care,”* Mgwagwa said.

Apart from proper transportation problems due to the nature of roads in the area, there is also a need to strengthen Information, Education and Communication (IEC) campaigns on asthma. Nursing teams need to be trained in asthma management and Differential Diagnosis of Acute Obstructive Respiratory Disorders as well. As we know, medicine is very dynamic and ever changing, therefore training in relative discoveries in asthma management is crucial.

It is very important to note that the programme makes use of locally available resources. Clinics are held under trees, in schools and churches or even in the open.

There are about 4,000 asthma clients under SRFIM's care (in Bwanje Valley and Balaka). Bwanje Valley has one of the highest population in Malawi reaching the number of about 200,000. SRFIM needs to build its capacity to adequately care for its clients, some of whom are over 150 km away.

“People with uncontrolled asthma cannot be productive and there is a need for more donor friends to come to SRFIM's assistance to enable it reaching out to even more clients,” Mgwagwa said in conclusion.

4. What do we learn from these stories?

These two stories are important because of their positive outcomes. Laika can move her limbs and is back in school, and a 60 year old man is able to work and be productive once again. On the other hand, it should be noted that the programme was designed by only a few people around a table either in London or somewhere in Malawi, far away from the problem areas. Traces of MDGs can be found in the two stories, however, achieving them still remains far off. In this way it can be said that an approach that is not inclusive cannot achieve the desired MDG goals.

4.1 The Way Forward

The Sue Ryder Foundation has taken another approach. This approach came into being after rigorous consultation with volunteers, guardians and parents of children with disabilities and people with disabilities. A participatory rural appraisal (PRA) was conducted and a general consensus was agreed on by all stakeholders, which include staff members, community volunteers, village headmen and individuals with disabilities.

4.2 SRFIM, Disability and MDGs

SRFIM's work is commendable and greatly appreciated by the government but has not been inclusive in its design. However, SRFIM believes that making development inclusive, alone, will not be the answer to achieving the MDGs, but alternative development in line with inclusive development is the best answer. Still, SRFIM feels that MDGs cannot be achieved without including people with disability.

From the SRFIM stories, it can be concluded that:

- **MDG 1: Eradicate Hunger and Poverty**
People with disabilities make up as much as one fifth of the people living in poverty worldwide. If people with disabilities are ignored in poverty reduction projects and programmes, 20% of the world's poorest and most excluded people will be neglected.

Referring to the story of Wisitedi Bilisimo aged 60 who said *"My life was one big uphill struggle as I could not manage to go to the nearest hospital because, as you know, an asthmatic tires easily and the roads are impassable,"* adding that he almost gave up on life, as after struggling to get to the hospital, the medication for asthma wasn't available.

But thanks to SRFIM community volunteers that heard of his desperate situation, he made his way to one of the mobile clinics and received asthma medication. This story is just one example of the many success cases in the program area.

- **MDG 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE)**
The EFA Global Monitoring report states that one-third of out of school children have a disability. How will UPE be reached without a concerted effort to get children with disabilities to school?

Laika, now 15, is a role model in her village, as well as at SRFIM. Once with paralyzed limbs, she is now able to do the same work any 15 year old could do. *"She is able to do the laundry, clean dishes as well as fetch water from the borehole,"* said Laika's proud mother.

She revealed that her worst fear was that her daughter would have a hard time coping during her adolescence due to her epilepsy.

Beautiful Laika, now discharged from the community based rehabilitation, is in Standard 3 and is doing very well in all of her subjects at school. Being a Muslim, she also attends Madras (Islamic lessons) and enjoys playing around with friends in her village.

- **MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women**
Women and girls with disabilities are more likely to be victims of sexual abuse. Only one percent of women with disabilities are estimated to be literate. The fight for gender equality should emphasize achieving gender equality for the most discriminated against women.

It is of note that mothers (women) have a triple role in the community and are sometimes referred to as the "reserve army of labor" (Moser C.1993). The triple role of women is comprised of:

Productive work - work done by both women and men for payment in cash or kind. This includes both market production with an exchange value, and subsistence/home production with an actual use-value. For women in agricultural production this includes work as independent farmers, peasants' wives and wageworkers.

Reproductive work - child bearing/rearing responsibilities and domestic tasks taken on by women are necessary to guarantee the preservation and reproduction of the labor force. It includes not only biological reproduction but also the care and upkeep of the current workforce (husband and working children) and future workforce (infants and school-aged children).

Community management and politics - carried out primarily by women at the community level, as in an extension of their reproductive role. This is to ensure the provision and maintenance of scarce resources such as water, health care and education. It is voluntary unpaid work, undertaken in a woman's "free time." The community politics role, in contrast, is comprised of activities assumed by men at the community level and is organized at a formal political level. It is usually paid work, either directly or indirectly, through wages or an increase in status and power.

■ **MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality**

The mortality rate of children with disabilities can be as high as 80%, even in countries where less-than-five mortality is below 20%. All efforts to reduce child mortality should pay particular attention to the most disadvantaged children.

SRFIM has done commendable work for the past 19 years. However, the foundation has not been very active in the prevention of diseases, such as sponsoring programs that reduce malaria incidences that cause cerebral palsy among children under five. Cerebral Palsy is a common disability treated by the SRFIM.

■ **MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health**

UNFP estimates that as many as 20 million women per year develop a disability or a long term complication as a result of pregnancy and childbirth. Abnormal prenatal or peri natal events are also a major cause of disability in children. A large number of peri natal disabilities in children could be prevented through a proper training of midwives and birth attendants. Improved maternal health care will reduce disability both for women and children.

SRFIM operates in very remote areas where many people have no access to essential services, such as maternal health care. Lack of these services results in many home deliveries and the use of midwives that make use of traditional herbal medicines. Many of these herbal medicines

are toxic and can cause asphyxia to the child before birth, resulting in epilepsy or various disabilities.

■ **MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria, TB and Other Diseases**

In the global fight against HIV/AIDS, TB and other diseases, people with disabilities are largely excluded, both from prevention and treatment. Individuals with disabilities make up 10% of any population (WHO) and they are more exposed to risk factors for HIV and AIDS. They therefore need to be included in reproductive health and disease prevention programmes.

SRFIM has embarked on a malaria prevention program with support of USAID and a three-year prevention program with funding from Target Tuberculosis. SRFIM has also applied for funding from the National AIDS Commission (NAC) for HIV/AIDS program for disabled female children. Although the Sue Ryder program has assisted many girls, such as Laika, many others still need to be protected from abuses such as rape and unwanted pregnancies. In this way there is a need to integrate HIV and AIDS programs into the foundation's work.

■ **MDG 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability**

Access to natural resources and the impact of climate change affects the disabled, as they are part of the greater society. However, given their often-marginalized position within that society, the impact on people with disabilities can be greater.

■ **MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development**

If the global partnership for development is aimed at poverty reduction, then it is essential that persons with disabilities are involved.

5. Discussion

Donors often discuss the issue of poverty. Fighting poverty is a goal that resonates best with donors and in their policies. The World Bank created its 'poverty reduction policy' in 1998 and in 2000 began its development report with the statement: *"Poverty amid plenty is the world's greatest challenge. We at the Bank have made it our mission to fight poverty with passion and professionalism, putting it at the centre of all the work we do. And we have recognized that successful development requires*

a comprehensive, multi-faceted, and properly integrated mandate” (World Bank, 2000/01, p.v).

The cornerstone of the European Union’s new co-operation agreement with the African Caribbean and Pacific is poverty alleviation.

British Department for International Development 1997 White Paper recognizes that development is ‘first, and most importantly, about the single greatest challenge which the world faces - eliminating poverty’ (T. Barnett and A. Whiteside, 2002).

Despite these declarations, not much has been done.

It is important to remember that development practitioners are conditioned human beings. The temptation to transfer views of how things work and what will make things better is very powerful. After all, many in the field have studied hard and have a lot of field experience and knowledge that can be passed on to others. Development Aid organizations and professionals often work at a distance, geographically and psychologically. Their offices are abroad or are in cities where they have access to mails, fax and phones. The difference in language, food, customs, and way of solving problems all lead to donors and development practitioners only knowing the poor from a distance. When the reality of the poor’s situation conflicts with how these professionals are trained or what they believe, the reaction can too often be a denial of the actual experiences of the poor.

Donors simply reframe or recompose the discordant of experience. This all-too-human reaction allows donors to remain untroubled and unchanged, leaving the poor to adapt to the donor’s ideal of what will benefit them (Myers, 1999). This type of approach and mentality does not improve the situation of the poor, but instead perpetuates social exclusion in low-income countries. Social exclusion is a powerful mechanism of marginalization and disempowerment. Denial of political, social and cultural rights underpins the process of social exclusion, which has the potential to exacerbate and trap excluded individuals and groups in a web of poverty, discrimination, poor health and limited educational opportunities. Therefore, a better understanding of various dimensions of social exclusion is needed (Fustukian, 2008).

6. Conclusions - Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

6.1 Participation, Ownership, and the Role of Outsiders

Effective change cannot be imposed from the outside. In fact, the attempt to impose change from the outside is likely to provoke resistance and give rise to barriers to change. At the heart of development is a change in the way individuals in a country think. This cannot be forced. People can be pushed to take certain actions. They can be even coerced to utter certain words, but they cannot be forced to change their hearts or minds, or their basic attitudes and values.

Thus, the key ingredients in a successful development strategy are ownership and participation. It has been seen again and again that ownership is essential for successful transformation. Policies that are imposed from outside may be grudgingly accepted, but will rarely be implemented as intended. To achieve the desired ownership and transformation, the process that leads to the strategy must be participatory. Development cannot just be a matter of negotiations between a donor and the recipient government. Development must reach deeper. It must involve and support groups in civil society. These groups are part of a social fabric that need to be strengthened, inter alia by giving voice to the often excluded members of society, facilitating their participation and increasing their ownership of the development process.

By involving these groups, the process of strategy formulation may be able to elicit the commitment and democratic involvement that is necessary for development to be socially acceptable and sustainable. Ownership and participation are also necessary if the development strategy is to be adapted to the particular circumstances of the country. Recent research has clearly shown that projects with higher levels of participation are more successful, probably in part because those projects make fewer erroneous assumptions about the needs and capabilities of beneficiaries (World Bank, 1995, 1998b; Isham, Narayan, and Pritchett 1995).

6.2 Community Development: The Role of Civil Society

While certain activities are most effectively undertaken at the national or international level, much of life centers are around local communities and particular interest groups. Such institutions are often the most effective vehicle for both initiating and implementing the transformation of society.

National governments are simply too cumbersome and remote, and the opportunities for meaningful participation are too limited. Well designed development projects (such as those that have been financed through social funds) can be an important catalyst for community development.

Participation at the local level (be it a region, district, city or village) allows the project choice to reflect the needs and priorities within the community. It also allows the project design to reflect local information, ensuring that local conditions, preferences and circumstances of local producers and consumers are taken into account. Equally important is the fact that local participation produces commitment, which is necessary for project sustainability in the long term. In this way, participation in the project itself becomes part of the transformation process. There is growing evidence, among both sociologists and economists, of the positive relationship between participation and development effectiveness.

Imposing change from outside does not mean change imposed by donors only. Even some of us holding papers as development practitioners in our countries need to involve the communities we work with. There is much temptation to limit involvement to local leaders, government personnel and other agencies termed as stakeholders, thus excluding the voices of marginalized people, such as the disabled. If participation is limited to the groups mentioned, then participation is limited to the non-poor and will inherently be flawed because the elite will develop a desire to sustain their privilege. In this way, they are tempted to play god in the lives of the poor (Uphoff, 1979).

Chambers (1997) is quoted as saying:

“All powerful uppers think they know what is right and real for those below. At least each upper so believes. But all are wrong; all power deceives.”

Finally, as said by Sue Ryder book entitled Child of my Love (1997):

“No state has the right to contradict moral values which are rooted in the nature of man himself. These values are the precious heritage of civilization. If society begins to deny the worth of any individual or to subordinate the human person to pragmatic or utilitarian considerations, it begins to destroy the defenses that safeguard its own fundamental values. Today I make an urgent plea to this nation. Do not neglect your sick and elderly. Do not turn away from the handicapped and the dying. Do not push them to the margins of society. For if you do, you will fail to understand that

they represent an important truth. The sick, the elderly, the handicapped and the dying teach us that weakness is a creative part of human living, and that suffering can be embraced with no loss of dignity. Without the presence of these people in your midst you might be tempted think of health, strength and power as the only important values to be pursued in life.”

Today, the Sue Ryder Foundation in Malawi has incorporated the work of Sue Ryder in its vision and mission. The citizens of Malawi are very grateful for the work of this charity. SRFIM acknowledges the importance of inclusive development because SRFIM believes that in a poverty-focused approach, interventions will be more likely to succeed if they are internalized, owned and implemented by the poor (World Bank, 2000).

Kibble Ngalauka has been the programme manager for the Sue Ryder Foundation in Malawi since 2007. He has an MSc in Social Development and Health Care, a BSc in Regional Development and is currently completing his PhD. Kibble also takes part in the training of healthcare professionals as well as the design of education programmes for healthcare workers in Malawi. He has extensive experience of the planning, implementation and evaluation of development programmes in Malawi both for the Red Cross and World Vision Malawi. He's also heavily involved in educating local communities about regional development programmes.

B) Inclusive Approaches to Development: Including Older People in the Decent Work Agenda



Kamala Truelove, Alice Livingstone | HelpAge International, Život 90

Background

EU development policies exclude a substantial and growing proportion of older people living in developing countries. Effective and equitable development policies that deliver on international commitments to halve severe poverty by 2015 must respond to the intergenerational nature of poverty and to rapid population ageing. HelpAge International and Zivot 90 advocate for a world in which all older people fulfill their potential to lead dignified, active, healthy and secure lives. Our advocacy work seeks to include older people in development interventions and enable them to be actors in the development process by helping them achieve good healthcare, income security and inclusion in their communities. HelpAge International, Zivot 90 and partner organisations from the South are currently working together to raise awareness about the needs and contributions of older workers in developing countries.

1. Why older people need to be included in development

HelpAge International and Zivot 90 are advocating for older people to be included in the International Labour Organization's (ILO) Decent Work Agenda (DWA), European development policy programmes and poverty-reduction interventions. The majority of poor people in the developing world work in the informal sector which often makes up between 80-90% of the economy. Working in the informal sector means that older people are excluded from formal social protection schemes, do not have secure contracts

or worker's benefits, and are therefore often chronically poor and vulnerable in old age. These people have no choice but to work to survive.

The EU has identified the DWA as a key means of promoting the social dimension of globalization and poverty reduction in EU development policy. However, most DWA strategies and programmes do not address the specific challenges of disadvantaged and marginalized groups, such as older people. Excluding older people from these policies and programmes means that millions of poor older people working in the informal sector remain without access to social support and healthcare, and thus remain trapped in strenuous, unstable and unsafe jobs.

Older people play a vital role in developing countries, supporting families who depend on their contributions. Yet worldwide, more than half of older people have no guaranteed minimum income. Unless action is taken now to improve the situation, 1.2 billion older people will be living without secure incomes by 2050. The social protection principle in the DWA is often overlooked, despite international recognition that social pensions based on universal coverage can have a major impact on reducing poverty. A guaranteed minimum income in old age improves an elderly person's working conditions, health and social standing. With a pension, older people can afford to buy food for themselves and their dependants. They can access basic services such as healthcare, water and credit. Furthermore, a social pension for older people is an effective way of reducing not just old age poverty but household poverty, and can help to break the poverty cycle for younger generations.

HelpAge International and Zivot 90 calls on the EU to support decent work for all by extending and implementing universal old age pensions in developing countries; including older people in development programme design and implementation; removing barriers so that older people can access free, good-quality healthcare; and upholding the legal rights of elderly men and women to work without discrimination and exploitation.

Experience shows that older people are often perceived as irrelevant to the development process and as a burden on society. However older people have experience and knowledge that is vital for communities and play a key role in teaching and caring for younger generations.

The EU and member states should deliver on their international commitments to older people by implementing effective and inclusive development policies and practices.

2. Why older people need to be included in development processes and planning

2.1 Grassroots knowledge and participation in advocacy

HelpAge International is working with Southern partners and partners in the Czech Republic (Zivot 90) and Germany (HelpAge Deutschland) to raise awareness about the needs and contributions of older workers in developing countries. In order to address the lack of data on poverty and old age, HelpAge International and partner organisations from the South embarked on studies in Bangladesh, Peru and Uganda to find out the working conditions for older people. Our methods involved focus group discussions with older people, interviews with government officials and development policy makers, and interviews with older workers in a range of settings. The studies look at the nature of the informal sector, and the key issues facing older workers, including existing social pension provision. We also present estimates of how much it would cost the government to provide a universal old age pension, showing that it is affordable.

In Uganda, guided group discussions took place in August 2008, and the groups were comprised of members of local older people's associations who work under the umbrella of Uganda Reach the Aged Association (URAA), HelpAge International's partner organisation. The criteria were that participants were working in the informal sector and were over the age of 55 (statutory retirement age in Uganda). The focus

groups included both men and women and contained between 5 and 6 participants. The research was done in both urban and rural areas and its findings reflect the voices and experience of older workers, as older people's organizations were included in the planning of the project and the evidence gathering process. The findings are published in the policy paper 'Working for life: making decent work and pension a reality for older people'

In November 2008, a professional photographer and journalist went to Uganda with the aim to compile several case studies. Nine case studies were drafted based on stories collected from the discussion groups's members. These nine older people were selected based on the fact that their stories illustrated some of the the key issues arising from the evidence gathering process. The photographs and case studies made it possible for the voices of older people to be heard not only by the policy makers and stakeholders in the sector but also a wider audience.

Representatives of older workers from all three Southern countries are participating in tours in Europe acting as a spokesperson. These tours enable a direct exchange between European member states and Southern countries and allow older people's voices to be heard by decision makers. Previous tours in Europe enabled the North and South to share experiences about service provision for the elderly in other countries, organizing older people's associations and forming pressure groups. Mrs. Margaret Kabango will be speaking about older workers in Uganda at various events across Europe in June 2009. Mrs. Kabango is an elderly woman from Uganda, a board member of URAA and former civil servant in the Ministry of Health Disability, Rehabilitation and Elderly Section.

Each year around the 1st October (UN International Day of Older Persons) CSOs across the HelpAge International network are involved in advocacy and lobbying of their governments at the local level. Advocacy themes vary from year to year and are identified by older people and their organizations depending on their needs. HelpAge International supports the CSOs in the coordination of events and funding, however all ideas and actions are chosen and carried out by the CSOs themselves.

2.1.1 Case study of Nzeredi Lukerebuga

Nzeredi Lukerebuga, 66, with great granddaughter Marian. Nzeredi's life was turned around by a loan from Uganda



Reach the Aged Association (URAA). He invested his loan in a pig, his banana fields and a new home. He repaid the loan after 8 months.

I live with my wife Beatrice Biira who is 53. Beatrice and I had nine children, but three have died. Now we look after eight grandchildren, including one great-grandchild.

I left my home in Kigali, Rwanda, in 1950 and came to Kasese, because I heard there were fortunes to be made at the mines. After I came to Kasese I worked in the mines for 8 years and then at the Kilembe power station for 19 years. I was dismissed after I was accused of something I didn't do. Even though I put in all of those years of work, because I was fired I have no pension.

For years after that we tried to survive by farming a piece of land that I was given by the government. Life was hard then. A few years ago I was living in a house with holes in the walls and a collapsing roof and the cold and damp was killing me. Then, thanks to God's mercy, we were visited by URAA who lent me a little money, which I used to buy a pig. I've already paid the loan back.

Before I got the loan to start this piggery business I kept asking myself, "what can I do?" I felt powerless. Now I have been able to afford to build a better house with mud bricks and there is also more money for good food for the children. The new house has saved my life!

I have a very bad back and this makes work hard, but every morning I start digging and weeding my plot of land at 6 or 7 am. Then I give myself a rest by doing lighter work at around 10 am, like feeding the pigs, so that my back pain can ease up a little. In the afternoon I go back to the plot and work until about 6 pm. On the land I grow coffee plants and bananas and my wife travels to the market everyday to sell what we grow.

Bad health gets in the way of my work. I go to the hospital trying to get help for my back pain, but nothing seems to work. A while ago my legs became very swollen. I could hardly walk and it made work on the farm almost impossible. My eyesight is also getting so bad that I have to use a stick to find my way around. The stick also helps me manage

the steep climb up the mountain to my plot of land every morning. My wife has bad health problems as well and has bad pains in her chest, arms and legs but we have no option but to work every day.

Even though our living conditions are better, the money we get from the pigs and the farm is barely enough to cover food, medicines and school fees. It's all we have to live on. The increase in food prices means that everything is now so expensive. The cost of beans has doubled. Now I have to work harder just to keep up. Hospital bills also use up a lot of our monthly income and lately we have only been able to eat once a day.

If I had a pension, I would use some of the money to finish my new house and spend the rest on improving my business. It wouldn't matter how small the pension is, a regular income would change our lives.

2.1.2 Case study of Alfose Kibaba



Alfose Kibaba, 72, cleans toilets for the Miner's Village in the Kasese District. He has a disability, which prevents him from getting any other type of work.

I live with my wife and two children in a house owned by the mining company. I started cleaning yards and lawns of rich people before my present job with the Council,

where I clean the municipal toilets.

The pay from the council is irregular and when it does come, it's never the full amount. When I ask to be paid, they ignore me or tell me that there is no money, but I keep working.

With the money I get when the Council pays me, I buy food and medicine and pay school fees. When there is no money, I have to buy food on credit.

I work as a toilet cleaner because there isn't much else I can do. Sometimes people laugh at me, saying the dirty work suits an old man. But I ignore the insults.

Cleaning the toilets and yards is heavy work as I am disabled in one hand. I have no protective clothing and I have to use my one good hand and an improvised broom. I also have pains from a hernia operation. When I get very sick,

I stay at home. As I get older my strength is fading, but I keep working.

2.2 Inclusion of older people in programmes and planning

Loans to start small businesses can be an effective way for the poor to invest in their livelihoods, particularly for those working in the informal sector, an environment where accumulating savings or assets is almost impossible. However, the reality is that many Microfinance Institutions (MFIs) do not provide loans for older people for fear that they will not be able to make the repayments, despite the fact that our research shows the contrary. HelpAge International's partner organization, URAA, provides loans to elderly Ugandans and is the only organization in the country doing so.

MFIs should consult with older people and organisations representing older people when planning microfinance schemes. Involving older people in the planning process will empower them and allow them to plan for their future. Older people with a guaranteed minimum income from a universal pension are also better able to access microcredit.

3. Conclusions

Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

Older people have experience and grassroots knowledge that is vital to communities and play a key role in teaching and caring for the next generation. However, in many instances they are perceived as irrelevant to the development process and a burden to society. Effective and equitable development policies that deliver on international commitments to halve severe poverty by 2015 must respond to the intergenerational nature of poverty and to rapid population ageing. If older people are not included in poverty reduction strategies, then the world is not only failing in its obligations to older people but taking the risk that poverty will continue to be transmitted from one generation to the next, locking the poorest people in a vicious cycle of chronic poverty and insecurity.

The Role of CSOs

HelpAge International has been working with partners in the North and South for over 25 years, listening to and advocating for excluded and marginalized older people.

European CSOs have an important role in advocating at the Member State and EU level to ensure that older people are

included in development cooperation. CSOs can apply pressure to their national governments, policy makers, EU representatives and other CSOs. They can raise awareness about the issues affecting older people in developing countries within the general public. CSOs can help older people gain decent work by advocating for universal old age pensions, the removal of fees in healthcare and the implementation and monitoring of anti-discrimination legislation. Northern CSOs can also lobby donors to provide technical assistance to countries that wish to implement (or extend) a social pension.

Southern CSOs can lobby both their government and international donors. Spokespeople from the South are an effective means of including older people involved in grassroots actions in northern advocacy work.

The Role of Donors

International donors should ensure that older people's needs and contributions are recognized and integrated in international development policies, such as the MDGs and the DWA. Adequate resources should be made available to address old age poverty. Investment in sustainable, long-term development strategies, such as the implementation of universal pensions, should be made a priority. Universal pension schemes in developing countries across the world, particularly in Southern Africa, have proved to be successful in reducing poverty and are politically popular. Universal schemes are also affordable: in most countries an effective universal pension could be delivered at a cost of around 1% of GDP. They are also simple to design and implement, which is a necessity for countries where capacity is low. They provide older people with more choice about whether to work since, in the absence of pensions, older people are obliged to continue working, often in less attractive jobs and with lower wages. If the international community is serious about tackling old age poverty, a social pension is the best answer we have.

For more information see:

<http://www.helpage.org/Researchandpolicy/Decentwork>

Alice Livingstone also works in the Policy and Communications Department of HelpAge International and undertook evidence gathering on older workers in Uganda as part of a global project on decent work focusing on older people in the informal economy.

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Indonesia, Photo: Petr Šilhánek

Agriculture and Rural Development



Principles of Aid Effectiveness in Everyday Practice: Georgia and Indonesia



Jan Černík, Martin Váně | CCR – Caritas Czech Republic

Introduction

Currently, the most important international declaration concerning the effectiveness of development aid is the Paris Declaration (2005). The declaration presents several principles of aid effectiveness, a framework for mutual responsibility, and names several indicators used when evaluating improvement. Below, we will try to examine two projects through the prism of crucial elements of Aid Effectiveness (AE) which were put together by the Paris Declaration. The study tries to contextualize generally formulated AE policies in specific cases of Caritas Czech Republic (CCR) development interventions.

The intention of the study is to demonstrate the functioning of certain factors of effectiveness in the area of Agriculture and Rural Development (ARD) by using specific examples. The methodological framework of the study is provided by the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development (GDPRD) report, “CSOs and Aid Effectiveness in Agriculture and Rural Development.” The study mentioned above was created as informational background for the OECD DAC Advisory Group on Civil Society in cooperation with several hundred local, national and international CSOs and is a result of consultations with ministry representatives of 50 developing countries and 30 donor organizations. The broad range of opinions and experience was intended to help reveal the main challenges to aid effectiveness. The consultations were directed at the following relations:

- between Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) and the citizens whom they represent;
- between CSOs and the governments in their countries;
- between CSOs and donors;
- between CSOs at the national level;

- between CSOs from developing and developed countries.

Important aspects resulting from the relations examined include:

- the proximity and firmness of relations between rural CSOs and rural inhabitants in the area;
- the need for greater and closer cooperation in the AE area with other stakeholders;
- insufficient understanding and respect towards the role of CSOs and other stakeholders;
- the examination of new CSOs’ participation modalities.

The consulting participants provided many recommendations. They emphasized methods in which development stakeholders in the area of agriculture and rural development can be more tightly drawn into the AE implementation agenda:

- It is necessary to intensify consultations and cooperation with national and rural CSOs which have valuable experience and can help the creation of effective development policies relevant to local conditions.
- Northern CSOs should strive much harder to ensure mutual respect, true partnership and equality and prepare and realize development intervention so that it ensures the full participation of the local community and CSOs in all stages of the development process.
- The governments will provide enabling environment, including decentralization, allowing the CSOs to play the role of development stakeholders through legal and regulatory frameworks, tax modification and the improvement of access to information, protection and enforcement of civic and political rights, and through new policies, investments and programs for the

development of agriculture and rural areas which makes use of the knowledge and abilities of local CSOs, women and men.

- Donors will assist the improvement of aid effectiveness in agriculture by including CSOs into the formulation and monitoring of development policies and strategies. They will also ensure flexible financing and building of CSO capacities that will reveal the needs of the community. They will support CSOs' long-term financing and knowledge of donor programs.

Insufficiencies of aid effectiveness mechanisms:

- insufficient number of opportunities for the inclusion of local CSOs into the AE processes from which they were up till now always excluded;
- centralized planning and implementation.

Local CSOs consider the strengthening of their own ability to contribute to the formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of development initiatives to be important. They want to attain this through cooperation with other stakeholders, strengthening local expertise and the improvement of access to manufacturing inputs.

The document states that methods of inclusion of CSOs into ARD development initiatives include:

- direct humanitarian aid to the most needy groups hit by natural or other humanitarian disasters;
- support for peace and the creation of security, aid to the poor and the weak in failed states;
- striving for democratic government and support of responsibility, raising the awareness and activity in political dialogue.

The environment has a direct impact on the life of the rural population, because it often has to face natural disasters such as floods or droughts. Political, economic, and health threats also do not exclude the countryside and the poor. The economic prerequisites of development – training, information and transport infrastructure, irrigation – are often falling apart because of an absence of maintenance or because of long-lasting armed conflicts. In rural areas the main employer is the agricultural sector and the majority of the population is dependent on primary production. The effectiveness of aid is the extent to which the supplied resources can in the end bring development to the poor.

The identification of CSOs as northern and southern is the basic principle of the discussion concerning the topic of real partnership.¹ This delineation is less clear in cases of cooperation in the countries of the former Soviet Union for CCR everyday project operation. We will examine this type of cooperation using the examples of the Georgia program that functions without the permanent presence of a CCR branch. The second country in which we want to demonstrate the functioning of effectiveness factors is Indonesia where CCR has operated since the devastating earthquake and the tsunami. In Indonesia, a CCR permanent branch manages the program.

1. Methodology

In the case study, methodological guidance is provided by principles of effectiveness as they were set in the Paris Declaration and the conceptual documents of GDPRD. The introductions to every principle of effectiveness of aid are outcomes from the GDPRD consultations, followed by project practice on the examples of Georgia and Indonesia. This approach could not avoid a certain reduction of examined principles, because the primary GDPRD document is composed as a policy paper and is based on consultations with national ARD platforms. The usual practice of CCR projects concentrates on working with communities and through that on direct aid to the rural population. These methodologically unavoidable reductions take the following forms:

- contextualization of general terms – we try to put everything that is generally defined in the primary GDPRD document in context of one of the programs;
- lower level of cooperation with CSOs – GDPRD documents are at the policy creation level where the partners are CSO national platforms and governments, CCR projects function in cooperation with the representatives of regional or provincial government and with entities of the civic sector at a similar level.

2. Context of ARD in Georgia

The main problems of rural communities striving for economic behaviour are the lack of capital, unavailability of other resources (fertilizer, mechanization), land fragmentation

¹ *The results correspond with the division of the world between developed and developing, north and south. The call for democratic ownership reflects the approach of the developed world (donors and northern CSOs) to agricultural aid effectiveness, while trying to strengthen the role of local and national CSOs and reflect the positions of organizations from the developing world.*

(it is most common that each farmer owns one acre), limited land entrepreneurship, an unavailable agricultural market and finally very low incomes in the non-agricultural part of the production (the processing industry). A significant difference in GDP growth between the cities and the countryside also brings attention to social inequality in Georgia. The ongoing structural inequality between the countryside and the cities speeds up the urbanization process that creates the main migration potential in most post-Soviet countries. In the Georgian context, the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger means mainly the following:

- (1) reducing the part of the population with an unbalanced diet by half within the period of 2000 - 2015;
- (2) the social and economic integration of internally displaced individuals;
- (3) reducing the part of the population living in poverty by half within the period of 2000 - 2015 and the eradication of extreme poverty. According to government statistics in 2003, 55% of the population was living in poverty and 17% in extreme poverty. The Georgian government declared that it would try to lower the part of the population living in extreme poverty to fewer than 15%.

However, because of the dependency of the country on agriculture and the expected land yields, many people believe that it is possible to develop agricultural entrepreneurship and make broader use of it. Agriculture is the primary source of livelihood for most Georgians and even though its part of GDP is falling (from 19.3% of nominal GDP in 2003 to 9.7% in 2007) it plays an important role as the main employer, approximately 50% of Georgians work in the agricultural sector (UNDP, 2008). However, the agricultural sector receives only a marginal amount of investment – in 2007 it was only one percent out of the total amount of investments into Georgia. Hope for growth depends on connecting strategies leading to the substitution of imports and the support for exports. Half of the food and drink market consists of imported goods. Thus, agricultural entrepreneurship, and mainly secondary food processing, should naturally become the sector that will, thanks to the substitution of imports, attain growth. Thanks to its geographical location and good land yields, Georgia could, if properly organized, become an important exporter of agricultural products.

2.1 CCR in Georgia

The projects in Georgia are specific in their close cooperation with domestic stakeholders. The team is often composed

of several local organizations whose employees take part in most of the relevant levels of the project cycle. Cultural (Christianity, knowing the language) and social factors (a partly shared history) allow for a modus of operation which the southern CSOs are calling for. CCR operates projects in Georgia without the permanent presence of Czech personnel. The operation is ensured by partner organizations led by a CCR manager who operates alternately in the Prague headquarters of CCR and in Georgia where he spends approximately three months per year. Transparency, equal partnership, emphasis on democratic ownership and mutual responsibility contribute to the effectiveness of the projects, while building and strengthening relations of mutual respect and trust is equally important.

Currently (April 2009) CCR is running four development projects in Georgia, two of which are from the agriculture and rural development sector:

Increasing effectiveness of the management of small farms in Georgia: The project supports cooperating groups of farmers in two provinces. Cooperatives or unions consisting of individual entrepreneurs (Amchanagoba) get marketing support, expert training, consultations and equipment for processing products. The project is to last until 2010 and the donor is the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Czech Republic.

Promoting the participation of citizens and building capacity of local authorities: Through community planning the project helps to set development priorities and plans for several villages. Village councils draft projects for the improvement of social infrastructure in the area. If this project is approved by more than 50% of the adult population, the project is financed. The project began in 2005, currently the donor is CCR, and in the future (beginning in 2010) smaller village projects should be financed from local budgets, public funding and Caritas network organizations.

Other projects are out of the ARD sector and are connected to previous humanitarian aid:

- Art & craft workshops for children of refugees – public funding and private resources.
- Home care in the Gori region – Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Czech Republic.

Program management is ensured by CCR headquarters in Prague, and in the field, there are three local project

coordinators. The coordinators have greater responsibility for the project – they act as manager representatives. There is one coordinator from each organization in each province. At the intermediate level, there is a financial manager in two partner organizations in Tbilisi responsible for financial reports and administrative support.

3. Context of ARD in Indonesia

60% of Indonesians live in rural areas and agriculture is their main income-generating activity. Approximately 49% of the population (110 million people) is still living on 2 USD, or less, per day (AusAID, 2008). While Indonesian agriculture performed well historically and contributed to significant economic growth with an increase of employment and poverty reduction, the productivity gains of most crops have slowed down drastically in the recent years with the majority of farmers operating on less than one-half acre. Revitalizing the agricultural sector is crucial for the growth of the local economy. It is a key component of the Government's rural development strategy.

With agriculture now averaging only half of rural households' incomes, a strategy for rural development will also need to focus on the non-farm rural economy which will demand close collaboration across sectors. Completion of the decentralization process, which loosens up the relations between central and regional government, also presents a challenge. In many areas it is necessary to maintain the regulatory systems in a nationally coherent framework.

ARD's agenda requires striving for the growth of the productivity of the rural economy and its long-term sustainability. It will be necessary to ensure robust productivity growth through implementing technologies supporting small-scale or medium-scale production in order to reduce rural poverty. Even though the growth of living standards of rural households is in the long-term connected with reducing their dependence on the rural sector, in the short or medium term, it is necessary to overcome certain critical limitations that hinder the provision of their basic needs through agriculture. The approach of the Indonesian government has been based on building public sector. However, this approach is currently facing great challenges due to decentralization.

The post-tsunami and post-conflict reconstruction of the Aceh province contributed to great extent to the development of the local economy. On the other hand, economic indicators for the first half of 2008 show a significant decline, mainly in the sectors closely linked to the reconstruction effort. While agriculture continues to grow, the pace is too slow to drive growth in the province. This economic decline is caused by gradual reduction of reconstruction and the departure of most of the donor organizations from the region during 2009. For successful development of the peace process, which began in 2005 and ended an almost thirty-year-long armed conflict between the central government and the Aceh rebels, the presence of the donor institutions is needed more than ever.

In Aceh, rural livelihoods are generally based on three basic resources: A/ fisheries; B/ rice cultivation (and dry land crops grown in rotation) and C/ tree crops (agro-forestry). The relative importance of these three resources is dependent on the landscape: fishing is dominant among the population living near the coastline, rice cultivation is concentrated in river valleys, and tree crops can be found in both coastal and inland areas (rubber trees, cocoa, coconut, pinang palms, fruit trees) and in peat domes (sago palms, rubber trees, palm oil trees).

The result of the long-lasting conflict was the abandonment of agricultural land that then remained fallow for a long time. As a consequence of this disturbed agricultural activity traditional knowledge and techniques were becoming scarce in the farming community, which then in the long-term led to a decrease in productivity. At the same time, farmers were not exposed to recent technologies and approaches that would bring them better yields.

The growth in the agricultural sector in the Aceh province is approximately the same as at the national level (4,6%), and has been driven mainly by higher utilization of capacities in relation to the post-tsunami and post-conflict environment. Future growth will depend on productivity increase and, as such, will be harder to achieve. Improved provision of public services, such as better infrastructure in rural areas and pest control, as well as irrigation facilities, are essential should the agricultural sector and agribusiness become the engines of growth. (World Bank, 2008).

3.1 CCR in Indonesia

By the end of 2008, the volume of financial resources used by CCR in Indonesia was approximately 4 million EURO.

Currently, most funds are used for ensuring rural livelihood implementation (70%). Other areas are (or were) permanent shelter reconstruction (19%), social and psychosocial activities (8%) and humanitarian aid (3%).

In the Indonesian province of Aceh, CCR program is implemented through a local branch led by an employee of the Prague headquarters who reports directly to the program manager in Prague. The branch has approximately 40 employees, a main office in the capital city of Banda Aceh and three field offices / warehouses that ensure proper implementation of two main RLD projects. The basic project management has the following structure: *Head of Mission - Project Manager - Project Officer - Field Officer*.

In order to be effective, it is important to concentrate the work of the branch on a specific sector and gradually improve the used methodology. In the area of agriculture and rural development in Indonesia, CCR concentrates mainly on working with its partners, i.e. supporting their capacity, providing relevant education for employees, and sharing experience and best practices in RLD with stakeholders on various levels². In the Aceh Jaya district CCR realizes two large RLD projects: one of them is located in the post-tsunami areas (which were also affected by the conflict), and the other one in post-conflict areas only³.

Another necessary prerequisite for long-term development and branch operation is the formation of a relevant team of professionals in the appropriate positions who combine the following skills: knowledge of the local (Aceh), national, or regional (Southeast Asia) context; cultural, religious and social context, and also a long-term knowledge of the NGO environment; language skills (Indonesian, Acehnese); project management (needs assessment, PCM, monitoring, evaluation, reporting); community work methodology; agricultural and aquaculture technical knowledge; knowledge of selected cross-cutting issues. Also, it was necessary to create a support team that covers the areas of financial management, office administration, logistics and procurement.

The long-term development of the branch and its sustainability is further ensured through setting relevant mechanisms for communication within the branch and with other stakeholders

(monthly staff meetings, monthly meetings of RLD project workers and logistics and procurement department, bi-weekly meetings of branch managers), creating a branch general manual book (the creation of a financial, logistic and procurement manual is planned for the first half of 2009), systematic capacity building of employees (creating annual capacity building plans for individual employees which are a part of the employee evaluation), creating a branch strategic plan (2009-2011), the process of registering the branch as a Indonesian NGO and diversification of financial resources (while at the beginning of its existence it was purely dependent on public funding from Czech private donors, in time it has been able to obtain funding from 11 donor agencies).

CCR Projects in Indonesia:

In the middle of February 2005, a CCR assessment team composed of three members arrived at the location of the tsunami catastrophe, the Aceh capital city Banda Aceh. Its task was to make a primary analysis of needs and set the future aid strategy on the west coast of Aceh. During the first emergency phase, the main task was to distribute humanitarian aid to isolated locations (food and non-food items, agricultural tools, school equipment, and clothes).

CCR then began the implementation of medium-term and long-term projects in three sectors: the reconstruction of the MAN 2 high school in Banda Aceh, extracurricular and social activities, counselling of children and youth in refugee camps – teaching traditional Aceh dances and music (together with Acehnese NGO TALOE), and the recovery of the rural livelihoods. The high school reconstruction was finished by the end of 2005. In 2006, CCR initiated construction of permanent houses for those affected by the tsunami and a small project of village infrastructure reconstruction (building 88 houses in three villages that were also a part of the rural livelihoods project). The construction of houses was finished in August 2007.

The project targeting Acehnese children and youth moved from the refugee camps to villages and schools, and similar project activities were launched in areas affected solely by the armed conflict. At the same time, an additional project, which lasted ten months, ensured intensive training of

² A term equivalent to RLD (RURAL LIVELIHOOD DEVELOPMENT) is used in CCR terminology.

³ The project aims at expanding its activities into post-conflict areas. This reflects the current trend in organizing the development aid in Aceh and the efforts to balance aid between post-tsunami and post-conflict areas and minimize possible negative social effects.

TALOE employees in psychological and social counselling. Both projects finished in December 2008. For 2009, CCR is preparing follow-up activities with TALOE which will be combined with the development of organizational capacities and further training of TALOE's workers.

The branch also took part in humanitarian response in other disaster-stricken parts of Indonesia: earthquake in Yoggakarta and western Sumatra, floods and landslides in northern Sumatra and east Aceh. This aid was always realized by CCR's Indonesian partners.

As a follow-up to RLD activities during the emergency phase, CCR initiated a three-year project in January 2006 called „Sustainable Livelihoods & Strengthening Community Organizations in Aceh Jaya“. Its goal is the recovery of post-tsunami communities by strengthening their structures and promoting solidarity in connection with the long-term development of the rural economy. The project's main components are agriculture, agroforestry, aquaculture, support of two cooperatives registered with the state authorities (KPPT, KNJA), and cross-cutting issues (for instance environmental sensitivity, gender, or disaster risk reduction). After closing the project at the end of 2008, a follow-up phase began (which is to last until July 2010) which builds on previous outcomes and includes the following activities: accompaniment and long-term capacity building of cooperatives, a community nursery, a permaculture learning centre, a small factory producing fish feed, and two hatcheries (freshwater aquaculture, brackish water aquaculture). After CCR leaves, all the above-mentioned outcomes, together with two field project offices/warehouses will be handed over to the cooperatives. This project also concentrates on boosting production and profitability by implementing simple postproduction and processing technologies and relevant marketing strategies.

The second RLD project, „Sustainable livelihoods in post-conflict areas“, is a logical extension of the above mentioned activities. It tries to reduce the growing gap between the amount of aid provided to post-tsunami areas and that provided to areas affected “only” by the conflict. Project covers 21 villages in the sub-district Sampoiniet in the Aceh Jaya district that were affected the most during the conflict. It focuses mainly on agriculture, agroforestry and on the support and development of existing farmer groups and

their final integration within the functioning cooperative. The project began in August 2007 and is scheduled to finish at the end of December 2009. The possibility to follow-up these activities remains open and will be initiated based on the need to extend the period of accompaniment and capacity building of the newly established cooperative.

4. Principles of Aid Effectiveness in Everyday Practice

Each of the two programs is organized differently which allows us to make two different assessments of effectiveness quality. In the Georgian example, partner organizations played an important role in the operation and formulation of the projects. Here, the project's organizational structure is vertical, based on division of responsibility: from the coop's member to strategic planning by partner organizations along with a foreign donor. The program is controlled and strategically planned rather than executed in the field. There is no CCR branch present in Georgia and thus the program organization relies on partner organizations that took part in formulating and planning individual projects. As a result, or better said, a logical consequence of the program's focus is the emphasis on improving the marketing system, the functioning of value chain systems, as well as improving networking activities and secondary product processing. The program does not involve the poorest parts of the rural population directly as it was not its goal. The founding members were already established farmers with an ambition to market their products. The principle on which a cooperative operates is market orientation and profit making as the results of cooperative action. The more the farmer produces through the cooperative, the higher his profit. The smallest subsistence farmers not only have an opportunity to get employed by the members of cooperative, but also to sell their own farm produce in small volumes, as well as benefit from other services (trainings, marketing consultation etc.). The effectiveness of this project corresponds with the political choice of „stepping up“⁴.

Indonesian program is managed by the CCR's branch, which has employees with good knowledge of the Aceh province, understanding of the national and regional specific context and relevant combination of skills needed to secure the project implementation. In order to achieve the set

⁴ The choice is addressing effectiveness enhancement of the sector, strengthening agriculture research and education. The presumption is high development potential of the sector in country which implement this policy.

goals, it was necessary to request the support of several professional partners⁵. Projects are implemented in an environment seriously damaged by the tsunami and the thirty years of armed conflict. In these RLD projects, the emphasis is put on strengthening existing structures at the community level (for instance, farmer groups oriented on specific agricultural crops) and their possible inclusion into cooperatives; long-term capacity building focusing on improving production processes (combining practical and theoretical training), introducing simple post-harvesting processing technologies and marketing strategies; long-term support of the systems and structures of newly established cooperatives; strengthening the capacity of communities to reduce the impact of natural or „manmade“ disasters (mainly floods and landslides which often occur as a result of massive illegal logging in the region). The main aim is to support methodologies which promote understanding of rural livelihood recovery not merely as lack of external assistance, but more as an opportunity to make good use of available means and resources and subsequently profit from their marketing.

In the current phase, CCR intervention focuses mainly on supporting established farmers and groups of farmers, their long-term development and sustainability within cooperatives; strengthening cooperative structure, networking and visibility; linking to suitable value chain systems; taking advantage of simple product processing methods and marketing within the region; developing material output and preparing their hand over to the two cooperatives; well targeted long-term capacity building and improvement of professional knowledge of community trainers (usually members of the cooperatives) to ensure future extension services among communities or other interested stakeholders. This effect is already taking place and it will be presented in the following chapters.

4.1 Ownership

The first AE principle deals with effective development policy and strategy leadership and the coordination of developing countries' developmental activities. Large donors and governments, possibly the most influential organizations, often collaborate while forming ARD policies. However, CSOs emphasize the need to respect and support local ownership in development intervention which takes place in rural environment. The fact that the Ownership principle is legitimate is most evident in ARD community-led processes

and networks. Project ownership is based on individuals or groups constituting rural CSOs whose comparative advantage is the tight relationships with a specific rural community. The familiarity with local conditions, needs and requirements is a fundamental input which strengthens the ownership of development initiatives in partner countries. The schema below shows aspects of ownership in projects in Indonesia and Georgia and illustrates this issue precisely from this point of view.

4.1.1 Georgia

Three partner organizations took part in the identification of projects tracked in Georgia:

- Caritas Georgia as the national partner
- Akhalkikhe Business Center (ABC) as the local partner in the Samtskhe/Javakheti province
- Guria Agro-business Center (GABC) as the local partner for the Guria province.

Identification and selection of beneficiaries took place at several levels. Firstly, locations were identified followed by the selection of the first group of beneficiaries (capacity building), and the selection of individual small grant recipients. The grant program is followed up by collectively targeted projects. In the first project the regional and local administration was informed.

The procedure of selecting individual beneficiaries:

1. The selection was done on the basis of the project history of our partner organisation Caritas Georgia (infrastructure projects such as irrigation and clinic construction). The short-listed villages showed all different level of development. Two (mainly Georgian) villages in the Adygeni region are standard municipalities of their province, two Armenian villages in the Akhalkikhe region are avoided by donors (including Caritas donors) and one village in the Aspindza region has only Caritas network donors.
2. Information on the grant program was provided to the villagers through dissemination of leaflets and at public gatherings. Local organizations, and partially Caritas Georgia, organized meetings and disseminated the information. The program participants had to fulfil the following conditions:

⁵ International and national NGOs; independent experts and consultants; local, provincial or national offices of the relevant ministries.

- Submission of a sustainable business plan;
 - In-kind participation in the business plan;
 - A commitment to co-finance community projects focused on the village social area;
 - Successful completion of a training course was a condition for receiving the grant.
3. Business planning, management training, and the selection procedure of individual beneficiaries depending on their qualification and project sustainability were managed by local partner organizations. During the management training, the applicants were tested in business competence and basic accounting skills. In the final selection round, the applicants had to justify their business plan in front of a jury composed (if possible) of an entrusted CCR worker, a representative of the Caritas Georgia, and a local organization representative.

Subsequent collective projects focused on different aspects and goals. One participating partner organization was excluded, and the role of partners has been strengthened. Since 2008, CCR ARD projects have been continuing as collective projects. The shift from individual support to collective project outcome ownership is different in each project case:

Community planning and participatory identification of community projects in the Samtskhe/Javakheti villages are provided by Caritas Georgia. The local organization (ABC) no longer participated in the project, their participation finished after the training. The project no longer has an economic character in the agricultural sector (ABC specialization). It is oriented on participatory development of the social sector in rural environment – this is an area in which Caritas Georgia specializes. Today the project is financed from local resources and Caritas network funding. The community projects are identified by the village councils in collaboration with representatives of regional authorities (who may promise financial participation) with the assistance of Caritas Georgia local coordinator.

Increasing competitiveness advantage of small farms – In 2006, a local GABC partner organization (which is active at the provincial level) in the Guria province took the initiative and helped to combine the efforts of the previously supported farmers through establishing a marketing cooperative. A group of nine original beneficiaries became the core of the cooperative enterprise in 2006 which was later joined by approximately 250 farmers. The character of

the project in which this initiative resulted is purely economic, and the participation of Caritas Georgia partner organization is only marginal. Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Czech Republic has supported the cooperative project since 2008.

The identification of the Guria project and the selection of villages and coop's members were managed by the GABC partner organization based on needs assessment analysis. The outcome of this analysis was the draft of a project supporting cooperative behaviour. The aim was to combine the resources of small farmers (usually fruit growers) by sharing marketing experience, and through a joint effort to increase the volumes of production, financing and processing technology. The primary idea of establishing an association of producers focusing on one type of product was replaced by establishing a cooperative focusing on several types of local produce, which would be able to function throughout the year.

The cooperative wished to focus on a wide range of production, so the coverage of its operation covered varied regions within the Guria province. Villages participating in the project are on the shores of the Black Sea as well as in the mountainous area of the province. When selecting the villages, the GABC coordinators relied on their own experience and knowledge from previous projects. Thanks to this knowledge base and good reputation, GABC was able to contact the most promising farmers who then became the foundation of the cooperative organization in each of the selected villages. The criteria of coop's member selection included:

- good farming reputation;
- direct experience with the market (individually secured sales);
- ownership of technical equipment which he is willing to make accessible to the village group;
- acceptance of the goals and mission of the collective.

In total, 250 farmers in eight villages were selected. In each of the villages a group led by a so called *lider*, a member of the Agroprodukt coop's council, was established. GABC helped the villagers prepare a marketing development plan for each group. Only after that, the Agroprodukt cooperative development plan was created.

4.1.2 Indonesia

Following principles reflect CCR lessons learned and best practices on both RLD projects. Respect to these principles



Pictures from the community nursery and permaculture learning centre in Rentang village; when the project finishes the complex will be transferred to KPPT management

during the implementation turned out to be crucial for aid acceptance on the side of targeted community, for ensuring community participation and long lasting sustainability of the intervention after CCR leaves the region.

Participation of beneficiaries and partner organizations in preliminary needs assessment determines the future development of the project in several areas. CCR worked together with the national NGO Bina Swadaya that executed and facilitated a preliminary needs assessment in all 21 project villages in post-conflict areas. The Bina Swadaya organization was selected based on the organization profile, previous direct experience of the project manager and the verification of supplied references. On the basis of ToR, Bina Swadaya created a project document that was approved after being reviewed by the CCR management. Villages and specific beneficiaries most affected by the conflict in the given sub-district were selected – CCR worked with data and statistics of the organization BRA at the provincial level, but it also verified this data in the field in collaboration with a local NGO which has been active in the area for a long time, as well as representatives of local authorities at the village, village cluster and sub-district level.

The needs assessment itself lasted five days in each village and used several methodologies,⁶ most of which are based on the active participation of the target communities which, thanks to the assessment process, had the opportunity to express their opinion and share experience. The process was led by a team of experts from the Bina Swadaya organization accompanied by the CCR project team and a representative of the local partner organization PADHI.

This was to make sure that the socialization of the process takes place and the contracted organization transfers the knowledge to CCR staff and the representative delegated by the partner organization. The final report and its content was then presented at community meetings in each of the selected villages (Bina Swadaya, 2008).

Setting clear rules for the selection of final beneficiaries and their subsequent support is crucial for creating relationships between all project partners. When CCR began operating in Aceh, the lack of these clearly set rules represented an obstacle in implementation and developing relations with the community. The fact that several hundred foreign and national organizations became active in the region after the tsunami, presented another negative aspect. These organizations often had very different methodologies and coordination was also very poor. In such situation even clearly set rules could not ensure the final effectiveness of the intervention because a number of organizations provided aid without setting clear criteria and without requesting at least minimal participation on the side of beneficiaries.

The basic preference criteria for beneficiary selection used in the CCR RLD project in post-conflict areas included:

- Vulnerable and poor households or households that have lost significant assets due to the conflict
- Poor households which depend on agriculture or agroforestry as a main source of income
- Widows and women-headed households
- Beneficiaries which have successfully completed activities in previous phases and can enter the next phase of the project
- Beneficiaries who are interested and took part in trainings
- Beneficiaries who could utilize their plots and could prove their ownership of the land. Beneficiaries with no land can use rented land. Beneficiaries are not encouraged to clear new pieces of land for cultivation.

Participation of beneficiaries during the project implementation – inclusion of community in individual project stages planning, identification of initial risks, joint monitoring and internal or external evaluation (CCR and community representatives). This strengthens community's ownership of the accomplished activities. It is relevant for both CCR projects.

⁶ Focused Group Discussions; Participatory Rural Appraisal; Secondary data collection; Triangulation of data; Village transect walk.

Project implementation in collaboration with relevant CBOs – in relation to this argument, the understanding of social, cultural and religious context of the targeted area is crucial. From the original farmers and fishermen groups, CCR was able to create two registered cooperatives as part of the project in post-tsunami areas: KPPT in the sector of agriculture and agroforestry and KNJA in the sector of aquaculture. Both cooperatives became agent of the successful execution of project activities and guarantors of future sustainability, and democratic ownership on the side of communities. CCR continually facilitates structural development of both cooperatives, capacity building of their employees in required fields, and together with relevant experts, sets up standard operational procedures and systems of micro-financing. Strategic planning is underway at the individual cooperative level. CCR functions as a process facilitator, but the owner of the process is the community represented by both cooperatives.

4.1.3 Recommendations

- If the community or the partners involved in the planned project take part in the initial needs assessment and are included well, the understanding among all stakeholders concerning the final project goals is greater, the potential for conflict during the implementation decreases and the community ownership is ensured. Inclusion of the final beneficiaries can be time consuming, nevertheless, it should become a necessary requirement.
- A clear setting of rules for the selection of final beneficiaries before the start of the project consulted with the target community reduces the risk of a potential conflict between the implementing organization and the community. It creates a clearly defined framework for cooperation and increases the sense of ownership among the community even before activities start.
- The implementer's thorough knowledge of targeted area when formulating planned initiatives helps creating the sense of ownership and responsibility on the side of community which can be boosted by including beneficiaries into the process of planning, risk analysis, monitoring and internal/external evaluation.
- Identification of relevant CBOs at the beginning of the project and the consequent project implementation through these structures not only minimizes the risk of conflict between the implementing organization and the target community, but also facilitates the much needed

participation of the community, raises the probability of accepting the offered aid, helps building a sense of ownership in the community and maximizes the chances of future sustainability.

4.2 Alignment with National Strategies

This AE principle binds the donors to structure the support to recipient countries according to national development strategies, and to take the institutions and procedures of recipient countries into account. However, consulted CSOs emphasize the creation of ARD development policies which have to reflect sector priorities. Government strategic materials often ignore these priorities. CSOs claim that they can contribute to the effectiveness of ARD through knowledge of local needs and conditions in the area where they operate. Local organizations should have an opportunity to participate in ARD development policy making. Apart from that, CSOs should contribute by lobbying to favour domestic agricultural products and to improve the access of farmers to modern technologies, loans and markets. A dialogue should accompany such policy making, allowing for critical voices to be heard. CSOs draw attention to development alternatives presented by organizations at the local and regional level which benefit marginalized groups of the population. During consultations CSOs warn against the danger of resource losses when the donor is motivated by his own economic and/or political interests or foreign policy and does respect local needs.

4.2.1 Georgia

The Georgian government does not have a complex strategic paper or an agriculture and rural development policy. There is only a declarative document available. However, there are strategic documents available at the regional and provincial level. These documents are basically development plans prepared thanks to the support of foreign donors (Care International, USAid and others).⁷ The absence or unavailability of development policies in Georgia was solved thanks to the knowledge of local environment, marketing research and continuing communication with the local authorities. This strategic vacuum is filled out by international and national organizations together with local stakeholders. The shift of roles from the government level to the level of foreign and local organizations allowed for the development initiatives in the short-term. The government development

⁷ Donors significantly influence some of these plans. For instance, all the plans stereotypically include the development of tourism as a priority.

strategy is in preparation, but CCR has so far not registered any signs of participation by civil society organizations⁸.

Cooperation with local authorities at the district level is done by CCR to ensure exchange of information about the projects and activities. The community projects in Samtskhe/Javakheti focus on strengthening cooperation between civil society sector and local governments⁹. Regional governmental representatives in the villages will secure financial participation in individual community projects.

The principal of participation of institutions was put into practice when GABC took part in preparing the development plan of the Guria province in 2007. The GABC director was a member of the working group and based on his experience and local knowledge he pushed through the promotion and development of farmer unions and cooperatives into the plan. When GABC was organizing the establishment of groups of cooperatives, local government representatives took part in the activity in eight villages.

4.2.2 Indonesia

The principal of collaboration with a broad range of institutions is crucial in Aceh because of the complexity of Aceh's environment. The province was not only paralyzed in an unprecedented way by the earthquake and tsunami (December 2004), it also experienced thirty years of armed conflict between the central government and the Aceh rebels (the peace agreement was signed in 2005). This complex environment requires thorough coordination with institutions and authorities at various levels in order to facilitate the proper verification of initial data and the choice of the right implementation strategies (filling the gaps).



Members of the KNJA cooperative testing the operation of a small factory for the production of fish feed in Panga

Collaboration at the village level works thanks to the engagement of the village leader (Geucik) and at the village-cluster level thanks to the engagement of representatives responsible for individual sectors (fisheries, forestry, etc.). These structures can often be informal – the Mukim, for instance, is an institution specific to Aceh which played an important role during the conflict and continues to do so even now. Close coordination with these structures is the basic requirement for successful collaboration with the community (respect of beneficiaries) and the acceptance of the aid by the community. Thanks to the collaboration the input data can be verified at a stage when the implementing organization enters the community¹⁰.

Cooperation with the government at the sub-district and district level consists in verifying the input data and sharing the information about the planned activities as well as beneficiaries. At the same time, it is important to obtain data about the government's plans in the target sectors within the area's economic development. As a result of working

⁸ The Georgian government and the EC are preparing an action plan for the development of the agricultural sector within the Neighborhood Partnership.

⁹ For the second year, the Georgian authorities are functioning according to the reform principles that radically changed the country's administrative map. Even though some positive steps were taken in the area of self-government after the so-called "Rose Revolution" at the end of 2003 (for instance the ratification of the European Charter of Local Self-Government in 2004), overall the situation is deteriorating. The reform practically cancelled local level administration (its execution was transferred to the district level). This one-level model left most settlements, villages and smaller cities without their own administration. The number of municipality units fell from 998 to 72 (including the statutory cities of Tbilisi, Poti, Kutaisi, Batumi and Rustavi). Moreover, the actual exercise of the administrative duties at the regional level is in the hands of the president's representative. The financial dependence of the communities on the center has also grown. Thus, the result of this Georgian reform is more the centralization of power and destabilization of local administration. The municipal administration representatives have now a significantly reduced role comparable for instance with the role of a notary.

¹⁰ Working together in the area of aquaculture on the verification of input data, identification of beneficiaries, conflict resolution related to traditional laws (Adat laws – customary laws), identification of suitable land for aquaculture activities, the inclusion of the community in joint planning, monitoring or evaluation is highly effective.

together with the government authorities, the planned project activities can gain the required credibility. CCR supports the visibility and networking of cooperatives with respect to the representatives of the government administration. A long-term goal behind this effort is to link the cooperatives to the regional authorities' budget planning.

Cooperation with the offices of the relevant ministries basically corresponds to the relationship with local authorities at the sub-district and district level. The long-term goal is to link farmers' cooperatives to the strategies, planning and activities of the offices of the two relevant ministries – the Ministry of Agriculture, and the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Affairs.

Cooperation with BRR, an organization at the level of the central government ministry, which was founded after the tsunami and was given the task of rehabilitating and reconstructing Aceh and Nias, proved to be crucial for sharing needed data on both sides¹¹. CCR was undergoing the registration process for each individual project at BRR. Every project had to be approved in the form of a concept note and CCR was later responsible for regular updating of the implementation data in an online database. Data were available online at various levels.

Cooperation with BRA, an organization subordinate to the Aceh province governor, the main task of which was the reintegration of the population, and the repair of damage caused by the armed conflict, concerned mainly the collection of input data on the targeted areas and the inhabitants living in the areas affected during the conflict. The input data was further verified at other levels. BRA continues to function at the provincial level.

Cooperation with the UNORC branch in Calang which is responsible for the coordination of aid for the Aceh Jaya district. Just as in other parts of the world, UN agencies often play a very important coordinating role and function as the leading, complementary or parallel structures along with the coordination efforts of institutions in the country. The inclusion of CCR within the mechanisms of the UNORC branch in Calang guaranteed the necessary data-sharing and opened new opportunities for coordination and joint action of INGOs, national NGOs, regional BRR branch and district administration.

¹¹ *The lasting problem of BBR activity was the combination of coordination and implementation activities when implementation was often inadequately handled due to great number of requirements, time limits and inappropriate structure. In April 2009 this organization is ending its activity and the processes of further rehabilitation and reconstruction of Aceh should be transferred to the regional administration institutions.*

4.2.3 Recommendations

- An important condition for the relevance of the program as well as the individual projects in a complex environment is the coordination with a large number of stakeholders. This means working with the traditional community structures, local authorities and coordinating institutions with the aim to increase the effectiveness of INGOs, NGOs and other institutions. Coordinating institutions created ad hoc often provide important information and analyses which complement or supplement the lack of government strategies.
- Cooperation with government institutions, for instance when approving Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) and other documents, may provide the guarantee and credibility of realized activities in the eyes of the beneficiaries. The presence of government representatives at handover ceremonies may also, to certain extent, provide credibility.
- If the activities are implemented by relevant CBOs (in case of Indonesia two officially registered cooperatives), there is a greater chance of linking these organizations to public institutions' financial mechanisms, and thus making sure such interventions are sustainable after the departure of the implementing organization.

4.3 Harmonization

With respect to the donor, EA principle is defined as a harmonized, transparent and collectively effective action. Donors should act more in accordance with the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), use SWA (sector-wide approaches) and assist national development strategies through a direct budget support and basket funding mechanisms. However, the trend toward SWA and direct budget support endangers local organizations.

Strict criteria, donor and national governmental procedures that make things more difficult exclude local CSOs from development process initiatives; GPRD consultants consider this to be an impediment in harmonizing these actions with long-term development policies. According to the CSOs that were consulted.

Strategic networking, building platforms of CSOs, and deepening the donor – local organization relationship is

a vital element of ARD program effectiveness. There are national consultants that have incorporated already research elements, the quest for key approaches and good practice in ARD and RLD programming as an example of good practice. The outcome of these programs is an improved and diversified agricultural production through the provision of agricultural inputs, technical support and improvement of production infrastructure of the disadvantaged groups. Strengthening the donor versus local CSOs relationship should be based on boosting the organization's social capital by mobilizing communities and raising local capacities for development activity implementation. The good practice programs facilitate the building of a relationship between northern and southern CSOs while working with communities as well as the improvement of communication between CSOs at the national level.

4.3.1 Georgia

Donor coordination tools function in Georgia as an ad hoc measure against a real or potential crisis¹². CCR cooperates within these coordination mechanisms in a standard way or via the local or national Caritas organization. However, in reality large (global, or rather northern) organizations often ignore these mechanisms.

The principle of the functioning of the Caritas network is the harmonization and coordination of development and humanitarian aid. The large majority of projects implemented within this network were more or less coordinated. CCR projects in Georgia were coordinated in this way. Some of them have a synergic effect – for instance, the grant system in the Samtskhe/Javakheti province, which was technically a continuation of the previous projects of Caritas Georgia supported through various organizations from the Caritas network¹³. Other CCR projects continue through projects funded by Official Development Assistance from Latvia and Poland.¹⁴

From the beginning, the harmonization of donors' activities and the collective effectiveness of their projects were in the GABC's interest. The goal of this organization's initiatives towards donors was a relationship based on mutual

respect and transparency on both sides. The cooperative in Guria was created with the help of various donors:

Donor	Activity
US Embassy	Internship of the GABC's director in USA, demonstration of coop action of farmers
SABIT (Special American Business Internship Training Program)	Internships for GABC's personnel in Hungary and Great Britain
CHF International and Latvian Foreign Ministry	Internship in Latvia
Association of Business Consulting Organizations of Georgia (ABCO)	Internship in Greece
CHF International	Presentation of the cooperative at the International Food Fair in Latvia
USAID (SME Support Project)	Training of farmers / coop members and market research
Caritas Czech Republic (ODA)	Training of farmers / coop members, preparation of business plans, grants for coop members to purchase technologies for secondary processing – (tea packaging line, tea processing line, fruit driver), van for the transport of produce, warehouse infrastructure

Harmonization between donors was ensured by the GABC. A cooperative was created through combining of various inputs between 2006 and 2008, even though neither of the donors had original intention of establishing one. The truth is that the project did aim at the creation of a cooperative, but the founder of the cooperative Agroprodukt and its guarantor was, and still is, the local GABC organization. Currently, the cooperative is one of the largest of its kind in Georgia.

4.3.2 Indonesia

From the long-term perspective, the close coordination within the Caritas network proved to be very effective (participation of the national Caritas, its branches and foreign Caritas organizations which are active in the region). This mainly concerned SOA coordination unit that was led and facilitated by the American Caritas organization – CRS. The SOA unit ceased its activity at the beginning of 2009 and its role was taken up by the Indonesian Caritas

¹² UNDP coordinates development initiatives on the territory of the separatist republic of Abkhazia or in areas with the potential for ethnic conflict (Samtskhe/Javakheti). At the national level UNHCR coordinates aid to refugees and post-conflict reconstruction after the war of August 2008.

¹³ The reconstruction of irrigation infrastructure - Caritas Spain; The Program of the Church Social Doctrine - Catholic Relief Services (CRS); primary healthcare project - Caritas Germany.

¹⁴ The Polish ODA project is realized by Caritas Georgia in S/J, and the project of Latvian development cooperation is executed by GABC in Guria.

- KARINA (main office in Jakarta). Even though at the beginning there were problems related to coordination and the different approaches practiced by various foreign Caritas organizations: direct implementation, support of local partners, combination of both approaches (example of CCR in Aceh), in the longer term unquestionable benefits became obvious (KEK CDC Consultants, 2008).

Later the unit functioned mainly as an effective coordinating mechanism ensuring funding support for individual projects. A regular update of the needs of the national Caritas, its branches and other implementing Caritas organizations towards donor Caritas partners was ensured through monthly coordination meetings in Medan (the capital city of north Sumatra), field visits in Aceh or through reporting updates.

Coordination was ensured through monthly meetings divided into several working groups. CCR also participated directly in organizing two workshops – the first concentrating on the subject of livelihoods, the second on collaboration with local CSO partners. The aim of these workshops was to bring together independent experts and experts from other INGOs, employees of foreign and national Caritas organizations, local NGOs' (or their platforms) representatives, representatives of state administration with long experience in the targeted sector and thus facilitate an exchange of information, current trends, strategies, plans, or methodologies used. One of the important topics presented by CCR was the synergy approach between rural livelihood and permanent housing projects, which ensured multi-sector effectiveness.

The exchange of strategic plans between organizations organized under the SOA unit was equally important. This was especially important for CCR, because its workers arrived in Aceh in February 2005, while many other Caritas partners had already been operating in Indonesia or Aceh for several decades.¹⁵ Here CCR gained a unique opportunity to properly formulate its strategic plans and concentrate on appropriate sectors. The representatives of various Caritas partners were also invited to take part in creating a three-year strategic planning of CCR branch.

The experience and organizational history of individual Caritas organizations is often very different. It is thus an indisputable benefit to be a member of a partner network

that gives “younger” Caritas organizations the opportunity to develop and improve existing methodologies. As result they are able to provide higher quality services to beneficiaries or share methodology and experience with other partner organizations or stakeholders.

A specific example is the construction of permanent housing by the CCR in Aceh. Caritas Germany not only financed the project, but also ensured the capacity building of CCR project manager, shared existing methodologies and internal technical expertise during regular project monitoring visits. On the other hand, during its more than four-year operation in Aceh CCR has specialized mainly in the area of rural livelihood development. During this time CCR built up a record of unique lessons learned and best practices and in 2009 focuses mainly on their proper documentation. This documentation should then serve (and partially already serves) the transfer of practical and theoretical knowledge and experience to Indonesian Caritas, its branches, local NGO partners and other stakeholders. The following methods are used or planned as the most suitable forms of sharing experience and good practice: short term field internships, sharing documented RLD methodology, long-term practical and theoretical capacity building (CCR implementation area in Aceh provides ideal setting for practical trainings), direct support of partner pilot projects and regular supervision over their implementation (in this case it is a financially more demanding plan which, however, has already secured support from several CCR donors in Aceh, and the calls for proposals present an option of institutional financing).

As mentioned above, foreign Caritas organizations, Indonesian national Caritas, its branches and local NGO partners often use quite different methodologies. The massive aid, which entered Aceh after the tsunami, created also various new challenges for the implementing organizations. One of the positive outcomes of SOA unit was the establishment of a long-term capacity building program in selected priority sectors. The main goal was to unify existing methodologies and assist the creation of minimal standards to be used by Caritas network in the region. A good example is the long-term capacity building in the field of disaster risk reduction facilitated by organization called IIRR.

¹⁵ In 2008, the American Caritas - CRS celebrated 50 years of its existence in Indonesia.

4.3.3 Recommendations

- Strengthening the social capital of partner CSOs and enabling them to work with communities, local institutions and donors and the “northern” CSOs helps to harmonize development initiatives “from below”. Transferring a part of the project authority to local organizations increases overall effectiveness.
- It is necessary to support harmonization within the donor community by coordinating, sharing of methodologies, working together (joint experiences), disseminating information about available best practices and lessons learned, setting minimal standards for operations

4.4 Management towards Results

This principle of effectiveness depends on donors and partners taking responsibility for the management of resources and for the improvement of decision-making processes towards results when including civil society organizations active in ARD. The means for attaining this is the expansion of capacities for evaluating the outcomes and responsibility of CSOs, governments and donors. The mechanism for the principle of management towards results may be strategic networking. CSO platforms allow responsibility monitoring and the implementation of an effectiveness agenda. Government’s acknowledgement of the role of CSOs, mutual respect and understanding are needed to ensure greater aid effectiveness.

When fulfilling local ARD goals we should concentrate more on the actual impact rather than the outcomes of a project or a program.

4.4.1 Georgia

The GABC Partner organization is a member of the Association of Business Consulting Organizations of Georgia (ABCO) that ensures trainings and capacity building projects for the CSO national network (including coop’s personnel).

The coop members are 250 producers and farmers from eight villages from the Guria region who grow and sell products such as citrus, churma, Spanish chestnuts, honey, tea, kiwi, laurel bay, hazelnuts and fei choa. There are several advantages in being a coop member:

- ensuring sale of production;
- annual dividends;
- available trainings;

- cheaper agriculture inputs;
- availability of secondary production processing.

Various marketing events are held with the help of the Guria Agribusiness Center (GABC) partner organization; there are roundtable meetings with buyers; a network of new markets is created; coop members participate in local and international exhibitions.

Member groups are organized according to their geographic location. Through a mutual formal or informal agreement, a union of several farmers (approximately from 3 to 12) creates a so-called *Amchanagoba* – a collective of individual businessmen led by a *lidër*. The status of *lidër* is crucial for the successful integration of the group into society. The *lidër* is a group’s unifying element and he also agrees with the coop’s management on the prices and volumes of *amchanagoba* member production for sale. *Lidërs* are generally also members of the coop’s advisory board and they take part in the decision-making processes.

The goal of the cooperative is to support trading in a reasonable time, reasonable quantity and reasonable quality; to raise the added value of agricultural products; to organize collection places; facilitate joint supplies; organize meetings with exporters, producers and supermarket representatives with the goal of supporting trade; increase marketing opportunities by implementing joint activities.

Coop’s management negotiates the sale of the produce in large amounts while guaranteeing quality to the purchasers. Management pays individual members half of the difference between the individual farmer’s usual price and the price at which the cooperative sells. The second half is kept by the cooperative for operational costs or for investment. A market system set up in this way gives more to those farmers who are able or willing to supply a larger production.

The bylaws of the cooperative define the obligations of mutual relations between members and the rights and obligations of members with respect to the coop’s management. A supervisory board elected every four years by the general meeting is responsible for the results of the cooperative directly to its members. Two directors, who mustn’t be coop’s members, report to the supervisory board. The bylaws stipulate a relatively strict division of competence and mandates among all executive organs. The responsibility of the cooperative is based on similar groups in Great Britain, Hungary and USA. Other donors,

mainly USAID, ensured the building of capacities by improving responsibility and internal communications systems.

4.4.2 Indonesia

The close **synergy of both ARD** projects became very efficient. Exchange of information, coordination, experience sharing¹⁶, working with the same partners, joint training of project employees, using the same external evaluator - it all helps to raise the implementation effectiveness of both projects. An example is the community nursery and permaculture learning centre in Rentang village. Joint management such as joint planning or shared trainings done by the partner organizations boost the overall effectiveness with respect to the beneficiaries and ensure targeted and long-term increase of capacities and expert knowledge of community trainers.

Cooperation with the Aceh NGO PADHI is specific for project in post-conflict areas. Not only that its employees are members of the project team, a part of the project budget is also used for the support of PADHI organizational structures. CCR ensured the assessment of needs of the partner organizations, and in 2009, it desingning the PADHI strategic planning together with a joint preparation of a detached project that should reflect the results of the strategic planning. Aside from implementation, this project will also facilitate further development of the organizational structure and necessary capacity building for PADHI employees.

In the area of coops' development CCR created a system of communication and sharing of experience between both cooperatives - joint assessment and planning sessions. The KPPT cooperative currently provides various crops for a small fish feed factory which is managed by the KNJA cooperative.

CCR also ensures "hard asset" outcomes necessary for the economic sustainability of both coops' activities. CCR currently participates in their management, but after its departure from the region the management will be fully in the hands of the cooperatives. Apart from the field offices

and warehouses, two hatcheries, a small fish feed factory, a community nursery and a permaculture learning centre will also be handed over to the cooperatives. Their operation reduces production costs and raises the profitability of both cooperatives and their members. In 2009, CCR is focusing on spreading know-how on simple post-harvesting and processing methods and thus helping achieve the increase of retail price on the market (for instance chilli paste, tempe, tofu). The achievement of sustainable profitability is one of the basic guarantees for acceptance of aid by beneficiaries. Long-term study internships for members of both cooperatives and the cooperation with relevant institutions were also arranged.¹⁷

CCR connects the coop's boards to partner organizations and other non-profit organizations active in the Aceh Jaya district. For instance, trainers from KNJA carried out a paid training program in the field of aquaculture for the local NGO PASKA and its beneficiaries (the training was financed by CCA with the support of CIDA). Currently discussions are underway concerning similar cooperation with the Childfund or OISCA organizations. The KNJA cooperative is currently finalizing its cooperation plan with the Teuku Umar University in Meulaboh which aims at establishing a paid practical study program for university students in the field of operation of a small hatcheries and a small fish feed factory. This process is facilitated by CCR and the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Affairs.

One of the targeted farmer groups (loosely connected with the KPPT cooperative), which took part in the Farmer Field School program, was contracted by a branch of the Ministry of Agriculture in Calang to supply compost for the rubber seedlings distribution implemented by the Ministry.

CCR also links both cooperatives to the regional market and supports visibility towards public authorities (participation in launching and hand over ceremonies). The long-term goal is to connect the cooperatives to the regional administration budget planning. A good example is the participation of both cooperatives at an exhibition on the occasion of the anniversary of the tsunami tragedy in December 2007 in Calang. The Aceh governor was present at the presentation prepared and executed by the coop's members.

¹⁶ Providing capacity building to farmers through the Farmer Field School methodology within project in the post-conflict areas respects lessons learnt from the project in the post-tsunami areas where the same methodology was applied.

¹⁷ A study trip to southern Sulawesi as part of understanding how established cooperative work, professional training and education of KNJA members in the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Affairs training center in Sukabumi or within government hatchery in Ujung Battee near the Aceh capital city Banda Aceh.

When raising capacities, it is necessary to take into account the relevance to beneficiaries' needs as well as their capacity to accept and use the training content. CCR tries to work with user-friendly materials and training modules within the education process (trainings, internships, exchange visits, farmer field days, and study tours). It also tries to provide multi-level training for promising beneficiaries and appoints community trainers (usually coop's members) who later train new beneficiaries and other stakeholders. CCR strongly emphasizes training methodologies which promote understanding of rural livelihood recovery as not just a lack of external assistance, but more as an opportunity to make good use of available means and resources and gradually profit from their marketing (for instance production of compost, use of biogas, effective production of traditional crops such as rubber, cacao or rice, pest control, production of fish feed).

Probably the most successful example of a well-targeted capacity building action executed by CCR in Aceh is the "Farmer Field School" methodology (implemented in cooperation with a national NGO PANSU). The trainers are advanced farmers from north Sumatra who provide a lasting combination of theoretical and practical training. Targeted crops are rubber, cacao and rice. The difference between the Farmer Field School method and many other training methodologies in Aceh is that it is very well accepted by the community due to its usefulness and low demands on the recipient's education level¹⁸.

If presented carefully in the community, „**cross-cutting**“ issues can function as a good way of achieving great involvement of marginalized groups in the project. When implementing a gender balanced approach in these communities it was necessary to take the local language into account. Thus, the use of the word gender was replaced by "inequality in access to the job opportunities." In order to approach targeted marginalized groups, it was necessary to organize community meetings separately for men and women. One of the very positive outcomes of the project in post-tsunami areas was the creation of a special feminine „savings group“ in the Ptue village in the Jaya sub-district.

It came into existence during the Farmer Field School program in the system of rice intensification (SRI). A very positive result is the acceptance of the group by the community.

From the point of view of **supporting the national strategic networks the building of capacities of the Indonesian Caritas** (KARINA) and its branches serves as a good example. The later stage of the SOA coordination unit concentrated considerably on building capacity of the Indonesian Caritas. Even though this should be the basic principle of Caritas work when entering disaster-stricken country, it was not the case at the beginning of SOA operation. The diversification of various Caritas organizations within the „direct implementation versus partner support“ principle was partly responsible, but at the time the tsunami hit Aceh, the Indonesian Caritas was just established and its implementation capacities were very weak. Because of unprecedented financial resources and often a very limited timeframe for their spending, most foreign Caritas organizations were "overwhelmed" by their own direct implementations. It was only later that supporting structures and capacities of the Indonesian Caritas became a major priority.

4.4.3 Recommendations

- The capacity building of the beneficiaries must be balanced, relevant and easy to understand. Both local and regional development goals are easier to reach when an appropriate theoretical and practical learning is provided.
- Good tools for fulfilling the principle of "management towards results" are production advertising and making the market more accessible to beneficiaries through various means.
- Capacity building of partner organizations within platforms and networks (both church and secular) ensures effectiveness of development initiatives to a certain level. The AE agenda for CSOs is more relevant and obvious within broader institutional and civil society platforms.

¹⁸ When this activity began there was a concern whether Acehnese farmers and communities would accept Batak farmers (a Christian ethnicity living mainly in the northern part of the Sumatra island). Both communities are religiously different (Aceh – conservative Islam, Bataks – mostly Christian) and in addition northern Sumatra, mainly the capital city Medan, has been functioning for some time as a center for the purchase of cheap crops from Aceh, their processing and the subsequent retail sale back to Aceh or to other places. Two moments became crucial for the success of this "sub-project" and its final acceptance by the community. Firstly, both trainers and "students" are farmers and so they share a common bond with the land on which they work, and secondly, the educated Batak farmers lived during the entire six month activity in the given communities which allowed them to gain the trust of the beneficiaries – participation in community activities, feast celebrations, shared ritual of drinking coffee etc.

4.5 Joint Responsibility

Donors and partners are jointly responsible for development results and for the development of true partnerships with mutual responsibility. This fifth AE principle obliges the donors and recipient countries to mutual responsibility and transparency, which concerns also the first four principles of aid effectiveness. This principle requires a similar approach from governments, mainly in terms of their responsibility for providing financing.

In terms of responsibility, CSOs active in ARD remain more responsible towards donors who provided the funding rather than the end recipient. This principle weakens the CSOs claim that they legitimately represent communities. From the donor's perspective, it is against the principle of mutual responsibility to impose conditions and one-sided responsibility on local CSOs. The key message of the AE principle is the inclusion of "end recipients" of the results of development initiatives into the overall evaluation process.

4.5.1 Georgia

Both GABC and ABCO function normally as facilitators of development initiatives from project formulation for individual farmers or their groups to consultations and monitoring. Their responsibility towards beneficiaries is to make the success of projects that they helped put together.

Monitoring and project reporting is the responsibility of local coordinators (GABC, ABCO and Caritas Georgia), the narrative and financial reporting is done monthly using CCR forms. Beneficiaries have an obligation to report, but not the other way around. The cooperative and its members are also in the position of project beneficiaries and thus excluded from its management. The coop's supervisory board only expressed its position towards matters of property management and the lease contract for storing technology which is one of the project outcomes. The cooperative annually pays dividends to its members (half of the difference between the price paid for products by the cooperative and the price paid by the end-buyer).

CCR neither reports to partner organizations in Georgia nor to beneficiaries. A certain example of applying the rule of joint responsibility towards beneficiaries may be the financial reports on finances collected from local sources for community projects in Samtskhe/Javakheti. Similar transparent principal is applied when accounting for financial

shares of the beneficiaries in a project aiming at increasing the competitive strength of Georgian agriculture.

4.5.2 Indonesia



It is possible to define three basic relationships of mutual responsibility in CCR RLD implementation in Aceh:

a/ CCR - Donors

Mutual responsibility is guaranteed by a signed contract which defines the rights and obligations of both stakeholders. This contract is signed on the side of CCR by its headquarters in Prague, and after that, the headquarters of a particular donor. During the course of project implementation, the relevant information is communicated to the donor by the branch in the form of narrative and financial reporting, external evaluations and financial audits, media outputs and field visits. During its operation, CCR appreciated the sharing of strategic planning and required methodologies and contacts from the donors' side, inclusion of CCR employees into the capacity building process organized by donors, timely allocation of necessary financial funds, readiness to make the necessary update of the project documentation (reflecting the turbulent changes in the post-tsunami rehabilitation environment and allowing the continuation of project relevance), openness on the question of redirecting financial resources to post-conflict areas reflecting current development aid trends in Aceh.

The ability of CCR to inform openly about the ongoing implementation, readiness to report about existing problems and the ability to react to such problems and solve them, proved to be a necessary prerequisite for the creation of a long-term quality relationship based on mutual understanding and respect. At the same time, donors

appreciate CCR's willingness and readiness to share its own lessons learned and best practices with local partners (Indonesian national Caritas, its branches and other Indonesian NGOs).

b/ CCR – project partners

Since the history of CCR in Aceh is relatively short (the branch has been functioning for only four years), it was necessary to invite several partner organizations or independent experts to help elaborate the methodologies used in order to attain optimal implementation. Relationships at this level are usually ensured by the so called Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) and Terms of Reference (ToR) between CCR and the respective partner.

In the current phase, the branch focuses on structural strengthening, capacity building and securing financial resources for its long-term partners at the local or national level. In the long-term this strategy significantly helps promote good mutual relations, respect and understanding between CCR and its partners.

It is necessary to add at this point that every partnership sometimes requires each partner to make a compromise when aspiring to „ideal methodologies and plans“. Apart from clearly defined official documents, it is equally important to sustain informal relationships which helps prevent the occurrence of potential conflict situation in the long-term.

c/ CCR – beneficiaries (here specifically represented by two cooperatives)

From a formal perspective, relations between CCR and the community are established by a contract or through a combination of MoU and ToR for a particular period. Furthermore, in 2008 CCR started using the system of “quarterly transfers” to cooperatives. The cooperative prepares the plan for these transfers with CCR project employees (organizational needs, salaries, revolving fund for members of cooperatives) and, after the plan is approved by the project managers and financial managers, the transfer can be done directly to the coop's bank account. The cooperative is then responsible for proper accounting to the CCR.

Apart from formal documents, the following events turned out to be crucial in strengthening mutual trust and respect: participation of coop's members in internal planning, monitoring and evaluation; adherence to promises made by CCR towards the cooperatives; long-term responsibility towards the cooperatives; sustaining informal relations – for instance the presence of CCR employees during several community festivities, celebrations and ceremonies and their financial or moral support.

CCR organizes weekly, monthly and quarterly joint monitoring of cooperative related activities. After the monitoring, further activities are planned jointly (assigned CCR staff and coop's representatives) and specific decisions are made on correcting particular situations if necessary. The overall system actually represents an implementation of a “strategic plan of cooperative development“ in form of a guiding document prepared as an output from the joint workshops organized by CCR and cooperatives.¹⁹

4.5.3 Recommendations

- Mutual or shared responsibility is the basic requirement of effectiveness and overlaps with the other four principles. A precise statement of responsibilities in a formal document is a key factor: clear rules regulating the communication of information on the project and transfers of funds.
- As an implementer of development activities, CCR feels that flexibility and openness are also crucial for effectiveness. Timely allocation of project funds by the donor, operational flexibility, and the readiness to make continuous project updates increase effectiveness of the action in similar way open relationships towards partner and beneficiaries do. On the other hand, excessive social distance weakens the positions of the partners and creates a potential for conflict.
- Co-financing by the beneficiaries helps boost mutual sense of responsibility. Without doubt, the more the beneficiary supports the project from his/her own resources, the more support he/she will get from the donor and the cooperating CSO.

¹⁹ An external Indonesian consultant (in 2008 he spent three months with each of the cooperatives when setting basic processes and standards), who currently works as a permanent CCR employee and together with two other CCR workers (project officers who went through a three-week specialized course in south Sulawesi) ensures the long-term development of both cooperative structures.

5. Conclusion

Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

We have evaluated two CCR rural livelihood development projects in relation to general principles of development aid effectiveness based on the Paris Declaration. Based on our experience, it is crucial to see the real needs and development possibilities from the point of view of civil society in order to ensure true effectiveness and positive impact on the inhabitants of rural areas.

A/ When reflecting the issue of development program **ownership**, it is necessary to include the local population and civil society groups already at the stage of the community planning and participatory project identification. Project participation criteria must include active engagement (including the financial or material participation) during the project realization and while utilizing the project results:

- If the community or the partners involved in the planned project take part in the initial needs assessment and are well engaged in this process, there is a greater understanding among all stakeholders concerning the final project goals. Also, the potential for conflict during the implementation is minimized and the ownership of the project by the community is secured. Engagement of the final beneficiaries can be time consuming, nevertheless, it should become a necessary basic standard.
- Clear and consulted (with the target community) rules for the selection of final beneficiaries before the start of the project reduce the risk of a potential conflict between the implementing organization and the community. Moreover, such rules create a clearly defined framework for cooperation and, already before activities start, increases the sense of ownership in the community.
- The implementer's thorough knowledge of targeted area when formulating planned initiatives helps nurture the feeling of respect, ownership and responsibility in the community. This feeling can be further boosted by engaging direct beneficiaries into the process of planning, risk analysis, monitoring and internal/external evaluation.
- Identification of relevant CBOs at the beginning of the project and the consequent implementation through these structures not only minimizes the occurrence of conflict situations between the implementing organization and the target community, but also fittingly ensures the needed involvement of the community, increases the probability of offered aid acceptance, helps build the

sense of ownership in the community and maximizes the opportunity for future sustainability.

B/ A frequent problem related to the **alignment to national strategies** are the discordance of these strategies with real sector priorities or other stakeholders' priorities (mainly marginalized groups of population). It is strongly suggested to utilize CSOs' local knowledge when lobbying for development alternatives at the community, district or provincial level. At the same time, it is necessary to strengthen the dialogue and mutual respect between individual stakeholders:

- An important condition for the relevance of the program as well as the individual projects in a complex environment is the coordination with large number of stakeholders. This means working with the traditional community structures, local authorities, and coordinating institutions founded to raise the working effectiveness of INGOs, NGOs and other institutions. Coordinating institutions created ad-hoc often provide important information and analyses which complement or supplement the lack of government strategies.
- Cooperation with official institutions, when signing a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) and other documents, may guarantee credibility of realized activities in the eyes of the beneficiaries. The presence of representatives of local authorities at launching or handover events may also to a certain extent provide such guarantee.
- If the activities are implemented by relevant CBOs (in case of Indonesia two officially registered cooperatives), the possibility of linking these organizations to short-term or long-term financial mechanisms of public institutions increases for the chance of sustainability of the intervention after the departure of the implementing organization.

C/ Harmonization of development programs at the state level (for instance budget support) and strict but unified procedures required by the donors may lead to exclusion of various marginalized groups. In our projects we strive for close cooperation with various donors. Apart from knowledge of the local environment and the mutual interest of donors and CSOs in effectiveness of the activities, coordination between individual CSOs, a long-term support of their capacities and predictable behaviour of all involved stakeholders is also important.

- Strengthening the social capital of partner CSOs towards communities, local institutions and finally also towards donors and the "northern" CSOs help harmonize

development initiatives “from below”. Transferring a part of the project authority to local organizations increases overall effectiveness.

- It is necessary to support harmonization within the donor community by coordinating, sharing of methodologies, working together (sharing experience), disseminating information about available best practices and lessons learnt, setting basic standards for operations

D/ Regarding the management towards results, the main focus is on the impact on the target groups. A CSO management has to start by building CSO capacities and ensuring communication between CSOs and public administration representatives. The rights and obligations of individual stakeholders and mechanisms of responsibilities for the results must be clear beforehand:

- The capacity building of the beneficiaries must be balanced, relevant and easy to understand. Both local and regional development goals are easier to reach when an appropriate theoretical and practical learning is provided.
- Good tools for fulfilling the principle of “management towards results” are production advertising and making the market more accessible to beneficiaries through various means.
- Capacity building of partner organizations within platforms and networks (both church and secular) ensures effectiveness of development initiatives to a certain level. The AE agenda for CSOs is more relevant and obvious within broader institutional and civil society platforms.

E/ Joint or mutual responsibility is not only the responsibility for narrative or financial reporting, but also the responsibility with respect to beneficiaries and for the development of true partnerships.

- Mutual or shared responsibility is the basic requirement of effectiveness and overlaps with the other four principles. A precise statement of responsibilities in a formal document is a key factor: clear rules regulating the communication of information on the project and transfers of funds.
- As an implementer of development activities, CCR feels that flexibility and openness are also crucial for effectiveness. Timely allocation of project funds by the donor, operational flexibility, and the readiness to make continuous project updates increase effectiveness of the action in similar way open relationships towards partner and beneficiaries do. On the other hand, excessive social distance weakens the positions of the partners and creates a potential for conflict.
- Co-financing by the beneficiaries helps boost mutual sense of responsibility. Without doubt, the more the

beneficiary supports the project from his/her own resources, the more support he/she will get from the donor and the cooperating CSO.

The Role of CSOs

Thorough knowledge of the local environment; direct participation of beneficiaries in the preparation phase; project implementation, monitoring and evaluation; cooperation and coordination with other stakeholders on the national and multinational level, and mutual responsibility for results of development cooperation – all of these factors are without a doubt the key factors of successful implementation of development programs and projects.

From the civil society organizations’ point of view an **open partnership** is crucial in this context – partnership between the organization and citizens who are represented by the individual organization; between similar organizations in the target country and abroad; between CSOs and stakeholders from other sectors, including national and local authorities and donors. It is obvious that building these partnerships requires not only mutual trust, transparency and responsibility, but also sharing of experience and the support in building and strengthening capacities.

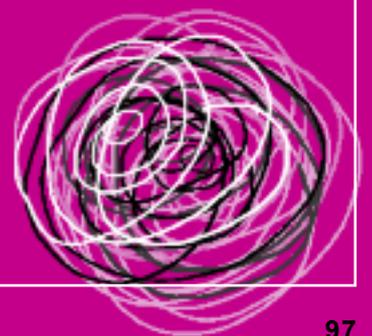
Apart from cooperation with partners, **other CSOs’ roles** are also important when implementing development projects: CSOs often provide services for marginalized groups in the population and defend their rights, provide important co-financing for local development interventions and facilitate cooperation or long-term networking throughout sectors and regions.

However, the special role of CSOs is not only related to their status. It also depends on the amount of their responsibility towards citizens and on their ability to act in a particular situation directly in the field, overcome obstacles and learn from mistakes.

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Gender and Development



Development Effectiveness and Gender: the Czech Experience



Míla Lukášová

Introduction

“Over a billion women worldwide continue to be trapped in poverty... Where women can't thrive, national development strategies and progress towards the Millennium Development Goals are in jeopardy. There can be no aid effectiveness without a focus on gender equality.”

(Inés Alberdi, UNIFEM Executive Director, September 2008)

Numerous scholars, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), women's rights advocates, as well as decision makers, have identified the link between effective development and gender equality, stressing the need to move gender concerns to the centre of development efforts². In this way, it has been acknowledged by many development actors that the mainstreaming of gender equality in all development policies and projects and the need for specific measures to empower women is crucial in development. This so-called twin-track approach of gender mainstreaming is behind the idea of this study, which is a part of the Presidency Project “CSO Development Effectiveness” as realized by the national platform FoRS - Czech Forum for Development Co-operation on the occasion of the Czech Republic's Presidency of the Council of the European Union. In line with the project's aim of reflecting on the development effectiveness of the Czech civil society in the context of concrete project experience, this paper seeks to assess the performance of two Czech NGOs in the context of the twin-track approach to gender mainstreaming.

By providing case studies on particular development topics, FoRS intends to contribute to the Open Forum for CSO Development Effectiveness, a global process of assessing principles of development effectiveness from the point of view of Civil Society Organizations.

To start, this paper examines gender issues in a broader context by looking at the global institutional framework and by providing background on gender within the Czech development community. Subsequently, the study explores the work of two Czech NGOs in terms of their contribution to gender equality and women's empowerment in developing countries, identifies the strengths and weaknesses of their work in relation to development effectiveness, and concludes by discussing lessons that have been learned. Special attention is given to the relationship between gender and development effectiveness: the first case study analyzes the mainstreaming of gender equality in the Sustainable Livelihoods project of the Caritas Czech Republic in Indonesia, and the second case study evaluates the women's empowerment project Bon Départ, realized by Humanitas Africa in Burkina Faso. The performance of the two NGOs in the field of gender and development effectiveness is also compared to the overall global and national development goals concerning gender equality.

This paper demonstrates that the Sustainable Livelihoods project of the Caritas Czech Republic in Indonesia and Bon Départ of Humanitas Africa in Burkina Faso have the potential

¹ *No Aid Effectiveness without Gender Equality, UNIFEM, EC, ILO, 2 September 2008*
http://www.unifem.org/news_events/story_detail.php?StoryID=721.

² *For example, see the work on gender of the Swedish Development Agency Sida, Irish Aid, UN, WIDE network; for scholarly literature see the work of Caroline Moser or Janet Henshall Momsen.*

to contribute to the effectiveness of gender related development, and progress towards the global goals of gender equality and women's empowerment. Moreover, in view of the rather low attention given to gender and women's human rights in general in the Czech ODA, this study reveals that the role of civil society in the promotion of gender equality is irreplaceable.

1. Methodology and Chapter Outline

This study begins by briefly looking at the historical background and institutional framework of gender and development and development effectiveness in order to provide a foundation for analysis. Since the aim of this work is to assess the contributions of CSOs to development effectiveness, a broader contextual framework to which the CSO results are ultimately compared to is specified, namely the Millennium Development Goals (Chapter 2), and the goals of the Czech Development Cooperation (Chapter 3). Before moving to the case studies, an overview of gender in Czech development cooperation is presented. The gender dimension of Czech development cooperation is analyzed, particularly the work of governmental and non-governmental actors within the framework of the following criteria: awareness, capacity building, soft law, hard law, outputs, and evaluation.

The case studies are based on a combination of descriptive, explanatory and exploratory approaches. The organizations and their projects have been selected on the basis of certain gender sensitivity. Each case study examines one project by applying development effectiveness principles to the collected quantitative and qualitative data. It is important to stress that since the overall aim of the FoRS Presidency project is to reflect on CSOs development effectiveness and thus contribute to the global efforts, the national platform FoRS started the process by its own participatory identification of key principles of development effectiveness at the Inception Seminar on 18 November 2008. The participants identified the following principles: ownership, partnership, impact and sustainability, coordination, information sharing and communication.³

The case studies are based on quantitative and qualitative evidence, drawing mainly on the project documentation.

³ See Appendix

⁴ Gender & Indicators, *Gender and Development in Brief, Bridge Bulletin, August 2007*

In addition, consultations with each organization took place during the process of data collection. It is crucial to emphasize that the progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women is difficult to measure as it (hypothetically) concerns changes in gender relations. When it comes to gender and measurements of change, indicators must move beyond income and consumption, and include qualitative data to capture the multifaceted dimension of gender (in) equality or women's empowerment⁴. In order to provide an accurate assessment, the study ensures that the quantitative data is complemented with qualitative evidence.

The paper concludes with the findings of the two case studies and, based on these findings, evaluates the lessons that have been learned. While taking into consideration the results, the conclusion reflects on the role of civil society in regard to development effectiveness.

2. Brief Historical Background and Institutional Framework for Gender and Development

Throughout the history of women's rights movement, different approaches have developed in the research field on women, gender and development. Significant changes have evolved in the course of this development, most importantly the alteration in the perception of women as victims to women as agents of change in development processes. Focus has shifted from women to the concept of gender, and at the same time women's empowerment has been accentuated. In terms of institutional structures, the dominant role in the advancement of women's rights and gender equality can be attributed to the UN, and to other international organizations such as the EU and Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD).

2.1 From Women as Victims to Women as Agents of Change

Women's rights were institutionalized within the UN in the second half of the 20th century. The Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) was established in 1946 and since then has been in charge of assessing the progress of women worldwide. Moreover, women's rights and gender issues have been brought into light through a series of international

women's conferences. Following the First Conference in Mexico (1975), the UN Decade for Women was proclaimed (1976 - 1985), and in 1979, the UN adopted the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). Countries that have ratified⁵ this Convention have become legally bound to end all forms of discrimination against women, and periodically report on their progress.

In terms of approaches to development, until the early 1970s the focus was on a welfare approach, in which development policies were directed at women only in the context of their role as wives and mothers⁶. The 1970s challenged this method, and marked a shift to the Women in Development approach (WID), which aimed to integrate women into economic development by focusing on income generation projects for women⁷. Nonetheless, WID also showed its limits, especially as many projects, often a direct transfer of Western models to societies with completely different traditions and gender roles, in many cases only added to women's existing workload⁸. Women's organizations from the South, advocating a Women in Development approach (WID), expressed their concerns, emphasizing that to explain gender inequality, it was necessary to focus on structural changes, and changes in macro-policy environments⁹. The most important achievement during this development was that women moved from being seen as objects and victims to becoming subjects, claiming agency¹⁰. Approaches to development that focused on women, by the end of the twentieth century, had also amalgamated into gender and development approaches¹¹.

Although the UN's engagement with women's rights continued through the international conferences, the decade of 1985 - 1995 is frequently described as a lost decade that further strengthened the feminization of poverty in the developing world. For women in the South, 1980s and

1990s were marked by laissez-faire policies advocated by Margaret Thatcher in Britain, Ronald Reagan in the United States, and structural adjustment policies promoted by organizations such as the World Bank and the IMF⁹. The next milestone signalling the advancement of women's rights was the outcome of the 1995 Beijing Conference. Most importantly, the 1995 conference started the shift from women in development to gender and development, which adopted a strategy of gender mainstreaming to reach the goal of gender equality.

2.2 Gender on the Global Development Agenda

Beijing and its Aftermath

The most significant milestone in the history of women's development was the Fourth Conference in Beijing in 1995. A significant transformation took place as a result of the Conference: the recognition, based on the 1993 Vienna Declaration, that women's rights are human rights, and the recognition that there must be a shift of focus from "women" to the concept of "gender." In this way the entire structure of society, and all relations between men and women within it, had to be re-evaluated¹². The Conference adopted the Beijing Declaration and its Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA), an agenda for women's empowerment. The BPFA proposed measures to be taken on gender concerns in 12 key areas: women's poverty, education of women, health care, violence against women, women in armed conflicts, women and the economy, power and decision making, promoting the advancement of women, human rights of women, women in the media, women and the environment, and rights of the girl child¹³.

The strategy of gender mainstreaming was agreed upon as a means to achieve the goals of gender equality and women's empowerment.¹⁴ Gender focused goals have been included among the UN Millennium Development Goals

⁵ As of 18 March 2005, the Convention has 180 state parties; CSW 2009 Handbook, United Nations Commission on the Status of Women, 2009.

⁶ Janet Henshall Momsen, *Gender and Development*, (London: 2004).

⁷ *Ibid.*

⁸ *Gender Matters, Sida*, (Stockholm, 2005).

⁹ Devaki Jain, S. Chacko, *Unfolding Women's Engagement with Development and the UN: Pointers for the Future*, Forum for Development Studies, June 2008.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

¹¹ Janet Henshall Momsen, *Gender and Development*, (London: 2004).

¹² CSW 2009 Handbook, United Nations Commission on the Status of Women, 2009.

¹³ For further information on the key areas see the Beijing Platform for Action at: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/index.html>.

¹⁴ By the definition of the UN, gender mainstreaming involves ensuring that gender perspectives and attention to the goal of gender equality are central to all activities - policy development, research, advocacy/ dialogue, legislation, resource allocation, and planning, implementation and monitoring of programmes and projects.

adopted in 2000 with the ambition to reach the goals by 2015. The aim of MDG 3 is to promote gender equality and empower women, and its fulfilment is central to the accomplishment of other goals, most importantly the MDG 1 concerning the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger. Furthermore, in the same year, important achievements were made for women's rights as the UN Security Council passed Resolution 1325 on women, peace, and security. It is the first resolution ever passed by the Security Council that specifically addresses the impact of war on women, and women's contributions to conflict resolution and sustainable peace.¹⁵ Resolution 1325 calls for mainstreaming of gender concerns in peace negotiations and implementation, and in the reconstruction of post-conflict areas. In 2008, this Resolution was followed by the UN SC Resolution 1820, which demands “*immediate and complete halt to acts of sexual violence against civilians in conflict zones*”¹⁶.

EU's Support to Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment

Since Beijing, most international development institutions have adopted gender mainstreaming. Among the strong supporters of gender equality and women's rights on the international level is the EU. As said by Poul Nielson, the former EU Commissioner for Development Cooperation and Humanitarian Aid, the EU has been an active party in the promotion of women's rights, including work on the drafting of the Platform for Action; he adds that since then, the concept of gender mainstreaming has become an important strategy and tool to achieve the goal of gender equality.¹⁷ The crucial policy framework for promoting gender equality is the European Consensus on Development, agreed upon in 2005 by the European Commission, the Council, the Parliament, and the representatives of the member states, where gender equality is defined as a cross-cutting issue¹⁸. In addition, the 2007 Commission Communication on “Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in Development Cooperation” is the first step towards a coordinated European approach to promoting gender equality and empowering women through development cooperation. In line with these

documents, the EU advocates the so-called twin-track approach to gender mainstreaming: to accomplish the goal of gender equality, gender concerns should be not only mainstreamed into all policies and projects, but specific measures directed at women's empowerment should be encouraged in projects and policies.

The Paris Declaration and Gender

In terms of development challenges, the current international debate is about the effectiveness of development cooperation. The question is whether development cooperation has been bringing results and making progress towards the MDGs. In 2005, countries adopted the Paris Declaration (PD) on Aid Effectiveness, committing themselves, under non-binding terms however, to increase the effectiveness of aid. The OECD is coordinating these efforts. The Paris Declaration is organized around five key principles: Ownership - meaning that developing countries set their own strategies for poverty reduction; Alignment - donor countries support these objectives and use local systems; Harmonisation - donor countries coordinate, simplify procedures and share information to avoid duplication; Results - developing countries and donors shift their focus to development results and the results are measured; Mutual Accountability - donors and partners are accountable for development results²⁰.

Although CSOs view the Declaration as an important step towards the necessary improvement of the development agenda, they have been critical of the document, mostly due to its lack of participatory approaches, for being too technical, and not reflecting CSOs priorities²¹. As a response to the Paris Declaration, CSOs initiated an Open Forum for CSO Development Effectiveness. In terms of gender issues, the Paris Declaration has been criticized by women's rights advocates as being gender blind²². During the High Level Forum meeting in Ghana in September 2008, the international community agreed on the Accra Agenda for Action (AAA), which builds on the Paris Declaration. Point 3 of the text states that “*Gender equality, respect for human rights, and environmental sustainability are cornerstones for achieving*

¹⁵ UN SC Resolution 1325, Peace Women, <http://www.peacewomen.org/un/sc/1325.html>.

¹⁶ UN SC Resolution 1820, 2008, <http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2008/sc9364.doc.htm>.

¹⁷ Gender Equality in Development Cooperation, European Commission, December 2003.

¹⁸ EU Policy Framework for Promoting Gender Equality, European Commission.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ The Paris Declaration, OECD, 2005.

²¹ Daniel Svoboda, F. J. Berger, Global Facilitation Group on CSO Development Effectiveness, Open Forum for CSO Development Effectiveness as a Response to Paris Declaration, Johannesburg, March 2009.

²² Accra Women's International Forum Statement: Recommendations for Action on Development Effectiveness in Accra and beyond, Accra International Women's Forum, 30 August 2008.

*enduring impact on the lives and potential of poor women, men, and children. It is vital that all our policies address these issues in a more systematic and coherent way*²³.”

In regard to this statement, it can be observed that there are some signs of a changing approach from governments and donors.

3. Gender in Czech Development Cooperation

Since its EU accession in 2004, the Czech Republic has been considered an emerging donor country. In this regard, the system of Czech development cooperation is still evolving. Gender equality is officially referred to as a crosscutting issue in the Czech ODA, but no further attention is paid to gender or women's human rights. Undoubtedly, when it comes to gender concerns, the Czech Republic cannot immediately be on the same level as more experienced countries with a long history of women's human rights promotion, such as the Netherlands or Sweden. Nonetheless, it is crucial to stress that the Czech Republic's foreign policy is very sensitive to the promotion of human rights; yet, women's human rights are not among the priorities. Attention to gender issues among non-governmental actors is not much higher; however, their role seems to be crucial in bringing the gender issue to the Czech development agenda.

3.1 The Governmental Level

The Czech Republic is committed to a number of politically and legally binding documents on gender and equal opportunities for men and women, such as the Treaty of Amsterdam, the Maastricht Treaty, Charter for Fundamental Rights of the EU, CEDAW, Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, and Millennium Development Goals. In terms of gender in development cooperation, the Czech Republic is obliged to reflect the twin-track approach to gender mainstreaming in its policy framework, i.e. mainstreaming gender issues into all aspects of development policy and encouraging projects specifically aimed at the socioeconomic and political empowerment of women.

On the national level, the amount of attention given and level of awareness to gender is fairly low, within both the population and the administration. As for the MFA, gender

equality is only taken as a crosscutting issue in its strategy documents. Gender equality and women's rights are not among the principal goals of Czech ODA, which consists of the following: reduction of poverty, economic and industrial development, gradual integration of partner countries into the global economy and rural development, good governance, reinforcement of human rights, proper administration of public matters, introduction of legal principles, migration control, sustainable development (with an emphasis on environmental factor), and post-conflict reconstruction²⁴. Even if gender equality crosscuts all of these goals, several if not all could further elaborate on targets related to gender equality and women's empowerment. The empowerment of women is fundamental for poverty reduction; post-conflict reconstruction should consider specific gender needs, and women's human rights must be promoted and respected if good governance is to take place. These aspects are recognized by the international community but neglected on the national level.

It is important to point out that the system of Czech ODA is currently being transformed, with the aim to centralize its work under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The newly established Czech Development Agency (CZDA), a subordinated organ to the MFA, is to gradually become the implementation body, while the MFA will continue to play a key role in strategy preparation, planning and evaluation²⁵. With regard to gender issues, the MFA has been repeatedly criticized by civil society for lacking a gender strategy in its ODA system. According to the MFA Department of Development Cooperation and Humanitarian Assistance, the Czech Republic has no gender equality strategy, partially because gender is taken as a cross-cutting issue, partially due to the fact that the Czech ODA system is still being developed, and finally due to the lack of capacity within the framework of the current ODA system²⁶. However, along with this absence of a gender strategy, there also appears to be a low understanding of gender mainstreaming: there is no gender expert responsible for development issues within the administration. This, at least partially, explains the lack of gender data and lack of evidence that gender equality, as a crosscutting issue, is actually being mainstreamed into all phases of project cycle management in the majority of Czech ODA projects. More to the point, without having gender data, it is impossible to provide a gender sensitive evaluation of projects, and thus

²³ *Accra Agenda for Action, Third High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness, September 2008.*

²⁴ *Guidelines on the Czech Republic's Development Cooperation, Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Czech Republic, March 2004.*

²⁵ *Transformation of the Czech International Development System, Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Czech Republic, 2008.*

²⁶ *Information obtained by email communication with the Department of Development Cooperation and Humanitarian Assistance, September 2008.*

to find out whether a particular project added to gender equality goals or on the contrary, increased the gender gap.

3.2 The Non-Governmental Level

More sensitivity towards gender in development cooperation can be found among some NGOs, but even here, gender equality is often taken merely as a technical issue, separate from project results. Most NGOs, as well as private companies that act as other non-governmental actors in development, show indifference or a lack of understanding of the gender criteria²⁷. Although some mention the need for equal representation of men and women in the project's activities, very few are interested in finding out the impact of gender within the project²⁸. Still, there are some NGOs that are responsive to gender equality. Additionally, it can be said that NGOs are the most capable actors that can raise awareness and identify deficits in the area of gender and development.

Even though there is no allocation of funds specifically for women's empowerment projects, and the twin-track approach is non-existent in the Czech ODA, there have been a number of projects focused on women. These include: PROFEMME (the promotion of women in Tambacounda diocese, Senegal) realized by Caritas Czech Republic; a project for building a centre for the victims of domestic violence in Serbia; Power for Safe Motherhood in Zambia realized by ADRA; the projects of People in Need in Cambodia, Ethiopia, Namibia and the Congo; the project I Still Want to Live realized in Ukraine by Bliss without Risk; a project in Burkina Faso realized by Humanitas Africa; a project for the Iman Women's Community Centre in Chechnya, realized by Berkat.

In the past year, gender has been put on the agenda of the national platform FoRS, and has also been named a priority theme for the Presidency project. The new Aid Watch report released by CONCORD in cooperation with FoRS, has once again recommended that the administration "formulate a distinct Gender Strategy in close cooperation with the civil society²⁹." Yet, a question remains whether these advocacy efforts of civil society will come into effect.

4. Mainstreaming Gender Issues at the Caritas Czech Republic

Caritas Czech Republic (CCR), a non-profit non-governmental organization, provides social and health services in the Czech Republic and humanitarian assistance and developmental aid abroad. In the area of foreign aid, CCR has been involved in the countries of the former Soviet bloc (Mongolia), in post-conflict zones in the North Caucasus, in the post-tsunami reconstruction areas of Indonesia and Sri Lanka, in development cooperation in Indonesia, Uganda, India, and in humanitarian aid in Senegal and Sudan³⁰. Gender equality is taken as a crosscutting issue within the projects realized by the CCR in developing countries. It would require a detailed analysis of all development projects contributing to the desired goal of gender equality to find out to what extent mainstreaming of gender is present in the workings of the organization. Such analysis is not the purpose of this paper. However, in this regard it is crucial to mention that the humanitarian assistance and development aid unit of the CCR is undergoing a gender audit, which aims to assess its gender sensitivity and devise a gender policy for the organization.

The decision to strengthen CCR's gender mainstreaming came in March 2008, with the realization of a Gender Analysis of the Agricultural Sector and the CCR *Sustainable Livelihoods in Post-Conflict Areas* Project in Sampoiniet, Indonesia. The overall objective of this project is to support the development of sustainable livelihoods in post-conflict areas in Sampoiniet. This case study aims to examine this project from a gender perspective and apply the development effectiveness principles to the project, as outlined in the Appendix.

4.1 Case Study: Project in Sampoiniet from a Gender Perspective³¹

CCR's *Sustainable Livelihoods in Post-Conflict Areas* project is being carried out in the Sampoiniet sub district of Aceh Jaya, an area located in the northern part of the island of Sumatra, Indonesia. The project began in 2008 and will

²⁷ Ondřej Horký, *Gender a rozvoj: co nás rozděluje, co nás spojuje, Gender, rovné příležitosti, výzkum, 2008.*

²⁸ *Ibid.*

²⁹ „Lighten the Load: In a time of crisis, European aid has never been more important,” *Aid Watch, Concord, 2009* http://www.concordeurope.org/Files/media/internetdocumentsENG/3_Topics/Topics/Aidwatch/AidWatch-report-2009_light.pdf.

³⁰ *Annual Report 2007, Caritas Czech Republic, http://www.charita.cz/Data/files/VZ2007/VZ_2007_AN.pdf.*

³¹ *Data presented are based on the Gender Analysis of the Agricultural Sector and CCR Sustainable Livelihoods in Post-Conflict Areas Project in Sampoiniet, on Updated Project Proposal, 2008 Annual Report of the project, and consultation with the organization.*

continue into 2009. This region of Indonesia has long been affected by a violent conflict between the central government and the Free Aceh Movement (known as GAM), a separatist group seeking independence. Beginning in the 1970s, the conflict lasted until the late 1990s, and then re-erupted again in 2003, when Martial Law was imposed on the Aceh district. The situation became a state of civil emergency. During the decades of conflict, thousands of people were killed and many human rights were violated, by way of torture, rape, individual disappearances, and murders. Human rights defenders, journalists, and aid workers were banned from the region until December 26, 2004 when an earthquake and tsunami hit the region. Eight months after the tsunami devastated the Aceh shores, a peace agreement was signed between the government and GAM. This facilitated a transition from a military to civilian life. As a result of the conflict, many challenges, including gender related problems, have surfaced.

During the conflict many women lost their families and jobs, and education became much more difficult for girls. Most families worked in agriculture at the time, but due to the conflict, the gendered division of labour changed: men stayed closer to the house, while women went to the market. Although both men and women play an important role in economic, social and family life, generally, childcare and domestic work are said to a woman's main priority; however, women's paid labor and work in agriculture is also crucial to the economic situation of the household. Men and women work a similar number of hours doing agricultural work. Men are responsible for work such as chopping down trees and working with chemical fertilizers, while women participate in more time consuming work, such as transplanting crops; additionally, every woman spends approximately five hours a day on non agricultural domestic work. The exception is widows who undertake work traditionally done by both men and women. Men control most of the household assets (with the exception of jewellery and small livestock), including the land, and thus decide what is grown on the land. Again, there is an exception with widows, who own land and can make decision even if they have an adult son. Concerning the status of widows, the gender study identified three types³². These gender aspects were incorporated into the new project proposal.

³² 3 types of widows include: 1. Conflict widows whose husbands (either combatants or civilian) died as a result of the conflict; these widows are highly respected and are looked after by the community. 2. Widows whose husbands died of non-conflict cases e.g. sickness, old age or accidents. 3. Divorced, abandoned women, or unmarried mothers; these occupy the lowest rank in the community, and are neglected by the community.

The objective of this project is "to support conflict-affected households through the return of IDPs (Internally Displaced Persons), and to restore and strengthen productive livelihood assets through the provision of agricultural and agro-forestry inputs and training." The project is now in its second phase (May 31st, 2008 until December 2009) and is up and running at 21 conflict-affected villages. The beneficiaries are the following groups: vulnerable and poor households or households that have lost significant assets due to the conflict; those who have successfully completed activities agreed in phase I of the project; those interested and willing to undergo training and capacity building activities; those who work on their land; and poor households dependent on agriculture or agro-forestry as a major source of income. The beneficiaries must undergo training in improved agricultural practices and agro-forestry, before receiving material support.

The following paragraphs assess the project's ongoing progress within the framework of the development effectiveness principles as defined in the Appendix.

Ownership

This CCR project was established due to the findings of the following analyses: the Livelihoods Needs Assessment and the Gender Analysis of the Agricultural Sector. Both of these studies were carried out with the help of local communities. The first analysis, conducted by the consulting organization Bina Swadaya, provided a full livelihood needs assessment in the 21 project villages. The latter was carried out by a team of gender consultants in four representative villages, and utilized the following methods: focused discussions with men and women's groups, village transect walks, and the gathering of secondary data from village leaders, government departments, and other organisations that have completed similar studies.

The participation of local stakeholders in the identification of the needs and gender concerns within the communities has been fundamental for the effectiveness of the development project. The gender analysis uncovered many important issues related to one's livelihood, such as the impact of conflict on men and women, the status of widows, the gendered division of labour and domestic work, the gender aspect of agricultural work, and the phenomenon of female-headed

households. As stated in the proposal, *“Gender sensitivity is an underlying theme in CCR’s livelihoods project. Results from the gender study conducted in the project area revealed gender-differentiated needs, roles and priorities, as well as inequalities in terms of livelihood opportunities and outcomes.”* On the basis of these findings, gender considerations were taken into account in the updated proposal of the project and were included in both the justification and background of the project, as well as its goals, target groups, activities.

Impact and Sustainability

Gender mainstreaming is present through out project documentation, and thus it can be assumed that the project has the potential to have a positive impact on gender equality. Training will be focused on the different needs of men and women according to their livelihood activities. The targeting of beneficiaries for project activities will seek to include vulnerable social groups, such as widows and divorcees. Gender performance indicators will be a part of the Output Monitoring of the project, and project data collection tools and reports will sort data by gender. Given the specific role of women in Acehnese society, a special effort will be made to guarantee their participation. In terms of project impact and long-term sustainability, it is important that women beneficiaries be given priority in every field, especially in participation in decision-making processes. CCR will ensure that wherever possible, it maintains an adequate number of female staff members to make this possible.

Still, it is not specified whether gender performance indicators will be assessed qualitatively, i.e. in terms of changes in gender relations. It is also not explained how the participation of vulnerable social groups will be guaranteed, whether these groups will have time for the proposed training, or whether the training and other activities will have an impact on these groups after the project ends, giving their difficult position within the society. In terms of sustainability, it is also not yet clear how men and women will utilize the material and know-how gained in their future work. Overall, it is too early to assess the long-term impacts of the project in the target group in Indonesia.

However, a lasting indirect impact of this work is expected within the CCR, as it is now making an effort to strengthen its capacity in gender mainstreaming in other projects and areas as well.

Coordination

During the implementation process, CCR will utilize its existing relationships with partners and other NGO’s that have experience in related sectors or technical areas. Technical cooperation with IDEP/GreenHand, ICRAF and PADHI will continue as well in the next phase of the project.

Partnership

CCR has been working closely with community groups in the villages in Sampoiniet, and has developed good relationships with traditional organizations and the local and/or traditional authorities related to livelihood (agriculture, agro-forestry). Partnerships, as agreed upon by CCR and households, exist when establishing Demonstration Plots.

Information Sharing and Communication

Within the management of the project, both genders are represented. The field project team consists of 1 project officer, 3 female and 4 male field officers. This team is responsible for addressing the specific needs of vulnerable woman-headed households in the project area. The need to incorporate female field officers into the project was identified by the gender analysis.

In addition, in order to ensure an effective delivery of the project, the field staff will take introductory training courses in agriculture, agro-forestry, community facilitation, gender mainstreaming, conflict management and disaster risk reduction. It can be assumed that these issues will be communicated further to the beneficiaries of the program and will have an impact in terms of gender awareness.

Besides the sustainable livelihoods project, CCR has created a livelihoods recovery project in tsunami-affected areas of Aceh Jaya district as well. According to the organization, there will be regular information sharing between these two projects.

5. Women’s Empowerment with Humanitas Africa

Humanitas Africa is a non-profit non-governmental organization that was established in Prague in 2000 as part of an African-Czech initiative. Since 2002, the organization has been involved in development cooperation projects, which focus mainly on education and women’s empowerment, in Ghana, Burkina Faso, Benin, and Kenya. Humanitas Africa is one of the few NGOs in the Czech Republic that works

specifically on projects that support women. Furthermore, the organization is committed to the empowerment of women and strives to encourage women to elevate to a socioeconomic status and increase their public involvement. This is one of the reasons this organization was selected for this case study. Using available impact assessments, the study examines a recently completed project entitled Bon Départ (A Good Start), which took place in Ouagadougou, the capital of Burkina Faso. The project will be assessed within the framework of development effectiveness and gender equality principles. First, a brief country gender profile is provided to present the necessary information needed to understand the project within a larger context. Next, the motivation of Humanitas Africa to facilitate projects in Burkina Faso is given, as well as a full description of the project and its connection to development goals. Finally, criteria of development effectiveness are applied to the project, as outlined in the Appendix.

5.1 Burkina Faso Gender Profile

Burkina Faso, being among the poorest and least developed countries in the world, holds the lowest rankings on various global indexes. The UN Human Development Index (HDI), which looks beyond GDP but does not include indicators of gender and income inequality, gives Burkina Faso a ranking of 176th out of 177 countries studied³³. As for available gender indexes, in 2008 the Gender Gap Index, published by the World Economic Forum, ranked Burkina Faso 115th out of 128 countries. The Gender Gap Index further reveals that the literacy rate in Burkina Faso is 22% for women and 37% for men; only 42% of girls and 52% of boys enrol in primary education while secondary education is attained by no more than 10% of women and 14% of men³⁴. This data reveals the existing gender disparity in terms of primary education enrolment, but also the overall extremely low literacy rate. With such a low literacy rate, Burkina Faso is clearly very far from reaching MDGs, as education is recognized as a powerful means to economic empowerment and poverty reduction.

Girls' education has been a priority in Burkina Faso since the 1995 Beijing Conference on Women. In line with this priority, a special unit within the Ministry of Basic Education, Direction for Girls' Education, was created. Furthermore, the Ministry for the Advancement of Women was created in 1997, and became the key governmental institution for the promotion of women's advancement³⁵. Yet, an in depth gender analysis of the country conducted by the Swedish development agency Sida, revealed a lack of financial support and lack of implementation in regards to the policies that support the promotion of women³⁶. The subordinate position of women and girls within the family is preserved by the traditional values and norms of the largely Muslim population, especially in the rural areas. These traditional constraints have a substantial effect on the lower level of educational attainment and the higher rate of illiteracy seen in girls and women. This then directly impacts female public involvement.

Although, there seems to be some signs of this changing, especially in urban areas where close to 50% of women are literate. Still, men constitute the majority, 81.7%, of formal employment (employment covered by work and social security laws either in the public sector as a civil servant or in the private sector as an employee), as opposed to the 18.3% of women. Women are usually confined to poorly paid informal employment, such as small trade or the processing and selling of food³⁶. Nevertheless, women consistently strive to improve their situation and standing within the family structure and local society, by appearing to adhering to the gender norms of their society, but diverging from those norms in actual practice³⁶. As a way ahead, the author of the Sida gender analysis suggests "*development intervention therefore should aim at strengthening women's bargaining positions within families and societies by making incomes and knowledge more accessible for them*"³⁷. The following case study of the project Bon Départ serves as an example of such a development.

³³ The HDI provides a composite measure of three dimensions of human development: living a long and healthy life (measured by life expectancy), being educated (measured by adult literacy and enrolment at the primary, secondary and tertiary level) and having a decent standard of living (measured by purchasing power parity, PPP, income). Gender related index is provided separately. Further information at http://hdrstats.undp.org/countries/country_fact_sheets/cty_fs_BFA.html

³⁴ Gender Gap Report, World Economic Forum, 2008, <http://www.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap/report2008.pdf>

³⁵ CEDAW Country Report, 2004

³⁶ Sigrun Helmfrid, *Towards Gender Equality in Burkina Faso*, SIDA, March 2004

³⁷ *Ibid.*

5.2 Case Study: Project Bon Départ in Burkina Faso³⁸

Bon Départ - Vocational Training Centre for Young Women was a small-scale project realized by Humanitas Africa in 2007 and 2008 in the urban part of Ouagadougou, the capital of Burkina Faso. The project idea was the vision of one member of Humanitas Africa who had lived in this region of Africa for three decades.³⁹ According to the organization, the decision to focus solely on the empowerment of women was a matter of North-South solidarity among women. In addition to this, in the context of global development goals, the project was designed to support MDG 3, which seeks women's empowerment and gender equality. At the same time, the high probability of available funds for such a project played a certain role during the decision making process.

The project was realized with the support of the Regional Partnership Programme in cooperation with Austrian partner Berufspädagogischer Institut Mödling. The primary goal of Bon Départ was to enable young women to attain further education in order to be able to find jobs in the labour market. The project was targeted at literate women from very poor backgrounds between the ages of 18 - 25, who for certain reason failed to complete their education. These women were from Muslim families that traditionally give preference to male education and employment. As explained by the organization, due to this, women have unequal educational and employment opportunities, men dominate administrative positions in the public sector as well as in the private sphere, and, in comparison to women, have better access to modern technology. The project aim was to reduce the unequal opportunities by providing women with further formal education and thus with the possibility to be employed in the modern sector of the economy.

The following paragraphs assess the Bon Départ project within the framework of the development effectiveness principles as defined in the Appendix.

Ownership

From the beginning, Bon Départ was based on a cultural understanding of the local communities. As already mentioned, the creator of the project has had a long-term first hand experience with the people and their way of life. Furthermore, it appears that the project's overall objective of women's empowerment was adjusted to the local context.

The organization defined women's empowerment primarily in economic terms, that is having a regular income, thus gaining self-confidence and being able to support, often, large families. For some women, this economic freedom was crucial to secure their independence and allow them to leave their violent husbands.

Additionally, the local communities were involved in the design and implementation of the project. Their involvement was most important in the identification of suitable participants and during the preparation of the educational module, which was a collaboration between Czech, Austrian and Burkina partners. Preparatory workshops were held in January 2007 with local stakeholders, namely the representative of the Ministry of Education and women's organizations and employers, and further consultation took place concerning the content of the module, which was to be designed to reflect local needs. Identification of the women participants took place also in close cooperation with local schools, women's organizations, and other NGOs.

Partnership

The project was designed in close cooperation with the Austrian partner, Berufspädagogischer Institut Mödling, who is experienced in vocational education. As for local partners, there were ultimately two schools, Institut Supérieur de Technologies (IST) and Ecole de Formation et d'Etudes Commerciales (EFEC), both of which signed a formal contract with Humanitas Africa, making a commitment to provide qualified teachers, take part in formulation of the educational module, provide classes for the training and be actively involved in the project management.

The educational program was partially based on a curriculum created by Berufspädagogischer Institut Mödling that is used in Austria to train administrative officials. However, this module was changed accordingly to support the goals of the Bon Départ project. Experts with knowledge pertaining to the different areas of the study course created working groups to design lessons. The project manager coordinated their work. In addition, partnership with employers was crucial in the design of the education. They provided insight into what skills were necessary to make the women employable and also provided the project participants with the opportunity of an internship within their company, which for some women lead to an offer of formal employment. Partnership, and

³⁸ Data presented are largely based on the Final Report of the project issued in January 2009 and on the interview with Zdislava Kratenova

³⁹ Ondřej Horký, *Gender a rozvoj: co nás rozděluje, co nás spojuje*, Gender, rovné příležitosti, výzkum, 2008

specifically collaboration with women's organizations, played a significant role also during the recruitment of local women. Furthermore, the project manager made contacts within the local employment office and advertised Bon Départ courses through this venue. In total, 90 prospective women were selected for the courses.

Impact and Sustainability

The certificate of completion of a Bon Départ course is the key product of the project that has created an impact and guarantees sustainability of the project's outcomes. The project was targeted at young women who failed to complete their education, and the goal of their retraining these women is viewed by the organization an important step to reduce the country's poverty and combat the unequal access to education and employment opportunities that women face.

The vocational training was adjusted to the local needs and requirements of employers, and consisted of computer courses, office management, introduction to marketing and organizational management, and general courses (communication techniques, general study of the institutional system, social security etc.). The training was completed by all but 2 participants. Immediately after the project, 36% of the women found a new job. It is very likely that today the number is much higher. Some women continued in their internship, others now work as administrative assistants in private companies or public offices. Still others applied for micro-credit to become small entrepreneurs (starting internet cafés, soap production companies, among others), while others are still searching for employment.

Thus, the immediate impact of the project is that 36% of women who participated in the training and have received a certificate upon completion of the final examination now earn a regular income. Through income generation they have managed to improve their lives and the lives of their families. The project helped to decrease the poverty of about 30 women (in many cases these women have children and are lacking the support of their families; or often are without a partner).

Although the project provided the participants with new certified skills, new self-confidence, and new motivation for further education, the sustainability of the project itself has been left uncertain. The project strengthened the capacity of local schools involved in the project through the new educational programs that were developed; yet, there is no continuation of the project at this moment. Humanitas Africa

is currently fundraising to be able to continue project Bon Départ, and hopes to start new courses in the academic year 2009/2010. According to Humanitas Africa, when continued emphasis will be given on a longer internship - 3 months instead of 1 month - as employers require more experience before hiring a new employee.

Coordination

Humanitas Africa coordinated this project with an Austrian organization that has been involved in vocational education in Burkina Faso for over 40 years. Women's organizations participated in the project as well. Due to the specific focus of the project Bon Départ the coordination of activities with other NGOs was not really suitable for this project. According to Humanitas Africa, there are many other NGOs from the North working in Burkina Faso on women projects, however, they are mainly working in rural areas and their goals are to increase the level of basic education. In contrast, Humanitas Africa focused on the empowerment of literate women in the urban area, concentrating on their vocational education, which would enable them to find new employment opportunities largely in the private or public sectors.

Information Sharing and Communication

Throughout the course of this project, information was shared among the parties involved. The project manager, who spent 13 months in Burkina Faso, closely cooperated with local experts and the Austrian partners during the coordination of activities, as well as the evaluation of outcomes and other issues related to the project management. Key preparations for the educational module was not only carried out by a team of local teachers, but also utilized the opinions and experiences of all parties involved, including the Austrian partner organization.

6. Conclusions

The purpose of this paper has been to reflect on the work of two Czech NGOs in terms of their contribution to the effectiveness of development and global development goals, while giving a specific focus to the issue of gender. It can be concluded that both projects, the Sustainable Livelihood project of the Caritas Czech Republic in Indonesia and Bon Départ project of Humanitas Africa in Burkina Faso, have to a certain extent broadened the capacity and ability to add to the effectiveness of development cooperation and to the global goals of greater gender equality and women's empowerment.

Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

Concerning the principle of **ownership**, both projects have been based on the needs of the beneficiaries and on the understanding of the local culture, as local communities have been involved with the design of the projects. The women's empowerment project, Bon Départ, adjusted their goals to work within a local context by focusing on the economic empowerment of women. Likewise, the Sustainable Livelihood project has reflected the needs and gender concerns of the community as identified by local stakeholders. These concerns include the different impacts of conflict on men and women, the status of widows, gender-differentiated needs, roles, and priorities, among others. Overall, both projects adjusted to the local gender context and reflected the local needs. This is fundamental to the success of the projects in terms of development effectiveness and the global development goals.

Regarding **impact and sustainability**, the ongoing project Sustainable Livelihoods includes gender as a crosscutting issue, incorporates gender concerns in the project's activities, and sets gender performance indicators within its target groups. The project has the potential to improve the effectiveness of development and to contribute to the MDGs. However, it is too early to say how men and women will utilize the materials and knowledge gained. Due to this it is not yet possible to evaluate the project's long-term impact and sustainability. To find out whether the project has had a positive impact on gender equality, a qualitative evaluation of the project's effect on gender relations will be needed at the end of the project cycle to complement the quantitative data. The Bon Départ project has ensured its impact by providing women with a certificate of completion of the vocational education course. 36% of women immediately found a new job after the training, and it is very likely that since the completion of the project even more women have gained employment. It would seem that the project has had an impact on gender relations as it has allowed for women's empowerment in terms of self-confidence and economic independence and access to modern technologies. In this way, the project is also in line with the development goal of women's empowerment and poverty reduction. However, the long-term sustainability of the project has been left unresolved. So far vocational education has not been continued by NGOs or the local schools involved in the project, despite the fact that their capacity has been strengthened, as new educational modules have been developed.

Partnership seems to be a significant element in both projects. Within the Sustainable Livelihoods project, a strong relationship was established with community groups of the villages and with the local authorities involved in agriculture and agro-forestry. For the Bon Départ project, partnership was crucial in all of its phases: in partnership with an Austrian NGO that was highly experienced in vocational training, with local schools and employers, as well as women's NGOs that helped recruit local women for the training.

As for the principle of **coordination**, during the implementation of the project Sustainable Livelihoods, partners and other NGOs working on similar problems in this area will work together. As for the Bon Départ project, the coordination of activities with other NGOs, besides the partner organizations, was not needed due to the specific focus of the project on vocational education of literate women in the capital of Burkina Faso. According to Humanitas Africa, Bon Départ is unique in its focus, as the majority of other NGOs from the North concentrate on basic education in the rural areas of Burkina Faso.

In the Sustainable Livelihoods project, gender sensitivity is visible when looking at the project field team, which, as a result of the recommendations of the gender analysis, includes 3 female officers who address the specific needs of vulnerable women-headed households. Moreover, introductory training in gender mainstreaming, agriculture and other project issues will be provided for the field staff. Frequent **communication and information sharing** among the parties involved was a standard feature of the Bon Départ project. Due to the nature of the project, which included preparation of a new education program by a team of teachers from different schools, efficient communication has been crucial for the success of the project.

The Role of CSOs

As the two case studies demonstrate, the roles of the NGOs that have carried out these projects in the field are important for development effectiveness. In terms of gender issues, both Humanitas Africa and CCR, through their projects, have contributed to more effective development cooperation by providing an enabling environment for women to be empowered and making progress in terms of gender equality. Considering their performance in development efforts, their role as a part of civil society seems indispensable in reaching overall global goals, as well as the goals of the Czech development cooperation. Moreover, the two case studies have illustrated some of the deficiencies on the side of CSOs,

which is also important to evaluate in order to achieve successful development.

The gender analysis of the CCR project in Indonesia revealed the fundamental need for mainstreaming gender equality throughout a project cycle, and provided new incentives for the CCR to include gender issues in their future work. It is likely that the planned gender policy and other upcoming activities of CCR will raise awareness among other Czech development actors, highlighting the gender related deficiencies on both the governmental and non-governmental levels. Similarly, the project of Humanitas Africa, being one of the few projects centred on women's empowerment, can serve as an example for the Czech development

community. So far, the twin-track approach to gender mainstreaming is not followed in the Czech ODA, despite the need in the developing world to include more specific measures to promote and empower women. In conclusion, as illustrated in this study, the role of civil society in Czech development and the promotion of gender equality is irreplaceable.

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Appendix

What Do you Think is the Most Important Aspect/Factor of Development Effectiveness - of Successful Development Cooperation?⁴⁰

OWNERSHIP:

- Involvement of local communities in the conception and implementation of projects, based on cultural understanding (*Were local communities really involved in project design? How?*)
- Focus on the needs of developing countries and not on donor priorities (*What priority level do gender issues have among local people - men, women?*)
- Participation of beneficiaries in the identification of needs and in project design (*Who had the project idea? Who identified / recognized the needs?*)
- Cooperation/participation/ownership with the communities

PARTNERSHIP:

- Partnerships and cooperation between NGOs in the Czech Republic and the EU with other CSOs and with national/government institutions
- Communication with local partners about their needs (*Is there any flexibility in project design to allow appropriate reaction on evolving needs?*)

IMPACT AND SUSTAINABILITY:

- Focus on sustainability, gender equality, and impact (*What is the probability that positive effects will continue after project completion? Are there some links between the improved situation of some beneficiaries /like women addressed by gender projects/ and worsened situation of other groups?*)
- Evaluation of development projects and work (*Are there any evaluations on these projects? Who carry them out? Are the results published - where and how?*)

- Impact orientation (*What is the expected impact of the projects? Is it realistic?*)
- Coherence between development policies and aid in general
- Sustainability after the end of the projects themselves
- Positive (structural) social changes

COORDINATION:

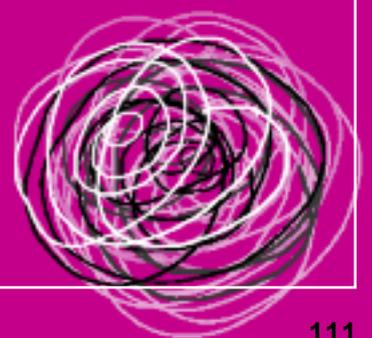
- Coordination of NGO activities (*Are there some cooperating NGOs in the project region or sector?*)

INFORMATION SHARING AND COMMUNICATION:

- Good and reliable information sources (*Are there significant gaps between official statistics or reports and real situation in the field?*)
- Knowledge of the situation on the ground (*Who are the key information sources?*)
- Sharing information, expertise and experience within the involved organizations (*Are the project reports openly published? Are the results discussed with local stakeholders?*)
- Communication with partners (*Who is responsible for what in project management, monitoring and reporting?*)

⁴⁰ Priority principles identified by the participants of the FoRS Presidency Project CSO Development Effectiveness at the Inception Seminar on 18 November 2008; questions were added by the author.

Good Governance



Why Good Governance and Democratic Dialogue Matter to Development



Veronika Divišová | People in Need

Introduction

In 2000, 191 United Nations member states pledged to fulfil a set of key goals (the Millennium Development Goals) for poverty reduction and sustainable development by the year 2015. In the Millennium Declaration, the UN member states agreed to “*spare no effort to promote democracy and strengthen the rule of law, as well as respect for all internationally recognized human rights and fundamentals freedoms, including the right to development*”¹.

The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005) raises demands broadly related to the issue of good governance, such as transparency, ownership and accountability. The Accra Agenda for Action (2008) produces a greater challenge for governance in developing countries when demanding focus on issues such as strengthening country leadership of development programmes, effective use of country systems and increasing accountability for results, especially in terms of gender equality, human rights and environmental sustainability². Recent researches as well as strategic decisions of some donors open debate the role of democratic governance and democratic ownership in reaching effective delivery of development aid³.

The introduction of new aid modalities by the European Union and other donors has provoked discussion regarding the legitimacy of posing conditionality on the recipient countries in order to inspire strengthening of democratic governance.

Donor institutions, international bodies, governments and politicians from both ends of the development cooperation partnership possess key influence on defining international aid strategies and the extent of involving democracy and democratic governance support. Nevertheless, civil society groups have been extensively involved in many levels of development cooperation in practice – policy, advocacy and lobbying, programming, programme implementation, development education and development awareness etc.

1. Purpose and Methodology

The purpose of this contribution is to debate the role of democracy support and democratic governance in development cooperation. More particularly, it aims to explain the effect of democracy support and democratic governance on the effectiveness of aid.

¹ United Nations: 55/2. United Nations Millennium Declaration, Resolution adopted by the General Assembly, 2000. www.un.org

² Accra Agenda for Action: Document endorsed by the High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness, Accra, 2008.

³ See for example: Katie Wright, *Fostering Democratic Ownership, Alliance2015*, 2008; *Freedom from Oppression*, Ministry for Foreign Affairs Sweden, 2008; *For Democratic Governance*, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, France, 2003; European Commission. *Issues Paper: Towards an European Consensus on governance in development cooperation*, 2006; Carlos Santiso, *Good Governance and Aid Effectiveness: The World Bank and Conditionality*, 2001.

This paper is focusing on the level of development cooperation programming by all development actors. The content of the study is drawn from conclusions of a focus discussion “Development Cooperation and Mainstreaming of Human Rights and Democracy,” which took place on March 9th, 2009 within the international conference on “Building Consensus about EU Policies on Democracy Support” organized by the Czech Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the European Commission, European Partnership for Democracy (EPD) and the Czech Association for Democracy Assistance and Human Rights (DEMAS).

The discussants (panel and plenum) included professionals with key focus on democracy support as well as professionals with key focus on development cooperation. Some representatives combined both roles. The participants were members of governmental agencies, international bodies, implementing agencies of development aid and democracy support programmes, and national and European politicians.

2. Findings

The findings are organized around key questions and topics identified during the above mentioned discussion.

Is Development about Democracy?

While terminology and methodology are different, the final objective is proclaimed to be the same: a better life for people living in developing and non democratic countries. The discussion was opened by a wide statement that democracy assistance cannot be done without politics, and politics that is not partisan, is not politics.

In this respect, the need to support parliaments, political parties and political leaders was stressed. There are series of commitments on sustainable development and MDGs - but one goal in MDG is missing: the one of democracy and democratic governance, unless it becomes the centre of all our actions. Mainstreaming democracy, democratization and human rights needs to be reactivated and focused on and integrated into development practice.

Power-analysis is needed to recognize the power and structures of the society. Based on that, better influence on and contribution to change can be achieved. The role of parliaments and parliamentarians should be in the limelight,

and as such the politicians need a lot of capacity building, and the support to institutions must be more effective and accountable.

Incentives and Conditionality

A distinction was made between incentivizing democracy and incentivizing democratic governance, the latter being a much wider concept. Democratic governance is incentivizing the dialogue and vice versa. Financial allocations towards the target countries can be used as a step in incentivizing the dialogue. Government action plans (of the target countries) are then evaluated (and created) in this dialogue.

In development cooperation, a negotiated relationship exists between donors and the partner countries. Democracy should be a central element in this relationship. The European Union as the world’s largest (development) donor has major leverage for incentivizing democratic governance. A principle of contractualism should be used by the European Union to incentivize democratic governance binding partner countries towards applying effective democratic governance throughout delivery of development programmes financed by the European Union and beyond. Evaluation of the results should be a reflective process - it should enable discussion and further development.

Aid conditionality regarding democratic governance should be applied in a “soft” form. Governance reforms may be easier to achieve through peer processes mediated by regional organizations, such as African Union.

Preparation of any budget support needs to be more focused, picking up the themes to be supported in democratic culture and based on close work with media and civil society organizations around a particular part of the budget.

Civil Society

The democratic service delivery process takes a long time and must involve the local community and all relevant stakeholders.

Why should democracy support be linked to poverty eradication? The answers gave three reasons: firstly development is not only about economic development, but about having a voice as poverty also means to be powerless; secondly democracy is popular, people want to live in democracy and to have freedom; and thirdly democratic

politics is the best way to sustain the benefits, to mediate the achievements.

Active and inclusive democracies must be built on a broad active citizenship, inclusive for all, not neglecting gender, disadvantaged and marginalized groups. Also the process itself should be continuously stressed as opposed to just moments (e.g. the moment of elections). The discussion concluded in pointing out five opportunities and challenges in this respect: Movement towards democratic service division; just budgets; just politics as broad political processes; women's political empowerment; and democratic local government as the fundamental opportunity to enable citizens to be included at the political level.

The key for promoting democratization should be to do so through civil society, through the support for building a civil society.

3. Conclusions

Summary of Effectiveness Aspects

Effectiveness of international aid efforts is in the forefront of democracy and good governance monitoring, protection and promotion. Development practitioners cannot reach sustainable development impacts without taking into consideration policy and governance issues; and politicians and democracy supporters cannot succeed without considering development context in the given country or region.

Screening international aid programming for effectiveness with regard to poverty reduction must naturally include a check of democracy, democratization and human rights mainstreaming.

New aid modalities play a key role in efforts for greater development effectiveness. They will, however, only meet their purpose if democratic governance and dialogue are ensured throughout the respective development cooperation programmes and beyond. Incentivizing democratic governance and dialogue is fully justified to achieve effectiveness.

Role of CSOs

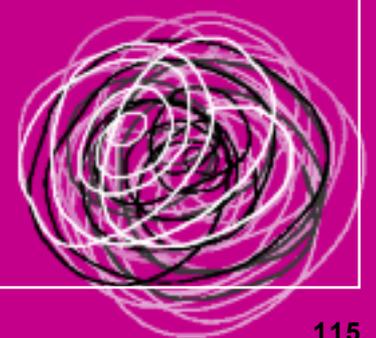
Involvement of civil society constitutes a goal as well as a means of development cooperation delivery. Understanding and application of the principles of democratic governance

and dialogue must be ensured throughout civil society building programmes and programmes implemented by civil society. Effective mainstreaming of democracy, democratization and human rights applies to all actions by civil society in development cooperation.

The process of building inclusive democracies in the form of active citizenship represents a major role for civil society organizations. Specific tasks may include working towards empowerment of marginalized groups and facilitation of democratic dialogue and of greater civic participation in decision-making as well as in evaluation of the governments' actions.

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Case Studies Summary



Development Effectiveness

– Searching New Ways



Daniel Svoboda | Development Worldwide

The Czech Forum for Development Cooperation (FoRS), a NGO platform from a new EU member state has as early as in 2007 agreed to focus its efforts during the Czech Presidency of the EU Council on active involvement in the global discussion on aid and development effectiveness.

The topic of development effectiveness of the civil society organizations (CSOs) has been supported by most FoRS members and many of them actively contributed to the joint Presidency project. The two years of discussions have given us a unique opportunity to clarify many perspectives on understanding the success aspects of our projects and actions, yet new challenges are emerging all the time. Maybe our conclusion that sometimes there is more than one right answer (while sometimes there is no answer or suitable solution at all) is just the key message and also a proof of our true dedication to the results of our work.

Development cannot be bought in donors' supermarkets. No clearance sales, no free samples and no subsidized trials can help either. The success of development does not simply depend only on the amount of money, or on quality or speed of the development aid. The critical factors of development are sustainable and developing systems, open and predictable relations, and clear responsibility for oneself and others. We should not forget the doubts, the search for answers, and the changes which make any improvement possible. And the most important factors are people, their attitudes and relationships.

Within the FoRS Presidency project, we tried to look at some development initiatives from broader perspective, discover our true role within them, and identify the most essential factors deciding about success or failure, i.e. about the impacts of our projects on the developing world and their sustainability.

When we were discussing the project work with the FoRS platform members, we intentionally resisted their requests to set the effectiveness criteria in advance as we did not want to limit their personal reflections and self-reflections. Before starting to write the studies included in this publication, the members were asked only few relatively simple questions:

- What do you do in the development cooperation and *why*?
- Are you able to identify the most essential elements of your approach and practice?
- What is in your opinion the specific role of CSOs and where do you see their greatest value added?
- Could any part of your experience be generalized?

Over time, dozens of additional questions sprung up, new contexts were discovered and the discussion became quite fierce at times. We had to clarify our understanding of the topic to each other and by doing so over and over, we exercised the main, albeit forgotten principles of effectiveness which is ***mutual communication*** and ***patience***.

We received more case studies from development practice than we had expected (and they were also longer than we

had expected). Most of them well describe the specific development projects, some of them provide an insightful analysis of particular areas of the development cooperation and we also included a policy statement of one of the working groups.

Even though our original intention was to present all our experience with development project effectiveness by means of case studies, we finally decided to include all contributions to use their diversity and contrast.

The studies also bring another interesting reflection: while we are usually capable to explain and defend our projects and their results from the professional perspective, we identified our inexperience with describing the real life and underestimating our own opinions and feelings. There is actually not much to be surprised about – during the decades of various totalitarian regimes, independent opinion clearly marked an enemy (an old anecdote on self-censorship says: “*Of course I have my own opinion, but I principally disagree with it.*”), while expression of feelings was considered a weakness. Quite sadly, the current European climate full of proclamations which are not to be discussed does not spur the growth of personalities and human feelings, either.

Even today, there are still situations where we repeat “acceptable truths” and general statements, rather than not being afraid to say simple things like: “*the most important thing was to look in their eyes and listen to them carefully.*” We are often unable to recognize and accept problems or admit our own mistakes or lack of knowledge. However, solutions can be found and development can take place only after we recognize the mistakes and causes of the identified problems. And the development cooperation is above all focused at solving problems!

We are also incapable of defending our position, we are underestimating our own experience and we often wait to be directed or shift our decisions on someone else. **Self-confidence** could thus be another principle to be strengthened above all with new donors and partners in the development countries.

Some studies also clearly document the importance of international commitments. In many cases, the principles of CSO effectiveness are confronted with the Millennium Development Goals or the Paris declaration on aid effectiveness. At the same time, they clearly ask for deeper connection between the commitments and the reality of

development world and for a shift from technocratic approaches to a true interest in human beings and their elementary human rights.

Despite all the mentioned limitations and formal diversity, all the studies included in this publication are worth reading and thinking about. Many of them do not frequently mention the words “civil society” or “effectiveness”; I nonetheless remain convinced that the key principles of CSO development effectiveness are becoming apparent. At this point, I do not intend to propose new definitions, formulate commitments and seek individual indicators. I will instead mention several motifs which apply to all our case studies. And I wonder if you identified the same ones...

1. The Key Aspects of Development Effectiveness

The development cooperation has no sense or effect without the **grassroots knowledge**, analysis of real needs and motivations, understanding people and the broader context.

The target groups and local actors must **participate** from the very beginning; the donor or partner from the developed country cannot think, act or live on their behalf. **Democratic ownership** is not achieved by formal takeover of project outputs, but by identification with the choice of priorities, goals and procedures of the development intervention. The donors and CSOs must focus on **facilitation** of local ownership and participation and discontinue the practice of uncritical implementation of own values and opinions.

The long-term effectiveness of development is conditioned by **systemic changes** in national and global approaches and by targeted **support of excluded and marginalized groups** including the removal of cultural or generational barriers.

Without politeness, respect, empathy and commitment to mutual understanding, the development **partnership** cannot be effective. The roles and motivations of actors must be clear and accepted by both sides. Partnership is a long-term process and relationships and capacities need to be developed and maintained.

The objective of development lies in achieving and multiplication of local positive impacts and their **sustainability** within the broader **context** of a given country, sector, location or target group. An isolated project or project not respecting

the appropriateness of solution to local needs or the **good governance** principles with citizen participation cannot change much. It is thus necessary to strengthen the relationships within communities, between regions, sectors and actors, but also between the policies and real life.

Each development actor should bear personal **responsibility** – towards himself as well as others – as regards the transparency and predictability of the decision-making mechanisms or in relationship to reporting the achievements of the development cooperation. The personal interest and openness of partnership are close categories which include the sharing of information, experience, doubts, ideas and the art to reaching or not reaching a consensus.

2. The Role of Civil Society Organizations

The most specific role of CSOs mentioned was the **direct work with communities and marginalized groups** which lie outside of the interests of government due to geographical reasons (rural areas) or their traditionally disadvantaged position (women, ethnical minorities, old and handicapped people, but also local civic organizations). The CSOs demonstrate a true interest in the lives of these people, listen to their worries, live and work with them and they are often the first or the only actors who help boost their motivation and self-confidence. Direct work with communities also brings the benefits of deep knowledge of local conditions, issues, needs and roles.

The CSOs also often fill a gap in **delivering basic services** (above all social and health care, health protection or education) or help with the insufficient infrastructure (water or power supplies, sanitation, schools and training centres, health centres etc.).

An important task is **building local capacities** and **facilitating cooperation** with local authorities and other organizations. Various forms of partnership and networking, educational activities and demonstrations of successful procedures and techniques are developed by the CSOs.

Other tasks of CSOs include **advocacy for the most needed**, lobbying on their behalf and dissemination of information about their problems and needs. The recent time has seen a notable shift from original advocacy of the highest risk groups to support their own self-confidence and self-fulfilment. In this context it is necessary to note

that **direct participation** is part of the transformation process – effective and sustainable solution must be always based on the society and only seldom can be introduced from outside.

We should not forget the ability of CSOs to find alternative and **complementary sources of financing** on local and international level (aimed at securing new livelihood opportunities and financing in the target region or co-financing of projects and programs from private sources).

Probably the most important aspect differentiating the CSOs is their integral connection with the civil society. This aspect makes them directly **responsible to the citizens** for positive effects on the target groups. This responsibility cannot be substituted by the most sophisticated reporting system for donors. It is essential that this way of **managing for results**, i.e. the accent on impacts for the target groups, became the cornerstone of all future development policies, strategies and programs.

3. Enabling Environment

The third area explored by the case studies is the enabling environment allowing or complicating the effective work of CSOs.

The most successful are development interventions based on **trust** between the donor and project implementing organization. It comes without saying that such trust must be based on **mutual responsibility** (related to timely and transparent decisions and operational financing on the donor side and effective and transparent use of the provided resources on the organization's side) and also on commonly understood fact that outcomes are the purpose of the intervention. Administrative barriers unfortunately still often lead to monitoring quantitative indicators of development activities instead of quantitative and qualitative changes in the lives of target groups, which should be the focal point.

The limiting factor is often also the fear of *failure*, both on the CSO and the donor side. There is *no universal formula* for poverty alleviation and development effectiveness needs to incorporate learning from successes as well as failures. **Open communication, sharing of the best practices, learning from mistakes and attention paid to impact evaluation** are the key success factors of the development cooperation.

In addition to the moral support through building mutual trust and open communication, it is of course essential to secure **political support** (adequate legal framework and suitable tools) and **financial support**. It is clear that the financial resources for development cooperation are not generated by administrative machinery of donor institutions, but come from the taxes and incomes of the citizens. Civil Society Organizations should thus have the right and responsibility to participate in their effective use for the benefit of the citizens on our planet. A significant share on co-financing the projects from the CSO side, i.e. their ability to gain trust and voluntary financial support directly from the citizens, confirms their mandate of important and equal actor in the field of development cooperation.



I would finally like to thank all participants of the FoRS Presidency project for their open approach to reviewing their own development activities. I do believe that the shared experience and discussions have helped us all to realize the true motivators for our work and contributed to finding new ways for the most effective reduction of inequalities on our planet. A few case studies can not have an ambition to change the world. However, they can at least somehow help to change the thinking and approaches of actors on the development field. The fabric of development is woven from people, their lives and mutual communication. No technology, administrative measure or financial intervention can relieve the problems of developing world without improvement in interpersonal relations.

Daniel Svoboda, Development Worldwide

Daniel is active in the fields of environment protection and development cooperation with a special focus on Project Cycle Management and Development Evaluation. He is currently Chairman of the civic association Development Worldwide (DWW) and also a Vice-President of IDEAS - International Development Evaluation Association. He closely cooperates with the NGDO platform FoRS - Czech Forum for Development Cooperation and with the CONCORD - European NGO Confederation for Relief and Development (including representation in the Global Facilitation Group on CSO Development Effectiveness).

His international working experience covers many countries, in particular Slovakia, Lithuania, Latvia, Hungary, Romania, Austria and Belgium in Europe; Bosnia and Herzegovina in Balkan region; India, Tanzania, South Africa, Palestine, Malaysia and Vietnam in developing world.

Prague Conference Proclamation

Prague, 23 - 24 June 2009

Rationale and Background

In 2005, governments and donors confirmed in the Paris Declaration their commitments to increasing aid effectiveness. The Paris Declaration became an important document which frames some critical challenges to existing models of development cooperation and sets out principles to address them. For the past few years, CSOs, donors, governments and other development actors have been discussing and monitoring progress in implementing the Paris Declaration.

At the same time, donors and governments raised the question of whether the principles of the Paris Declaration can also be applied to civil society organisations. In the period preceding the Third High Level Forum in Accra (September 2008), CSOs in intensive consultations agreed that the Paris Declaration is relevant, but not applicable to CSOs for three main reasons:

- It does not reflect CSO priorities and the many diverse roles of CSOs in development,
- CSOs were not involved in negotiations and thus ownership was not ensured,
- CSOs want to measure themselves against “development effectiveness”, and not “aid effectiveness”.

While advocating donors to adopt a more holistic and ambitious aid effectiveness agenda that takes into account human rights, democracy, gender equality and focuses on reducing poverty and inequalities, and environmental sustainability CSOs

began to reflect on their own principles of effectiveness and about their specific roles in development. In June 2008, they launched the Open Forum for CSO Development Effectiveness. CSOs welcome that donors and governments recognized this process in the Accra Agenda for Action and committed to engage in it (enabling environment).

CSO representatives from Africa, Asia, Australasia, Europe, Latin America, and North America met in Prague, Czech Republic in June 2009 for the conference on “CSO Development Effectiveness” to discuss effectiveness principles in the context of concrete development experience. The conference was open to other development actors and thus brought evidence that joint discussion and sharing of experience across sectors and regions is a key assumption for successful cooperation at local and international level.

Prague Conference Proclamation

Conference participants concur that the added value of the CSOs in development cooperation is, among others, based on four particular aspects:

1. Access and commitment to use grassroots knowledge of local conditions, contexts and motivations
2. Sensibility to human rights, understanding and empathy
3. Genuine partnership based on common vision and interests
4. Diversity of actors in terms of legal status, size, experiences or roles

In order to harness the added value of CSOs for increased development impact, **conference participants commit to discuss and explore within the Open Forum how CSOs relate to the following principles:**

In the field of Grassroots Knowledge:

- Democratic ownership (all key stakeholders must be involved already in the preparation of development strategies, programs and projects)
- Full participation and inclusiveness (development cannot be imposed, full participation of target groups and local partners is essential)
- Building on existing and emerging processes (catalyst of development processes and structures already alive in grassroots organisations and communities)
- Recognition and understanding of all contexts as unique and consideration for linkages and consequences (interventions cannot succeed as stand-alone projects, disregarding the external environment)
- Facilitating consensus on development priorities (with the aim to enhance the relevance of development programs, projects and advocacy actions)
- Willingness to take initiative and risk (to respond to emerging needs)

In the field of Human Rights, Understanding and Empathy:

- Focus on all human rights and human dignity (social, economic, cultural, civil and political rights are at the core of development)
- Frank communication and careful listening to partners and other actors (true discussions and sensitivity to intercultural relations must replace one-way monologues and empty proclamations)
- Communicating own experiences and lessons learned (practical experience must be communicated both within the team and among partners, universal theorems cannot be relied on)
- Mutual understanding and respect (not only understanding the conditions and opinions of the target groups, but also sharing experience and positions of the partners)
- Promoting gender equality and advocating to address the causes of vulnerability (not only advocating for the vulnerable and excluded but supporting their own efforts to claim their rights and creating environment where their voices are responded to)
- Challenging systems and structures that promote or condone inequality and discrimination in any form (and at any level - global, national or local)

- Solidarity among civil society activists and organizations (including support to human rights defenders)

In the field of Genuine Partnership:

- Mutual transparency and predictability (reliability and trust is a precondition for real partnership)
- Division of roles and joint/mutual responsibility and accountability (beside accountability towards donors, responsibility towards target groups - citizens must be strengthened)
- Facilitation and mediation of cross-sectoral cooperation (many actors share the same or similar objectives that cannot be reached but jointly)
- Sustainability (both development projects and development partnerships must be based on the principle of sustainability and not on conditionalities from one side, mutual capacity development and nurturing the partnership is a key assumption)
- Making explicit our own basic assumptions while respecting those of others (consciousness of how the differences influence our approach to development)
- Emphasis on good governance principles and on systemic changes (building a democratic environment is a means for active engagement of citizens)

In the field of Diversity of Actors:

- Respect for the diversity of CSOs (diversity in terms of missions and actions rather than diversity in terms of legal status)
- Mutual support between small and big, new and old, developed and developing CSOs (factors related to size, history, location or financial turnover must not be used to discriminate against certain CSOs)
- Mutual cooperation and sharing of best practices (even new or small CSOs can have significant experience from specific regions or with a specific topic)
- Combination and complementarity of different roles (CSOs act as donors, service providers, managers of projects and programs, advocates of the poor, watch dogs, facilitators of new ways of cooperation and supporters of changes)
- Readiness to propose and discuss new development cooperation frameworks (issues of predictability, transparency as well as flexibility, accountability for results and impacts and not for activities only, respect to human rights and focus on inclusiveness must be projected into a new development cooperation architecture)



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