

ANNEX 1 ORGANISATION OF CITY LINKAGES

The term *City linkage* either implies a formalised linkage, a friendship linkage, or a project-based co-operation between a Dutch and a foreign municipality or region (VNG, 2001). This linkage may be established by a Dutch local government or by a civil society initiative in the municipality, as long as the initiative is structural and supported by the municipality. City linkages are often, but not always, a form of *twinning*.

In case of *city twinning* (*sister municipalities* or *jumelage*) there is usually a formal agreement, while the aim is to establish a society-wide co-operation (public sector, private sector and civil society). These linkages may have a historical background (“Hanseatic cities” in Europe), are of indefinite duration and are generally based on equality and reciprocity.

Friendship relations also involve formal agreements, though these can be of definite duration. Although the aim is to establish this relation society-wide, most friendship relations only involve civil society and the public sector. The relation between partners may be unequal to some extent. Reciprocity is something that is strived for, but it is not always realistic (for example, in relations that are primarily motivated by principles of solidarity).

Instead of one-on-one relations, *network relations* imply mutual contacts within a certain framework within which partners support each other. This is the case, for example, with the Sustainable Cities initiative of the United Nations Environment Programme, UNEP.

Thematic relations do not imply society-wide contacts, as they are limited to one or several aspects or sectors, for instance, co-operation in the field of shipping and trade.

City linkages and Municipal International Co-operation

The shared Internet site of COS and VNG gives an overview of the activities undertaken by Dutch municipalities in the field of Municipal International Co-operation. In 2002, 251 municipalities together maintained 837 city linkages, 438 of which with municipalities outside Europe.

33 percent of Dutch municipalities co-operated with a foreign municipality;
 17 percent supported a project abroad;
 28 percent subsidised an association or foundation;
 23 percent only supported information and awareness-raising activities.

The embedding of international co-operation within municipalities is a heterogeneous process:

37 percent were embedded in a municipal organisation;

26 percent were incorporated into a separate association or foundation;

22 percent were organised through civil society initiatives, and

11 percent were embedded in a different way.

Organisation in Dutch municipalities and partner municipalities

Larger municipalities in the Netherlands employ coordinators for foreign policy or have a separate department for that purpose. Large cities usually have delegated the international activities to a number of departments, whereas smaller towns often only have one civil servant who is able to devote part of his or her time to international activities.

In addition, there are city linkage foundations and other private organisations.

The complexity of relations between local government organisations in the Netherlands and foreign partners may vary between a singular relation and an extraordinarily complex network. As more contacts are established, the need for coordination becomes more pressing, both in the Netherlands as in partner municipalities. Consequently, the number of organisational forms increases and vertical contacts are developed in addition to horizontal contacts. Examples of vertical contacts are country platforms and the National Council for City Links Netherlands - Nicaragua (LBSNN).

In the Netherlands, the variety of actors is larger than in partner countries. In accession countries, the organisation of contacts with Dutch partners is practically always initiated by municipalities. In the three developing countries visited, the organisational structure proved to be highly diverse. In a number of cases, Dutch municipalities have their own representative in the sister municipality in order to improve coordination (Utrecht, Leiden). In other municipalities, the organisation is in the hands of coordination committees (Juigalpa - The Hague). In Nicaragua, umbrella organisations are active as well, both of civil society and of local governments (figure B3.1).

As the number of inter-municipal contacts increases, the need for regulation is also recognised in the partner countries. In South Africa, an increasing number of municipalities have departments for international relations, which coordinate various external activities. Each year the European sister cities of eight Nicaraguan municipalities meet in order to develop joint activities and to inform each other about their activities.

Dutch municipalities are very actively involved in those meetings.

Figure B3.1 Relations and networks in the case of Nicaragua

The Netherlands	Nicaragua
VNG	<p>Networks of one municipality and its sister municipalities (with European partners: 7 networks; worldwide: 1 network)</p> <p>Association of municipalities AMUNIC</p> <p>Associations of municipalities in Nicaragua that maintain a city linkage with a Dutch municipality (AMHHN) <i>joins 14 municipalities</i></p>
Municipality	Local government (municipality)
<p>National Council for City Links Netherlands - Nicaragua <i>Joins 11 municipalities, 14 city linkage foundations and 3 others</i></p>	<p>Representatives of LBSNN in Nicaragua: CNHHN.</p>
City linkage foundation	<p>Federation of Civil Society Organisations for Local Development - FODEL. <i>Joins NGOs, community-based organisations and a number of Coordination Committees.</i></p>
Civil society and community based organisations	<p>Coordination Committees in certain municipalities</p>
	<p>Community-based organisations and a number of economic organisations</p>

ANNEX 2 OVERVIEW OF ACTIVITIES IN SELECTED PARTNER MUNICIPALITIES

Table B4.1 GST supported activities, 1998 - 2001

Country activities	Number of (NLG)	Subsidies (€)	Subsidies municipalities	Number of partner
Bulgaria	6	234,891	106,589	10
Czech Republic	21	811,085	368,054	30
Estonia	3	73,751	34,828	2
Hungary	15	572,970	260,002	9
Latvia	15	379,077	172,017	15
Lithuania	9	195,009	88,491	3
Poland	32	768,552	348,753	25
Romania	11	510,371	231,596	13
Slovenia	3	24,980	11,335	3
Slovakia	11	291,415	132,238	4
Turkey	1	-		0
Uzbekistan	1	11,306	5,007	1
Total	128*	3,873,407**	1,757,675	115

* Double counts due to the fact that certain activities were undertaken in several countries at the same time.

** Total amount is NLG 4.6 million (€ 2.08 million). Projects that cannot be attributed to one single country are excluded.

Source: Files VNG International.

Table B4.2 Overview of activities
Temporary deployment of municipal civil servants (PUGA)

In the evaluation, activities indicated in bold have been assessed in a standardized way.

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Poland				
PUGA 5419*	1999	Drawing up a work plan with a view to advising Warschau in their development of a communication policy, with the purpose of increasing citizen participation.	Warschau	The Hague
PUGA 5424*	1999	Introducing of a project aimed at strengthening the management in Mikolów to an EU quality level.	Mikolów	Beuningen
PUGA 5430	1999	Formulating an inter-municipal project aimed at informing Polish municipalities about the accession process and its consequences for the functioning of municipalities.	APC	Gelderland
PUGA 5433*	1999	Extending knowledge - at the local government and at other relevant institutions in Toruń - about Dutch municipalities, particularly about Leiden drug and alcohol addiction policy. Attention for European regulations.	Toruń	Leiden
PUGA 5450*	1999	Extending knowledge, both in Groningen and in Mikolów, concerning policy and organisational aspects of Spatial Planning.	Mikolów	Groningen
PUGA 5451*	1999	Developing a plan for an inter-municipal project Matra regarding the transfer of knowledge on European environmental legislation and its implementation by local and regional governments in Poland.	Marshall's Office, Lubelski	Gelderland

Temporary deployment of municipal civil servants (PUGA)

In the evaluation, activities indicated in bold have been assessed in a standardized way.

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Poland				
PUGA 5455*	1999	Supporting policy development of local governments in the field of communication with citizens. Discussing concepts and organisational structures.	APC	Amsterdam
PUGA 9123*	1999	Drawing up a proposal for the approach, structure and procedures of the 'Warchau Interactive' project. Attention for European legislation and financing.	Warchau	The Hague
PUGA 5489*	2001	Demonstrating possible forms of citizen participation in Ilawa. Developing two pilot projects on separate waste collection and daily environmental protection.	Ilawa	Tholen
Czech Republic				
PUGA 5472	2000	Project formulation on local government communication and improvement of the municipality's management capacity.	Moravská Třebová	Vlaardingen
PUGA 5486*	2000	Supporting the drawing up of a long-term vision for Liberec. Special attention for a new 'zoning plan' and the building of a new neighbourhood.	Liberec	Amersfoort

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Temporary deployment of municipal civil servants (PUGA)

In the evaluation, activities indicated in bold have been assessed in a standardized way.

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Czech Republic				
PUGA T1020*	2001	Spreading knowledge about Europe. Topics: employment policy, economic development, legal consequences of accession and regulations in the field of environment.	Pribram	Hoorn
PUGA T1029	2001	Formulating a project on local minority policy. Within this project, special attention was devoted to education, housing and integration.	Semily	Driebergen
PUGA T1055*	2001	Supporting the realisation of a public information centre. Plan for participation activities	Moravská Třebová	Vlaardingen
Nicaragua				
PUGA 5125	1997	Incorporating externally financed projects into the municipal organisation.	León	Utrecht
PUGA 5142	1997	Preparing the seminar on trilateral co-operation between the Netherlands, the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Nicaragua in the period 1997-2000, to be held in May 1997. Formulation of projects concerning the local economy; private initiatives including a pig farm; school libraries and the establishment of a mirror NGO of the Dutch organisation.	San Pedro de Lovago	Gennep

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Temporary deployment of municipal civil servants (PUGA)

In the evaluation, activities indicated in bold have been assessed in a standardized way.

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Nicaragua				
PUGA 5144	1997	Participating in the NEWS seminar. Formulating trilateral projects Delft-Estelí-Opava.	Estelí	Delft
PUGA 5150*	1997	Advising on civil works.	Granada	Dordrecht
PUGA 5151*	1997	Terminating a sea wall project. Building a boulevard at Lake Nicaragua. Studying the tourist potential (with the help of tourism students). Monitoring projects on the Niño Jesús de Praga day care centre.	Granada	Dordrecht
PUGA 5154*	1997	Improving the potential of trilateral co-operation. Formulating specific projects within the framework of citizen participation in local government.	San Carlos	Groningen
PUGA 5156	1997	Designing infrastructure works. Policy advice on education. Brainstorming about NEWS projects.	Juigalpa	Leiden
PUGA 5157	1997	Elaborating a plan for urban spatial development.	Estelí	Delft
PUGA 5192	1998	Elaborating an approach plan for a sequel to the Master Plan on Spatial Development (1994-1996).	León	Utrecht
PUGA 5201	1998	Reorganising and reformulating the Reforestation project ProVerde.	Juigalpa	The Hague
PUGA 5202	1998	Monitoring private sector initiatives. Formulating the objectives and conditions for trilateral co-operation.	Granada	Dordrecht
PUGA 5223	1998	In-depth analysis to increase citizen participation in projects such as those related to tourism development and the building of a bus station.	Juigalpa	Leiden

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Temporary deployment of municipal civil servants (PUGA)

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Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Nicaragua				
PUGA 5251	1999	Analysis of the adjustments to the Spatial Development Plan, in the wake of hurricane Mitch.	León	Utrecht
PUGA 5256	1999	Local Agenda 21 (environment)	Juigalpa	The Hague
PUGA 5267	1999	Local Agenda 21 (environment)	Matagalpa	Tilburg
PUGA 5278	1999	Participation in the NEWS seminar in Granada and Montelimar. Formulating a contract for the sustainable development of Local Agenda 21 (environment).	León	Utrecht
PUGA 5281	1999	Participation in the Montelimar NEWS seminar, elaborating a Master Plan Starting a pig farming project	San Pedro de Lovago	Gennepe
PUGA 5288*	1999	Participation in the NEWS seminar in Granada and Montelimar. Monitoring the projects with Zlin (Czech Republic). Elaborating a new trilateral covenant Between San Carlos-Zlin-Groningen. Monitoring the progress of a market-bus station project .	San Carlos	Groningen
PUGA 5291	1999	Participation in the NEWS seminar in Montelimar and Granada. Reformulating the co-operation Estelí-Opava-Delft. Monitoring the impact of hurricane Mitch on the inter-municipal projects and the projects supported by the Association (programme with women from underprivileged neighbourhoods; support for day care centres, environmental projects).	Estelí	Delft

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Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Nicaragua				
PUGA 5297	1999	Analysing the relation between the Strategic Plan and the revenue generating capacity of the municipality. Identifying the effectiveness and efficiency factors.	Juigalpa	Leiden
PUGA 5279	1999	Technical analysis for the completion of the implementation planning of the NEWS Master Plan. Participation in the Montelimar NEWS seminar. Coordination between the mayors and aldermen of Dordrecht, Granada and Trnava about the priorities of the trilateral co-operation. Monitoring of a water supply system project in El Tabacal and an integrated development project in Malacatoya, in the context of the post-Mitch rehabilitation of projects.	Granada	Dordrecht
PUGA 5373	2000	Signing of a contract for a new programme for municipal co-operation through the SIS foundation.	Juigalpa	The Hague
PUGA O 1002	2001	Coordination mission	Granada	Dordrecht
South Africa				
PUGA 5118	1997	Determining the role of Dutch organisations (individual municipalities, housing associations, construction firms, civil organisations) participating in public housing projects in Uitenhage.	Uitenhage	Alkmaar

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Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
South Africa				
PUGA 5121	1998	Obtaining insight into waste management in Kimberley, within its legal framework and the financial restrictions. The aim was to formulate a project proposal.	Kimberley	Arnhem
PUGA 5161	1998	Expanding two existing community centres in Lekoa Vaal to improve the employment opportunities of young people.	Emfuleni (Lekoa Vaal)	Eindhoven
PUGA 5245*	1998	Supporting the Uitenhage housing association; starting new housing projects with Dutch financial support; evaluating a project for street children.	Uitenhage	Alkmaar
PUGA 5262	1999	Contributing to the start of three projects 1) Household Waste Management (Buffalo City) 2) Alternative Energy Project 3) Het Leids Volkshuis (emancipation, health and education).	East London	Leiden
PUGA 5276	1999	Formulating a three-year project concerning public sector housing and economic development in Lekoa Vaal.	Emfuleni (Lekoa Vaal)	Eindhoven
PUGA 5341*	2000	Strength-weakness analysis of the Civic Theatre and of the educational needs of the theatre's management in preparation of an internship in the Netherlands.	Emfuleni (Lekoa Vaal)	Tilburg

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Temporary deployment of municipal civil servants (PUGA)

In the evaluation, activities indicated in bold have been assessed in a standardized way.

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Zuid-Afrika				
PUGA 5349	2000	Formulating a three-year co-operation plan with regard to the Integrated Development Plan, focussing on the position of co-operation between different police forces.	East London (Buffalo City)	Leiden
PUGA 5355	2000	Advising employees of the financial department of the First Metro Housing Association with regard to rent and financial administration.	Durban	Rotterdam
PUGA 5356*	2000	Improving waste management in East London. Evaluating a pilot project on composting, separate waste collection and recycling. Studying the possibilities for improving waste processing.	East London (Buffalo City)	Leiden
PUGA 5366*	2000	Studying the areas in which the municipality of Alphen aan den Rijn could engage in a city link with the municipality of Oudtshoorn.	Oudtshoorn	Alphen a/d Rijn
PUGA 5375	2000	Formulating - together with the municipality of Pretoria and civil organisations in Mamelodi - co-operation in the form of public housing and spatial planning.	Pretoria (Tshwane municipality)	Delft
PUGA O1003	2001	Assessing the possible continuation of a public housing project (GI 1911) after providing subsidies for the building of low-cost housing. Reorientation of the co-operation after a municipal spatial reorganisation.	Theewaters- kloof (Villiersdorp)	Culemborg

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In the evaluation, activities indicated in bold have been assessed in a standardized way.

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
South Africa				
PUGA O1008*	2001	Formulating a multi-annual public housing project. Drawing up a contract for co-operation between Arnhem and Kimberley.	Kimberley	Arnhem
PUGA O1020*	2001	Meeting the new municipal council; determining the priorities of the co-operation and planning the next activities.	Emfuleni (Lekoa Vaal)	Eindhoven
Tanzania				
PUGA 5153*	1997	Taking stock of the situation in Kondo and Kiteo by means of informal observation. Formulating concrete projects and defining priorities in one or more of the following areas: agriculture/cattle breeding, education, public health, governance and administration, cadastre, social and cultural activities.	Kondo	Loenen
PUGA 5296	1999	Exchanging knowledge in the area of local governance. Formulating a concrete co-operation project. Making an inventory of training needs for group courses.	Same	Tilburg

Table B4.2 Overview of activities

Temporary deployment of municipal civil servants (PUGA)

In the evaluation, activities indicated in bold have been assessed in a standardized way.

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Tanzania				
PUGA 5336*	2000	Gaining insight in the government system and culture of Tanzania. Studying the possibilities for co-operation between Dutch and Tanzanian municipalities. Coming up with concrete ideas for co-operation. Strengthening co-operation between NGOs and local governments.	Biharamulo Monduli Mwanga Ngara Same Songea	Aa en Hunze, Aalten Beuningen Hoorn Lingewaal Tilburg
PUGA 1018*		Mission to consolidate contacts, together with a water treatment company that had already been active in Kenya.	Monduli	Aa en Hunze

Table B4.2 Overview of activities
Apprenticeship periods (STAGE)

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Poland				
STAGE 5420	1999		Lublin	Tilburg
STAGE 5427*	1999	Obtaining knowledge about work and planning methods for local public housing policy (special attention for public-private co-operation).	Mikolów	Groningen / DAGIN
STAGE 5431*	1999	Transfer of knowledge on Human Resource Management and organisation of the province of Gelderland.	Marshall's Office Lubelskie	Gelderland
STAGE 5448	1999	Improving knowledge about finance and accountancy and the professionalisation of the municipality's financial department.	Leszno	Deurne
STAGE 5453*	1999	Developing pilot project, defining phases and target groups, expected results per phase, work tactic and planning. Familiarisation with The Hague communication policies.	Warchau	The Hague
STAGE 5465*	2000	Transfer of general knowledge about spatial planning, finance and social affairs.	Mieścisko	Maartensdijk
STAGE 5490*	2001	Involving citizens in the development of their living conditions. The pilots selected were concerned with separate waste collection and responsibility for daily environmental protection.	Ilawa	Tholen

Table B4.2 Overview of activities
Apprenticeship periods (STAGE)

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Poland				
STAGE T1027*	2001	Transfer of knowledge regarding European agriculture and rural development legislation to local advisers. Information about the role Dutch municipalities fulfil in agriculture (environmental legislation, spatial planning and ecological farming).	Mikolów	Beuningen
Czech Republic				
STAGE 5461*	2000	Improving the knowledge of civil servant about the consequences of accession to the EU. Specific topics were: democracy, environment, employment politics and economic development.	Příbram	Hoorn
Nicaragua				
STAGE 5310	1999	Spatial Planning	Granada	Dordrecht
South Africa				
STAGE 5171	1997	Local economical development and growth of employment opportunities as a result of the activities of the Lekoa Vaal Economic Development Forum.	Emfuleni (Lekoa Vaal)	Eindhoven

Table B4.2 Overview of activities
Apprenticeship periods (STAGE)

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
South Africa				
STAGE 5189*	1997	Exchanging experiences concerning local democracy; special attention for the role of local NGOs, primary schools and community centres.	Emfuleni (Lekoa Vaal)	Eindhoven
STAGE 5311a	1999	Gathering practical information on the long-term objective and the architectural demands of the planned social housing project.	Pretoria (Tshwane municipality)	Delft
STAGE 5335*	2000	Gathering examples of increasing social cohesion, learning about methods for improving communication between citizens and government; learning to delegate certain problems to lower levels within the municipality (neighbourhoods).	Emfuleni (Lekoa Vaal)	Eindhoven
STAGE 5347*	2000	Learning about the daily practices of a housing association the size of First Metro (Durban). Transfer of knowledge.	Durban	Rotterdam
STAGE O1007*	2001	Helping trainees to write an Integrated Development Plan.	Durban	Rotterdam
STAGE O1016*	2001	Providing insight in the possibilities for encouraging citizen participation in decision-making procedures.	Theewaters-kloof (Villiersdorp)	Culemborg

Table B4.2 Overview of activities
Apprenticeship periods (STAGE)

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Tanzania				
STAGE 5258*	1999	Transfer of knowledge regarding the organisation and management of education and sport. Developing and implementing educational and sports policy. Gaining insight in the structures of municipal and private organisations within the areas mentioned.	Songea	Hoorn
STAGE 5277*	2000	Transfer of knowledge in the area of cattle breeding and agriculture (beekeeping and cattle breeding). Further elaborating plans for future co-operation between Loenen and Kiteo.	Kondoa	Loenen

Tabel B4.2 Overzicht activiteiten
Intergemeentelijk project (Matra) (GIM)

Type/Nummer	Jaar	Doel	Partner	Partner NL
Polen				
GIM 5440*	1999	Ontwikkeling van het doelmatiger functioneren van de raad en het gemeentelijk apparaat door de introductie van projectgericht management. Doel: bijdragen aan de hervorming van lokale overheid voor EU-toelating.	Mikolów	Beuningen

Intergemeentelijk project (Matra) (GI[M]) *Vervolg*

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
GIM 5442*	2001	De oprichting van een Stedelijk Ecologisch Centrum, om als een aparte eenheid te werken binnen de milieuafdeling. Het centrum zou informatie verschaffen over het Europees, nationaal and lokaal milieubeleid. Diende tevens het bewustzijn te versterken over het belang van het milieu.	Bialystok	Eindhoven
GIM T1010	2001	Het betrekken van gemeenten bij het opzetten van een regionaal afvalverwerkingsprogramma en daarmee kennis verwerven over EU-regelgeving. Subdoelen: - versterken van kennis van adviseurs en ambtenaren over Europese afvalverwerkingsregels; - het promoten van implementatie van een afvalverwerkingsstelsel; - bewustzijn verhogen onder burgers; - stimuleren van de communicatie tussen overheid en burgers; - stimuleren ontwikkeling maatschappelijk middenveld.	Marshall's Office Lubelskie	Gelderland

Tsjechië

GIM 5444*	2000	het gebruik van bestaande modellen en methoden voor participatie van burgers in relatie tot het ruimtelijk ordeningsbeleid van Kláštrec nad Ohří.	Kláštrec nad Ohří	Baarn
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Intergemeentelijk project (Matra) (GIM]) Vervolg

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
GIM 5447*	2000	De verbetering van het werkgelegenheidsbeleid voor de Roma minderheid conform de eisen van de EU. Vragen over het huidige werkgelegenheids- en minderheidsbeleid dienen te leiden tot concrete beleidsuggesties op het lokale niveau.	Semily	Driebergen
GIM 5460*	2000	Het gebruik van bestaande methoden en modellen voor de participatie van burgers met betrekking tot het huisvestingsbeleid.	Cheb	Rheden
GIM 9105	2000	Het bijstaan van de Tsjechische (en Hongaarse) partners bij de voorbereidingen voor de toelating tot de EU door: (i) discussies over regionale samenwerking en beleidsontwikkeling (ii) analyse van de huidige regionale coördinatie en beleidsontwikkeling (iii) bestuderen van mogelijkheden voor een betere democratische organisatie voor regionale besluiten (iv) analyse en aanbevelingen aangaande de wijze hoe de partners tot een geïntegreerd beleidsplan zouden kunnen komen.	Northern Bohemia	Zuid Holland

Nicaragua

GI 1959	1996	Versterken van de samenwerking op het gebied van afvalwaterzuivering tussen Leon, Utrecht, INAA (later ENACAL) en UNI-PIDMA.	León	Utrecht
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Intergemeentelijk project (Matra) (GI[M]) *Vervolg*

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
GI 1969*	1996	Bijstaan van de gemeente bij de verplaatsing van leerlooierijen ter vermindering van de verontreiniging van het milieu.	León	Utrecht
GI 1965*	1997	Integratie van ProVerde in de organisatiestructuur van de gemeente Juigalpa. Kennisoverdracht aan landbouwers en veeproducenten. De verzelfstandiging van de gemeentelijke boomkwekerijen.	Juigalpa	Den Haag
GI 5116*	1997	Uitwisseling tussen de organisaties Pretty Women (Utrecht) en Mary Barreda (León) met als doel het verhogen van de expertise aangaande de bestrijding van jeugdprostitutie.	León	Utrecht
GI 5217*	1998	Ontwikkelen van een plan voor stedelijke ruimtelijke herordening en het ontwikkelen van een pilot-project voor een woonwijk.	León	Utrecht
GI 5218*	1998	Assistentie bij het opzetten van een Milieu Afdeling (DIMAR). Institutionele versterking. Kennisoverdracht aan agrariërs op het gebied van milieubescherming.	Juigalpa	Den Haag
GI 5275	1999	Kennisuitwisseling voor wat betreft de realisatie van de Lokale Agenda 21. Integratie van ecologisch onderwijs in het educatief curriculum voor 10 basisscholen in León.	León	Utrecht

Intergemeentelijk project (Matra) (GI[M]) Vervolg

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
GI 5343	2000		Juigalpa	Den Haag
GI 5370	2001	Incorporatie van transport per fiets in het stedelijk transportsysteem.	León	Utrecht
Zuid-Afrika				
GI 1911*	1995	Het opzetten van activiteiten aan- gaande publieke huisvesting, het genereren van werkgelegenheid en het opzetten van een administratieve organisatie voor de nieuwbouw.	Theewaters -kloof (Villiersdorp)	Culemborg
GI 5110*	1997	Het vinden van geschikte bouwlocaties voor sociale woningbouw en het bepalen van mogelijkheden voor Leiden om vervolg projecten te ondersteunen.	East London (Buffalo City)	Leiden
GI 5147*	1997	Het opstarten van een operationele non-profit woningbouwvereniging.	Durban	Rotterdam
GI 5138*	1998	Verbetering van de huisvestings- situatie in Mamelodi en verhoging van de kennis op het gebied van publieke huisvesting.	Pretoria (Tshwane municipality)	Delft
GI 5287*	1999	Steun voor de Woningbouwvereniging Uitenhage (HAU) door middel van administratieve en technische assistentie, met als doel dat HAU goed- kope huisvesting kan realiseren.	Uitenhage	Alkmaar
GI 5317*	2000	Verbeteren van het afvalmanagement in East London door het ontwikkelen van een geïntegreerde visie op afvalmana- gement en het betrekken van burgers bij het management van groenafval.	East London (Buffalo City)	Leiden

Intergemeentelijk project (Matra) (GI[M]) *Vervolg*

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
GI 5337*	2000	Het aanzetten tot een duurzame verbetering van de afvalstoffenverwijdering in de gemeente Dodoma. Het interactief tot ontwikkeling brengen van betrokkenheid van de bevolking. Het professionaliseren van de lokale capaciteit op het vakgebied van afvalbeheer in regelgevende, organisatorische, en technische zin.	Dodoma	Rotterdam

Groeps cursus (MMTP)

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
MMTP 5403*	1998	Europese Unie en Lokale Autoriteiten, bedoeld voor organisaties	Unions of towns and communities – SMO APC	VNG
MMTP 5382-02	2000	Vrouwen in Lokale Overheid	East London (Buffalo City)	Leiden
MMTP 5382-03	2000	Gemeentelijke management-capaciteiten	Durban Theewaterskloof (Villiersdorp)	Culemborg Rotterdam

Groepscurcus (MMTP)

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
MMTP 5496*	2000	Gemeentesecretarissen	Mieścisko	Beverwijk
			Tabor and	Leiden
			Novy Jicín	
			Toruń	Maartensdijk
MMTP O2004*	2001	Afalmanagement	Ustí nad Labem	Wûnseradiel
			East London (Buffalo City)	Leiden
			Dodoma	Rotterdam
Polen				
MMTP 5498*	1999	Overheidscommunicatie	APC	Assen
			Gdańsk	Bergen op Zoom
			Leszno	Beverwijk
			Poznań	Breda
			Pulawy	Deurne
			Szczecinek	Leiden
			Toruń	Nieuwegein
			Wroclaw	Rotterdam
MMTP T2004*	2001	Werkgelegenheid Beleid en Sociaal Beleid	Wronki	
			APC	Assen
			Chelmza	Bergen op Zoom
			Choszczno	Brunssum
			Kalisz	Bunschoten
			Maków Podhalański	Heerhugowaard
			Mosina	Heunen
			Polkowice	Leiden
			Poznań	Nieuwerkerk a/d IJssel
			Szczecinek	Westellingwerf
Toruń				

Groepscurus (MMTP)

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner			
MMTP 5497*		Werkgelegenheid Beleid	Chrudim	Amersfoort			
			Hradec Králové	Cuijk			
			Hranice	De Ronde Venen			
			Jihlava	Doetinchem			
			Kolín	Ede			
			Liberec	Groningen			
			Moravská Třebová	Provincie Utrecht			
			Pardubice	Purmerend			
			Pelhrimov	Vlaardingen			
			Polička	Voorburg			
			Prerov	Waddinxveen			
			Zlín	Westerveld			
			MMTP T2003*	2001	Participatie van burgers	Liberec	Amersfoort
						Kláštrec nad Ohří	Baarn
Louny	Barendrecht						
Havlíčkov Brod	Brielle						
Zlín	Groningen						
Strakonice	Ijsselstein						
Jihlava	Purmerend						
Praha	Rotterdam						
Brno	Utrecht						
Moravská Třebová	Vlaardingen						
Nové Město na Moravě	Waalre						
Polička	Westerveld						

Tabel B4.2 Overzicht activiteiten
Groeps cursus (MMTP)

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Nicaragua				
MMTP 1684*	1997	Trainingsprogramma Lokale Overheid	Estelí Juigalpa Granada San Carlos Matagalpa León INIFOM LBSNN	Delft Den Haag Dordrecht Groningen Tilburg Utrecht VNG
MMTP 1695*	1999	Strategische planning en kadaster	Estelí Granada San Carlos Juigalpa Matagalpa León AMUNIC INIFOM LBSNN	Delft Dordrecht Groningen Leiden Tilburg Utrecht VNG VNG LBSNN Holanda
Zuid-Afrika				
MMTP 1681	1997	Volkshuisvesting	Emfuleni (Lekoa Vaal) Kimberley Pretoria (Tshwane municipality)	Tilburg Arnhem Delft
MMTP 1692*	1998	Geïntegreerde Ontwikkelings- planning	Kimberley Pretoria (Tshwane municipality) Theewaterskloof (Villiersdorp) Uitenhage	Arnhem Delft Culemborg Alkmaar

Tabel B4.2 Overzicht activiteiten
Groepscurcus (MMTP)

Type/Number	Year	Objective	Partner	Dutch Partner
Zuid-Afrika				
MMTP 1698*	1999	Geïntegreerde Ontwikkelings- planning II	Durban	Rotterdam
			East London (Buffalo City)	Leiden
MMTP O2003*	2001	Geïntegreerde Ontwikkelings- planning en Gemeenschaps- participatie	East London (Buffalo City)	Leiden
			Emfuleni	Eindhoven
			(Lekoa Vaal)	Arnhem
			Kimberley Oudtshoorn	Alphen a/d Rijn
Tanzania				
MMTP 1694*	1999	Rurale Ontwikkeling; De rol van lokale actoren	Biharamulo Mwanga Same Ngara Monduli	Aalten Beuningen Tilburg Lingewaal Aa en Hunze

ANNEX 3 OVERVIEW OF DUTCH MUNICIPALITIES RECEIVING GSO AND/OR GST SUBSIDIES, 1997-2001

Table B5.1 Dutch municipalities that received GSO and/or GST subsidies
in the period 1997-2001

Applicant (the Netherlands)	Country of partner
Aa en Hunze	Tanzania
Aalten	Tanzania
Albrandswaard	Zambia
Alkmaar	South Africa, Hungary
Almere	Ghana
Alphen aan den Rijn	South Africa
Amersfoort	Ghana, Czech Republic
Amstelveen	Peru, South Africa
Amsterdam	Cuba, Ecuador, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Surinam, Poland
Apeldoorn	Moldova, Bulgaria
Arnhem	Bolivia, Botswana, Chile, Poland, Vietnam, Zambia, Zimbabwe, South Africa
Assen	Namibia, South Africa, Poland
Baarn	Czech Republic
Bergambacht	Benin
Bergen op Zoom	Poland
Beuningen	Tanzania, Poland
Beverwijk	Swaziland, Angola, Zimbabwe, South Africa, Poland, Romania, Czech Republic
Binnenmaas	Latvia
Boxtel	Bulgaria
Breda	Bulgaria, Poland
Coevorden	Bulgaria
Cuijk	Czech Republic
Culemborg	South Africa

Table B5.1 Dutch municipalities that received GSO and/or GST subsidies
in the period 1997-2001

Applicant (the Netherlands)	Country of partner
Dalfsen	Latvia
De Marne	Benin
De Ronde Venen	Czech Republic
Delden	Hungary
Delft	Nicaragua, South Africa
Delfzijl	Ghana
Den Bosch	Romania
Den Haag	Albania, Burkina Faso, Nicaragua, Pakistan, South Africa, Poland
Deurne	Cameroon, Poland
Deventer	Peru, Zimbabwe, Romania
Doetinchem	Nicaragua, Czech Republic
Dongen	Tanzania
Dordrecht	Cameroon, Kenya, Nicaragua, Bulgaria, Slovakia
Driebergen	Czech Republic
Driebergen-Rijsenburg	Czech Republic
Ede	Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia, Bulgaria, Czech Republic
Eindhoven	Nicaragua, Sudan, Turkey, South Africa, Poland
Emmen	Ghana, Palestinian Areas, South Africa
Enkhuizen	South Africa
Enschede	Indonesia, Kenya, Nicaragua, South Africa, Latvia
Etten-Leur	South Africa, Lithuania
Gaasterlân-Sleat	Poland
Gendt	Kenya
Gennep	Nicaragua, Slovakia
Goes	Lithuania
Gouda	Nicaragua
Groningen	Nicaragua, Palestinian Areas, South Africa, Estonia, Poland, Czech Republic

**Table B5.1 Dutch municipalities that received GSO and/or GST subsidies
in the period 1997-2001**

Applicant (the Netherlands)	Country of partner
Haarlem	Zimbabwe, Bulgaria
Haarlemmermeer	Philippines
Heerhugowaard	South Africa
Heino	Latvia
Hengelo	Latvia
Het Bildt	Lithuania
Heusden	Zambia
Hoogezand-Sappemeer	South Africa
Hoorn	Tanzania, Czech Republic
Kampen	Hungary
Leek	Morocco, Romania
Leeuwarden	Zambia
Leeuwarderadeel	Benin
Leiden	Egypt, Nicaragua, South Africa, Poland
Leidschendam	Poland
Lelystad	Albania, Slovenia
Lingewaal	Tanzania
Loenen	Tanzania
Maarsse	Namibia
Maartensdijk	Poland
Maassluis	Hungary
Maastricht	Nicaragua, Turkey
Marum	Bulgaria
Menterwolde	South Africa
Meppel	Czech Republic
Middelburg	South Africa
Middenveld	Benin
Moerdijk	Poland
Monster	Tanzania
Naaldwijk	Albania
Nieuwegein	Namibia, Poland
Nijmegen	Nicaragua, Peru, South Africa, Czech Republic

**Table B5.1 Dutch municipalities that received GSO and/or GST subsidies
in the period 1997-2001**

Applicant (the Netherlands)	Country of partner
Noordoostpolder	Uganda
Obdam	Albania
Oisterwijk	Ugandaover solidariteit en profes
Ooststellingwerf	Netherlands Antilles, Uganda, Zambia, Latvia
Oostzaan	South Africa
Opsterland	Zimbabwe, South Africa
Purmerend	Czech Republic
Putten	Romania
Raalte	Albania
Renkum	Zambia
Rheden	Czech Republic
Ridderkerk	Benin
Rijswijk	Nicaragua
Rotterdam	Ghana, Cape Verde, Peru, Surinam, Tanzania, South Africa, Bulgaria, Poland, Romania
Schijnsel	Latvia
Schouwen-Duiveland	Slovakia
Sint-Michielsgestel	Poland
Skasterlân	Romania
Smallingerland	Namibia
Soest	Peru
Stadskanaal	South Africa
Stadskanaal/Emmen	South Africa
Tholen	Poland
Tilburg	Nicaragua, Peru, Tanzania, South Africa, Poland
Uitgeest	Bulgaria
Utrecht	Albania, Nicaragua, Czech Republic
Valkenburg	Romania
Veendam	Botswana, Zambia

**Table B5.1 Dutch municipalities that received GSO and/or GST subsidies
in the period 1997-2001**

Applicant (the Netherlands)	Country of partner
Velsen	Sri Lanka
Vianen	Benin, Romania
Vlaardingen	Zambia, Czech Republic
Vlissingen	Indonesia, South Africa
Voorburg	Czech Republic
Vught	Philippines
Waalre	Czech Republic
Waddinxveen	Czech Republic
Wateringen	Tanzania
Weert	Cape Verde
Westerveld	Czech Republic
Wieringen	Benin
Wieringermeer	Benin
Winschoten	Ghana
Winsum	Benin, South Africa
Wisch	Benin
Wunseradiel	Czech Republic
Zaanstad	South Africa
Zeist	Czech Republic
Zoetermeer	Ghana, Nicaragua, Slovakia
Zutphen	Estonia
Zwijndrecht	Slovenia
Number of Dutch municipalities	129
Aquanet	Bulgaria, Romania
BJ Zuid-Holland Zuid	Moldova
COGAS (Centraal Overijsselse Nutsbedrijven NV)	Bolivia
COS-es	Tanzania
Drenthe Province	South Africa, Romania
Dune Waterworks Zuid-Holland (DZH)	Egypt, Romania

**Table B5.1 Dutch municipalities that received GSO and/or GST subsidies
in the period 1997-2001**

Applicant (the Netherlands)	Country of partner
Energy Company Noord West	Zimbabwe
Friesland District Water Board	Nepal
Gelderland Province	Tanzania, Poland
Groningen Province	South Africa
Limburg Province	Hungary
Municipal Waterworks Amsterdam	Egypt, Indonesia, Mozambique, Surinam
Noord-Brabant Province	Poland
Noord-Holland Waterworks	Indonesia, Romania
NOVIB	Tanzania
Regional Co-operative Body Eindhoven	Peru
Rijnland District Water Board	Egypt, Romania
SNV	Botswana
The Hague Housing Corporation	South Africa
Utrecht Province	Hungary, Czech Republic
VNG International (GSO)	Albania, Benin, Nicaragua, Tanzania, Vietnam,
South Africa	Vietnam, South Africa
VNG International (GST)	Bulgaria, Poland
Water Board Uitwaterende Sluizen	Indonesia
Water Company Overijssel (WMO)	Surinam
Water Transport Company Rijn-Kennemerland	Indonesia
Zuid-Holland Province	Czech Republic
Number of non-municipalities	25

Tabel B5.2 Overzicht van geselecteerde gemeenten in Nederland en partnerlanden

Municipality/Province	GSO partner countries (Tanzania, Nicaragua and South Africa)	GST partner countries (Poland and Czech Republic)
Aa en Hunze	Tanzania (Monduli)	
Aalten	Tanzania (Biharamulo)	Poland
Alkmaar	South Africa (Uitenhage)	Hungary
Amsterdam	Cuba, Ecuador, Mozambique, Nicaragua (Managua), Surinam	Poland, Moldova, Bulgaria
Alphen aan den Rijn	South Africa (Oudtshoorn)	
Amersfoort	Ghana	Czech Republic (Liberec)
Arnhem	Bolivia, Botswana, Chile, Vietnam, Zambia, Zimbabwe, South Africa (Kimberley)	Poland
Assen	Namibia, South Africa	Poland (Poznan)
Baarn		Czech Republic (Klá_terec nad Oh_í)
Bergen op Zoom		Poland (Scezinek)
Beuningen	Tanzania (Mwanga)	Poland (Mikolow)
Culemborg	South Africa (Villiersdorp)	
Delft	South Africa (Tshwane), Nicaragua (Estelí)	Poland
Den Haag	Albania, Burkina Faso, South Africa, Nicaragua (Juigalpa), Pakistan	Poland (Warschau)
Deurne	Cameroon	Poland (Leszno)
Dordrecht	Cameroon, Kenya, South Africa, Nicaragua (Granada)	Bulgaria, Slovakia
Driebergen		Czech Republic (Semily)
Eindhoven	Sudan, Turkey, South Africa (Emfuleni), Nicaragua	Poland (Bialystok)
Gelderland Province	Tanzania	Poland (Lubelskie voivodship)
Gennep	Nicaragua (San Pedro de Lóvago)	

Groningen	Nicaragua (San Carlos), Palestinian Areas, South Africa	Poland (Mikolow), Czech Republic (Zlin), Estonia Czech Republic (P_ibrám)
Hoorn	Tanzania (Songea)	Czech Republic (P_ibrám)
Leiden	Egypt, South Africa (East London), Nicaragua (Juigalpa)	Poland (Toru_)
Lingewaal	Tanzania (Ngara)	
Loenen	Tanzania (Kondoa)	
Maartensdijk		Poland (Mie_cisko)
Maastricht	Nicaragua (Rama), Turkey	
Nijmegen	Nicaragua (Masaya), Peru, South Africa	Czech Republic
Purmerend		Czech Republic (Jihlava)
Rheden		Czech Republic (Cheb)
Rijswijk	Nicaragua (Condega)	Czech Republic
Rotterdam	Ghana, Cape Verde, Peru, Surinam, South Africa (Durban), Tanzania (Dodoma)	Poland, Bulgaria, Romania Poland (Ilawa)
Tholen		
Tilburg	South Africa, Nicaragua (Matagalpa), Tanzania (Same), Peru	Poland
Utrecht	Albania, Nicaragua (León)	Czech Republic (Brno)
Vlaardingen	Zambia	Czech Republic (Moravska Trebava)
Waalre		Czech Republic (Nove Mesto na Morave)
Westerveld		Czech Republic (Policka)
Zuid-Holland Province		Czech Republic (North Bohemia)

ANNEX 4 OVERVIEW OF SELECTED ACTIVITIES PER COUNTRY

Classification of themes in the following tables

Thema	Classification
A	Population Register and Internal Organisation Local Government
B	Public Relations en Communication
C	Economic Affairs, Employment and Labour Market Policy
D	Finance, Accountancy and Taxes
E	Public Health and Social Security
F	Public Housing and Spatial Planning
G	Environment, Nature and Landscape
H	Education, Training and Culture
I	Transport and Public Transportation
J	Security and Public Order
K	European Affairs
L	Government and Utility Companies
M	Municipal International Co-operation
N	Non-specified

Poland

Municipality	Dutch partner	Total # of projects	GIM	PUGA	STAGE	MMTP	Theme	Contribution MFA minus MMTP (NLG)	Contribution MFA incl. MMTP (NLG)
Warschau	The Hague	3	-	2	1	-	B/K	40,163	
Mikolow	Beuningen	3	1	1	1	-	A/N	39,936	
Groningen	2	-	1	1	-	F/K	28,984		
Ilawa	Tholen	2	-	1	1	-	N	15,864	
Toruń	Leiden	3	-	1	-	2	E/N	15,099	
Lublin	Provincie Gelderland	3	1	1	1	-	A/K	11,409	
Mieścisko	Maartensdijk	2	-	-	1	1	K/N	6,337	
Leszno	Deurne	2	-	-	1	1	D/N	1,440	
Poznań	Assen	2	-	-	-	2	C/N	0	
Scezinek	Bergen op Zoom	2	-	-	-	2	C/N	0	
Bialystok	Eindhoven	1	1	-	-	-	K	59,226	
<i>Co-operation with organisations</i>									
APC	Gelderland Province*	1	-	1	-	-	G	3,894	
	Amsterdam	1	-	1	-	-	B	1,908	
Associations (Poland)	VNG	2	-	-	-	2	K/N	0	
Total 12	13	29	3	9	7	10	A/B/C/ D/E/F/G/ K/N	224,260	765,785

T Czech Republic

Municipality	Dutch partner	Total # of projects	GIM	PUGA	STAGE	MMTP	Theme	Contribution MFA minus MMTP (NLG)	Contribution MFA incl. MMTP (NLG)
Klašterec nad Ohří	Baarn	1	1	-	-	-	F	58.916	
Liberec	Amersfoort	2	-	1	-	1	C/N	38.754	
Northern Bohemia	Provincie Zuid-Holland	1	1	-	-	-	K	34.925	
Cheb	Rheden	1	1	-	-	-	F	32.610	
Semily	Driebergen (Rijsenburg)	2	1	1	-	-	C	10.538	
Příbram	Hoorn	2	-	1	1	-	K	9.549	
Moravská Třebová	Vlaardingen	3	-	2	-	1	A/C	7.993	
Zlín	Groningen	2	-	-	-	2	B/C	0	
Jihlava	Purmerend	2	-	-	-	2	B/C	0	
Brno	Utrecht	2	-	-	1	1	B/K	0	
Nove Město na Moravě	Waalre	2	-	-	-	2	B/C	0	
Polička	Westerveld	2	-	-	-	2	B/N	0	
<i>Co-operation with organisations</i>									
SMO	VNG	1	-	-	-	1	K	0	
Total 13	13	23	4	5	2	12	A/B/C/ F/K/N	193.285	711.792

South Africa

Municipality	Dutch partner	Total # of projects	GIM	PUGA	STAGE	MMTP	Theme	Contribution MFA minus MMTP (NLG)	Contribution MFA incl. MMTP (NLG)	
Uitenhage	Alkmaar	4	-	1	2	-	1	F/M/N	169.453	
Mamelodi	Delft	4	-	1	-	1	2	F/N	153.015	
Civic / Pretoria										
Durban	Rotterdam	6	-	1	2	1	2	F/N	146.232	
East London	Leiden	8	-	2	3	-	3	E/F/G/L/M	131.488	
Lekoa Vaal*	Eindhoven	6	-	-	3	3	-	C/E	129.722	
Villiersdorp	Culemborg	4	-	1	1	-	2	F/N	120.001	
Kimberley	Arnhem	4	-	-	2	-	2	F/G/N	13.801	
Lekoa Vaal*	Tilburg	2	-	-	1	-	1	F/H	2.174	
Highveld Ridge	Vlissingen	3	-	-	-	-	3	A/E/F	0	
Oudtshoorn	Alphen ad Rijn	2	-	-	1	-	1	N	24,734	
Pretoria	Delft	2	-	-	1	-	1	N/M	7,810	
Johannesburg	Enschede	2	-	-	1	-	1	H	28,207	
<i>Co-operation with organisations</i>										
SALGA	VNG	4	2	-	1	1	-	F/M	65.188	
	Leiden	1	-	-	-	-	1	F	0	
	Den Haag	1	-	-	-	-	1	F	0	
	Arnhem	1	-	-	-	-	1	N	0	
NOWELOGA	Stadskanaal/ Emmen	1	-	-	-	-	1	N	0	
Total 13	14	55	2	6	18	6	23	A/C/E/F/G/H/L/M/N	991.825	2.616.027

Nicaragua

Municipality	Dutch partner	Total # of projects	GIM	PUGA	STAGE	MMTP	Theme	Contribution MFA minus MMTP (NLG)	Contribution MFA incl. MMTP (NLG)
Managua	Amsterdam	8	3	3	-	2	F/G/N	1.177.823	
León	Utrecht	14	7	5	-	2	A/D/E/ F/G/M/N	952.585	
Masaya	Nijmegen	9	1	6	-	2	E/F/J/N	397.129	
Juigalpa	Den Haag	7	3	3	-	1	A/G/N	395.218	
Chinandega	Eindhoven	8	1	4	1	2	A/F/M/N	138.502	
Rama	Maastricht	3	1	1	1	-	A/H/N	103.149	
Matagalpa	Tilburg	4	1	1	-	2	H/L/N	61.285	
Granada	Dordrecht	8	-	5	1	2	F/L/M/N	51.963	
Juigalpa	Leiden	4	-	3	-	1	A/E/F/N	47.714	
Condega	Rijswijk	3	-	3	-	-	G/N	32.591	
San Pedro de Lovago	Gennep	2	-	2	-	-	M	28.915	
Estelí	Delft	5	-	3	-	2	F/M/N	24.522	
San Carlos	Groningen	4	-	2	-	2	D/M/N	16.662	
Jinotega	Zoetermeer	3	-	1	-	2	F/M/N	3.037	
<i>Co-operation with organisations</i>									
AMUNIC	Amsterdam	1	-	1	-	-	M	27.820	
	VNG	1	-	-	-	1	D/F	0	
INIFOM	Amsterdam	1	-	1	-	-	M	27.820	
	Delft	1	-	-	-	1	D/F	0	
	VNG	1	-	-	-	1	N	0	
Total 15	15	87	17	44	3	23	A/D/E/ F/G/H/ J/L/M/N	3.486.735	7.605.410

Tanzania

Municipality	Dutch partner	Total # of projects	GIM	PUGA	STAGE	MMTP	Theme	Contribution MFA minus MMTP (NLG)	Contribution MFA incl. MMTP (NLG)
Kondoa	Loenen	2	-	-	1	1	-	G/M	40.121
Same	Tilburg	3	1	-	1	-	1	B/M/N	21.792
Songea	Hoon	3	1	-	1	1	-	H/N	20.413
Biharamulo	Aalten	3	1	-	1	-	1	B/N	19.873
Mwanga	Beuningen	3	1	-	1	-	1	N	12.522
Monduli	Aa en Hunze	4	1	-	2	-	1	N	12.496
Ngara	Lingewaal	2	1	-	-	-	1	B/N	0
Dodoma	Rotterdam	2	-	1	-	-	1	G	0

Co-operation with organisations

ALAT	Aa en Hunze	2	1	-	1	-	-	G/N	12.496
	Aalten	1	-	-	1	-	-	N	19.873
	Beuningen	1	-	-	1	-	-	N	12.522
	Hoon	1	-	-	1	-	-	N	975
	Lingewaal	1	-	-	1	-	-	N	13.327
	Tilburg	1	-	-	1	-	-	N	7.011
	VNG	2	1	-	-	-	1	N	27.823
	COS	1						N	
	NOVIB	1						G	
	Gelderland Province	1						G	

Total	11	34	8	1	13	2	7	B/G/H/ M/N	221.244	751.367
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Independent projects implemented in the period 1997-2001

Project title	Country of implementation	Budget (NLG)
1 Assistance to the Reconstruction of Palestinian Local Government	Palestinian Areas	4,020,430
2 Strengthening Local Government and Citizens Participation Albania	Albania	2,587,900
3 Governance and Democracy project UNDP “Strengthening the Local Governments I”	Moldova	1,500,000
4 Governance and Democracy project UNDP “Strengthening the Local Governments II”	Moldova	1,431,167
5 Civil Service Reform Programme / Local Government Reform (incl. Support to ALAT)	Tanzania	1,411,471
6 Governance and Democracy project Local Government Support	Moldova	1,362,452
7 Urban Environmental Sanitation Project - Training 917,031	Ghana	
8 Social Housing Foundation	South Africa	578,836
9 Building up Capacity in Czech Republic to train public servants on EU-accession	Czech Republic	460,000
10 Strengthening Local Government and Citizens Participation Albania	Albania	414,000
11 Support to the Decentralisation and Good Governance Programme in Cyangugu	Rwanda	267,863
12 The European dimension of Local Government Policy in Estonia	Estonia	250,549
13 Capacity Building Programme South African Association of Local Governments	South Africa	240,629
14 Congress Municipal International Cooperation	the Netherlands	195,000
15 Support mission within the Decentralisation and Good Governance Programme	Rwanda	144,399
16 Preparation of establishing Habitat-office at VNG	the Netherlands	140,900
17 Local Government Communication	Latvia	125,396
18 Support to the Task Force of Mayors on the Promotion of Local Democratic Government	Ukraine	124,011
19 Foundation of a Platform for Local and Decentralised development in Cape Verde	Cape Verde	70,136

Independent projects implemented in the period 1997-2001

Project title	Country of implementation	Budget (NLG)
20 Congress "25 years Municipal International Cooperation"	the Netherlands	69,497
21 Municipal International Cooperation Database Phase I: Feasibility Study	the Netherlands	58,548
22 Decentralisation: support mission BMG/VNG	Burkina Faso	56,832
23 Fact Finding Mission Local Governance VNG	Angola	52,029
24 Block Fund for Decentralisation and Good Governance Programme: Cyangugu pilot	Rwanda	42,537
25 Creation of an Information and Consultancy Centre on Social Protection in Zhytomir	Ukraine	34,067
26 Support Mission VNG in behalf of Integrated District Development Programme: Cyangugu	Rwanda	29,807
27 Block Fund for Rural Development - Association of Rural District Councils	Zimbabwe	21,205
28 POF '98 / VNG Formulation mission Shibam & Zabid / Preservation of Historic Cities	Yemen	15,939
29 Block Fund for Decentralisation and Good Governance Programme: Cyangugu pilot	Rwanda	9,696
30 Support to the Policy Fund DSI 1997 - Participation Evaluation of GSO Programme by DHV	Zimbabwe, Namibia, South Africa	7,523
31 Missions VNG in behalf of Development of Local Government (Kosovo)	Serbia and Montenegro	4,569

ANNEX 5 OVERVIEW OF CONTRIBUTIONS BY THE MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS PER IMPLEMENTATION MODALITY

Table 7B: Overview of contributions by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs per implementation modality (GSO and GST programme)

Modality	Description	Contribution Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Group Course (MMTP)	A one-week collective course in The Hague (sometimes in the partner country). One or two weeks of training/internship at a Dutch municipality or other government organisation.	Number of participants 15-20. VNG International charges the expenses centrally to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs at a fixed rate per participant. Separate contracts with municipalities have been negotiated about the accommodation and translation expenses of the visitors.
Temporary deployment of municipal civil servant or administrator (PUGA)	Mission by one or more persons from a Dutch municipality to a partner municipality.	Compensation for salary costs (€ 181 a day), though not for civil servants or volunteers. Expenses are reimbursed for course preparation, insurance, traveling and accommodation, translation.
Apprenticeship period (STAGE)	Stay/internship of one or more persons from a partner municipality at a Dutch municipality	Travel and accommodation expenses of the partner, including insurance and translation costs.
Inter-municipal project (Matra) GI(M)	A number of municipal missions and/or combinations with internship periods. Investments such as the employment of external expertise (GST) or a financial contribution (GSO).	In the case of an inter-municipal project, a maximum of 50 percent of actual costs, including investments. In case of an inter-municipal project Matra, a maximum of 40 percent of the subsidised portion is for the input of

Table 7B: Overview of contributions by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs per implementation modality (GSO and GST programme)

Modality	Description	Contribution Ministry of Foreign Affairs
		external expertise. A ceiling is applied to each project - a ceiling for each Dutch municipality and an indicative ceiling for Nicaragua. Within the GST programme, accountancy costs are compensated.
General Activities (GA)	Organisation of a seminar at national level, preparations for a group course, or a publication.	All expenses per activity are covered by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
Programme Support Activities (only GSO)	For the organisation of preparatory courses for civil servants and administrators to be temporary deployed (CUGA) and the arrangement of an annual meeting with recipients	All expenses are covered by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. A maximum of 3 percent of the GSO budget.

ANNEX 6 VNG AND LBSNN

The Association of Netherlands Municipalities

Founded in 1912, the Association of Netherlands Municipalities exclusively concentrated on the quality of local governance in the Netherlands for many decades. All 489 (2003) municipalities are voluntary members of VNG. In addition, several dozens of districts, the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba are among the members of VNG. All pay contribution for the services provided by the association.

The tasks of VNG are promotion of interests, service delivery and providing a platform for all municipalities. In addition, VNG (often together with departments or civil society organisations) implements projects that serve municipal interests. In each province, VNG has a Provincial Department.

VNG maintains contacts with numerous sister organisations in Europe and the rest of the world, such as the Council of European Municipalities and Regions (CEMR), whose membership consists of approximately 40 associations of local and regional governments in 29 countries, together representing over 100,000 municipalities (2003). Worldwide, contacts are maintained through the International Union of Local Authorities (IULA).

Since the end of the eighties, more and more requests were made to VNG to share its experience with local governments and their organisations elsewhere. In 1994, the International Project Unit (IPU) was founded. Until January 2001, VNG fulfilled several roles and functions:

- promoting the interests of its members - the municipalities,
- substantive development, and
- paid service delivery.

This paid service delivery was provided by five departments, including the Research and Advisory Bureau SGBO. Organisationally, IPU was part of the SGBO. SGBO would provide the substantive expertise, whereas IPU primarily focussed on managerial and organisational matters. The IPU did not have any thematic specialists, as these either came from the municipalities or from SGBO.

In 2001, after the privatisation of the paid service delivery clusters, IPU and SGBO went their separate ways. The IPU was converted into VNG International as an independent daughter company (private limited liability company), embedded into the VNG structure as VNG is 100 percent shareholder.

The mission of VNG is to strengthen good democratic local governance all over the world and to support international policy and activities of Dutch municipalities. The international activities are primarily aimed at countries in development and in transition.

National Advisory Board for the City-twinning the Netherlands - Nicaragua

The National Advisory Board for the City-twinning the Netherlands - Nicaragua (LBSNN) was founded in 1986 and is an umbrella organisation for both formal and informal city linkages. Informal city linkages are linkages without an agreement (friendship linkages). Municipalities can also be direct members of LBSNN. In mid-2002, 17 private foundations and associations, as well as 11 municipalities, were members of LBSNN. This means that of all municipalities maintaining relations with local governments in Nicaragua, approximately half are members of LBSNN, whereas the other half is not (though these may, in some cases, make use of the services LBSNN is able to provide, for instance, due to its continuous representation in Nicaragua).

Presently, LBSNN is by far the most institutionalised form of supra-municipal coordination of city linkages in the Netherlands. LBSNN carries out the programme Small Local Initiatives (KPA) in Nicaragua, which, administratively, falls under the Agreement on Municipal Co-operation with Developing countries. LBSNN has also been responsible for the implementation of several projects in the framework of reconstruction activities in the wake of hurricane Mitch (1998). At the time of the evaluation (2003), it also carried out a Strategic Planning and Cadastre programme with the partner cities of its members, funded by the European Union.

LBSNN has a representative in Nicaragua, the Consejo Nacional de Hermanamientos Holanda - Nicaragua (CNHHN).

VNG and LBSNN

VNG and LBSNN adopt different perspectives. VNG primarily groups municipalities, whereas LBSNN mainly targets civil society. Nevertheless, just like VNG, LBSNN also strives to strengthen municipal capacities (for example, by means of strategic planning). VNG and LBSNN have different ‘natural’ partners in Nicaragua. LBSNN attempts to offer ‘supra-municipal’ services both to private organisations and civil society. In addition, LBSNN raises public funds together with private funds. VNG International is not actively involved in fundraising.

VNG is the Ministry of Foreign Affairs’ main contractor for the GSO and GST programmes. VNG has delegated the executive tasks to VNG International. For the KPA-Nicaragua, LBSNN is a ‘mandatory’ subcontractor. The implementation of KPA-Nicaragua is completely in the hands of LBSNN, which was given the mandate for this task by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in 1993. The relation between VNG and LBSNN is not based on voluntariness, and neither does it imply subcontracting or subordination. VNG and LBSNN are mandatory partners. As a consequence, LBSNN is not directly accountable to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, but VNG is (‘discharge’). LBSNN gives account to VNG, and therefore all decisions on financing requests are submitted to VNG for a final check. LBSNN also submits annual plans and annual reports. All KPA finances are accompanied by an auditor’s certificate and settled with VNG.

Whereas VNG is the only contract partner of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, it certainly is not in relation to Dutch municipalities. When a municipality intends to make use of both GSO subsidies and KPA funding in support of activities with its partner in Nicaragua, it needs to approach two different organisations and enter into two different contracts for subsidy funding, even though only one organisation carries responsibility for these funds from the same source.

ANNEX 7 CONTEXT FACTORS

1 Introduction

The effectiveness of activities aimed at the strengthening of local governance is partly determined by the national context in which this local government operates. It is this context that partly determines whether strengthened capacity will actually flourish further. Three categories of context factors can be distinguished. The first category consists of politics, the administrative context and the legal context that directly determines a local government's structure and the mandate. The second category consists of the financial and economic factors affecting local government. This category is closely related to the first, as financial resources determine to what extent - and in what manner - local governments are able to implement their legal functions and mandates. This mainly concerns relations between:

- deconcentrated functions (mandates) and the allocation of financial resources from the central budget;
- delegated functions with discretionary attributes (delegation and co-governing tasks) and the allocation of financial resources from the central budget;
- devalued and autonomous functions and the extent to which municipalities either are able to generate their own resources, or are provided with resources from the central budget that they can manage autonomously.

It is mainly the autonomous resources that determine the extent to which a municipality is able to shape its own policies.

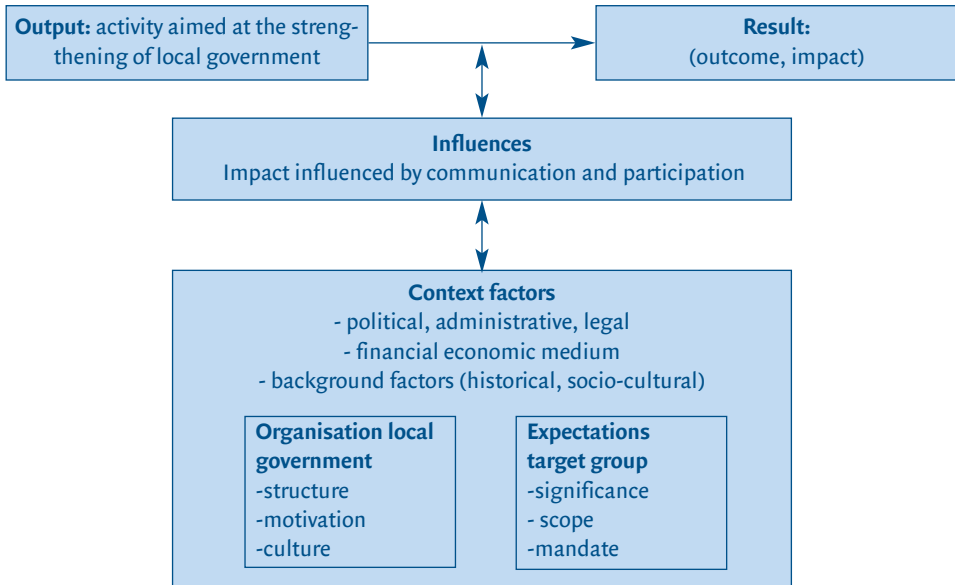
The third category includes unique factors, like cultural and socio-cultural characteristics.

Apart from these context factors, there are also so-called receptivity factors that are determined by:

- the recipient's expectations regarding the effectiveness of the activities;
- the organisational 'recipient structure'; the extent to which activities are institutionally embedded.

However, the impact these factors have on the effectiveness of activities aiming to strengthen local governance is mostly indirect, filtered by factors such as communication (including the media) and participation. This interrelation is represented in figure Bg.1:

Figure Bg.1



Source: based on WRR, 2001

These factors have been described during the field studies. The extent to which these factors interconnect in each of these countries, and the impact they may have had on the effectiveness of the municipal co-operation could not be determined precisely, due to the high degree of complexity of the relations and influences. Nevertheless, a number of general trends could be identified on the basis of the analyses. These are summarised in the following section.

2 The development of local government in Poland

The historical development of local governments

Since the beginning of the transformation of the Polish government structure, in 1989-90, progress has been made with regard to the general transformation of local public administration. The former territorial organisation of the country, which had existed since 1975, comprised 49 voivodships and nearly 2,500 municipalities. The intention was to reduce this large number of voivodships (which were considered too numerous for a democratic

and decentralised state) and to re-establish the second level of local government, the powiats (districts).

The adoption of the Law on Local Self-governance, in March 1990, meant the first step towards the reform of local governance in Poland. Previous to this date, there hardly was any local self-governance. The first elections for municipal councils were held in May 1990. As the voivodship council had been abolished, a new system was introduced that limited local governance to the municipal level. The voivod, a civil servant appointed by the Prime Minister, stood at the head of the public administration at regional level. The law signed in March 1990 did provide for a local council at voivodship level. It was an authority that was to settle conflicts between citizens and municipalities and that also served as an advisory body for the voivod. However, it was only a quasi-local government agency, composed of representatives from each municipality, though with limited democratic content.

After the Democratic Left Alliance, the Polish Peasant Party and the Union of Labour (all left parties) came to power in 1993, local government reform was discontinued as a result of the Polish Peasant Party's opposition against the introduction of districts. The situation changed in October 1996, when a public debate started to take place between scientists, municipal representatives and members of the geographically organised administrations in ten large regional centres. The result of these discussions was a report on the principles of reform.

In the fall of 1997, the new government introduced a new bill to the Sejm (Parliament) in order to divide the country into districts and voivods. However, this bill was strongly opposed by the opposition and after being amended after many months of discussion in the summer of 1998, it was adopted by the Sejm. According to this law, Poland would be administratively divided into 16 voivodships, 373 powiats (including 65 urban districts) and 2,489 gminas. In addition, a new function, the Marshall, was introduced as the head of a region. The Marshall is chosen by members of the directly elected provincial council.

The territorial reorganisations that were started on January 1, 1999, expanded the responsibilities of regions and decentralised government agencies to two new levels of democratically elected local government. Regions, powiats and gminas were given responsibility over the majority of public tasks at the respective levels (for example, responsibility for the development of policy and strategy in the regions was transferred to the Marshall

Offices). In addition, the administrative structure of the voivodships was substantially revised. Most tasks that had previously been fulfilled by the voivod were taken over by gmina, powiat and the regional self-governments. Nevertheless, the national government still appoints a voivod, who monitors the activities of self-governments with regard to their consistency with the constitution, and, additionally, holds responsibility for all service delivery in the area of social security. Also, he sees to it that national policy is implemented in the voivodship. The only significant change introduced after 1999, is the direct election of municipal mayors (2002).

Political, administrative and legal background

Constitutional basis

The constitution, ratified in April 1997, declares that Poland is a unified state and that local governments take care of the decentralisation of public administration. Legal residents of the units of territorial division together form a local government community. The local government is the authority that carries out the tasks it is assigned. The constitution regulates the relations between the national government and the local government. The Prime Minister, the voivods and the regional auditor's offices monitor local governments. Local government bodies violating the constitution or parliamentary laws, may be dissolved by a motion of the Prime Minister. Local governments have the right to form alliances and to participate in international associations of local and regional communities and to co-operate with local and regional communities in other countries.

According to the constitution, local government units are legal bodies that are allowed the right to own assets. Public tasks that serve to fulfil the needs of the local community have been assigned to the local government. The national government is authorised to order local governments to take on certain tasks. Administrative courts settle conflicts between local government bodies and the central government. The attributes and mandates of each of the various layers of public administration have been established by a law (July 24, 1998) that defines the powers of public administration. The new constitution introduced an important concept, namely the possibility to dismiss a local authority before the end of his or her term of office. Referenda may be held on topics that concern a particular community, such as the dismissal of a local administrator that was elected to office through direct elections.

Legal basis of gminas, powiats and voivodships

The local government system of Poland is based on a three-level division (gmina, powiat and voivodship) and territorial self-governance (local government) different elements of which operate on all three administrative levels. The primary government unit in Poland is the municipality (gmina). In Poland, a total number of 2,424 gminas exist. The tasks of the gmina have been laid down in the Law on Local Self-governance, which does not make a formal distinction between urban and non-urban municipalities. However, in practice, the following distinction is made, which is also expressed in the official titles of the local government agencies: (i) urban (municipality with a local municipal council for one large or medium-sized town), (ii) urban-rural (municipalities with a local council for one town and a number of surrounding villages) and (iii) rural (municipality consisting of only rural centres).

The Law on Local Self-governance allows for the creation of “subdivisions” within a municipality, such as neighbourhoods and housing associations in large cities. However, these lower units hardly ever take the shape of a government layer.

On January 1, 1999, powiats were introduced as the second level of government. Powiats may be at town level (officially “towns with district status,” 65 in total), only covering the area of one town, or at district level (powiats covering one large town - the powiat seat, and several urban/rural or rural municipalities). Each of the total of 308 district-powiats covers an average of eight gminas (ranging from three to 19). The Law on Powiat Self-governance states that an urban powiat may consist of: (i) a town of over 100,000 inhabitants, or (ii) a town that was a voivodship seat of less than 100,000 inhabitants on December 31, 1998, but with a sufficient public service infrastructure. In case of the latter, only the Polish Cabinet is authorised to grant the status of powiat. In certain cases, the Cabinet may prevent a town of over 100,000 inhabitants from acquiring powiat status, if this would restrict access to public services for the inhabitants of surrounding municipalities. Three of the towns that performed voivodship functions in the past rejected the option to become an urban powiat, whereas several medium-sized towns with required public service infrastructure were granted this status.

On January 1, 1999, voivodships became the third level within the local government system. Apart from functions deriving from local government tasks, voivodships have important administrative responsibilities. As far as size (number of inhabitants and territory) is concerned, they are the equivalent of regions in the countries of the European Union, which was exactly what the government and the Sejm intended when circum-

scribing the voivodships and assigning their tasks. Each of the total of 16 voivodships comprises between eleven and 38 powiats.

The voivodship administration implements the development policies of the voivodship, including: (i) creating circumstances favourable for economic development, (ii) maintaining and expanding the physical infrastructure, (iii) mobilising and making use of public and private financial resources, (iv) supporting the aspirations of citizens in the area of education, (v) regulating the use of natural resources in accordance with the principles of sustainable development, (vi) supporting science and (vii) encouraging the development potential of the voivodship in general. In order to perform these tasks, the voivodship administration is encouraged to co-operate with the national government, other voivodships, non-governmental organisations, scientific research organisations, agencies for higher education, international organisations and regions in other countries.

Financial-economic background of local governments

The 1990 Law on Local Self-governance states that municipal revenues consist of: (i) taxes, levies and other revenues defined by legislation; (ii) income from municipal assets; and (iii) general subsidies from the state budget. The same law states that revenues are also: (i) budget surpluses from previous years, (ii) special funds for the implementation of assigned tasks, (iii) loans and issued bonds and (iv) legacies and donations. The 1998 Law on Local Government Revenues, which followed the Law on Local Taxes and Payments of 1991, defines municipal revenues in more detail.

According to the Law on Powiat Self-governance of June 5, 1998, powiat revenues consist of: (i) a legally determined share of state-collected taxes (in 1999, this was 1 percent of personal income tax revenues); (ii) transfers from the state budget for support of local service delivery; (iii) specific funds for tasks carried out by powiat agencies on behalf of the national government; (iv) income from powiat divisions; (v) income from powiat assets; (vi) interest and donations.

According to the Law on Voivodship Self-governance of June 5, 1998, voivodship revenues consist of: (i) a legally determined share of state-collected taxes (in 1999, this was 1.5 percent of personal income tax revenues and 1.0 percent of corporation tax revenues); (ii) income from voivodship assets; (iii) legacies and donations; (iv) revenue collected by budgetary agencies of the voivodship and payments by other voivodship divisions; (v) interest on late allocations of transfers, donations and subsidies from the state.

Dutch programme for municipal co-operation in the field of external support available to local governments

The GST budget is limited in comparison to the national and international funds reserved for the development of local governments in Poland. The following sections refer to the most relevant activities.

European Union

The Phare programme has been the principal instrument of EU support for local governance in Poland. Since 1990, a substantial number of activities have been carried out that aimed to support local governments.

- (1) The 1991 Local Initiatives Programme (ECU 7.6 million) offered support to local restructuring and developing programmes at gmina level. In 1992, the European Commission made available ECU 76.7 million to the first regional development programme in Poland - Phare STRUDER. The programme was to contribute to the transition and development of regions, which were mostly affected by the restructuring of the Polish economy. It consisted of the development of measures for regional economic development at local level, as well as promotion of new regional economic activities. The EC allocated another portion of the funds to the second regional development programme, "Rural areas programme for infrastructure and development", RAPID, which amounted to ECU 20 million. This programme incorporated broader objectives and aimed for the formulation of regional strategic development plans as well as the development of infrastructure in rural areas in selected regions, characterised by a lagging socio-economic development.
- (2) The "Cross-border Co-operation Programmes" (CBC) formed another important group of programmes that were implemented in Poland at regional level with the objective of strengthening local governance by means of cross-border co-operation. Since 1994, the European Union has supported the development of border regions in Poland by annually investing more than € 50 million in this programme. Since 1994, the EU and Poland have signed nearly 20 Financing Memoranda in support of approximately 300 cross-border projects amounting to a total of approximately € 500 million.
- (3) The principal objective of the 1997 Integrated Regional Development programme, INRED (€ 15 million) was to prepare Poland for the implementation of the European Structural Funds regime (ESF) after its accession to the European Union and to contribute to the process of socio-economic strengthening of regions that were negative-

ly affected by the restructuring of the national economy. The general objective of the Structural Institution-building programme for ESF in Poland was to increase the Polish capacity to implement activities similar to those of ESF.

Since 1998, the Phare programme has been one of three instruments for accession to the European Union (in addition to ISPA and SAPARD). Support for local governments was also offered through the Phare programme by means of numerous projects and umbrella programmes. The most significant investment support came from funds of the Economic and Social Cohesion (ESC) programmes, made available in order to realise short-term priorities of the 1999 EC Accession Partnership with Poland. The ESC has been active in all Polish regions, towns and gminas. It co-financed measures to expand the productive sector as well as infrastructure projects and activities to develop human capital. Since their beginning in 2000, ESC programmes have spent approximately € 400 million in Poland.

Another type of support targeted the strengthening of institutions responsible for the adoption and implementation of the *acquis communautaire* at national and regional level. These projects were implemented by means of two methods: first, 'twinning' by means of a partnership between a public body of one of the EU member states and a Polish partner. Second, by contracting commercial service providers through public tender. Since 1999, several projects have been aimed at providing specific consultancy services.

Another accession programme, "Instrument for Structural Policy Pre-Accession" (ISPA), was launched by the European Commission in order to assist towns and municipalities in candidate member states with their preparations for accession to the European Union in the field of economic and social cohesion. ISPA also comprised infrastructure projects of the same kind as were implemented under the EU Cohesion Fund, though mostly within the field of environment. The costs of each of the projects usually exceeded € 5 million.

Other

Since 2000, the Polish government has carried out the Rural Development programme (SAPARD), financed by World Bank loans. The objective of this programme has been to create conditions for sustainable growth of non-agriculture related employment in rural areas. The programme consisted of a credit programme for small business, human resource development (including training and institutional development of regional and local governments) and infrastructure development. The budget of this programme amounted to € 10 million.

Strengthening of local governance and decentralisation in Poland was the concern of one of the key programmes within the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) aid to Poland. This support was aimed at four thematic fields: (i) support for local governments and institutional capacity building; (ii) the development of a market for municipal debt; (iii) support for non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and popular participation in local government; (iv) assistance to the housing sector. In the early nineties, USAID assistance to the development of local governance primarily focused on individual towns and organisations. Since 1993, USAID started to develop activities that would strengthen the capacity of local governments to manage their own financial resources and to increase the capacities of local organisations to become actively involved in local government. In the second half of the nineties USAID's activities concentrated around encouraging the private sector at company level, building a market-oriented financial sector and promoting decisive and responsible local governance. In 1996, all activities in support of local governments were joined together in the Local Government Partnership Programme (LGPP). This programme provided direct assistance to local governments by helping them to improve their management in order to be better able to meet the needs of citizens with respect to service delivery. The LGPP programmes co-operated with Polish local governments, consultancy firms, NGOs and other organisations. Nearly 50 Polish towns developed their strategic plans during this period. USAID ended its programmes in Poland on September 30, 2000.

Between 1992 and 2001, the British Know-How Fund financed the Local Government Assistance Programme (LGAP) with the objective of supporting the development of Polish regions and self-governance. Assistance was offered by hiring Polish and British consultants to help solve problems in the gminas. The project supported the development of local master plans, economic development strategies, renovation programmes for city centres and plans to improve the management of villages and towns. The programme co-operated with eight Polish regional advisory organisations, which received financial and professional support through the programme, for example, in the form of the 'training-the-trainers' programme and study visits to the United Kingdom.

Other donors, including France, Germany, Japan and Denmark, have also been active in Poland in supporting Polish local governments. Denmark became a very active donor after 2000 and provided technical assistance to Polish gminas and powiats. In all regions in Poland they organised conferences targeting representatives of local governments, the

cadastre, the local political elite, non-governmental organisations, business communities, academic centres, regional media and local communities in general.

3 The development of local governance in the Czech Republic

The historical development of local governance

At the end of the Second World War, national committees (or ‘people’s councils’) were founded at different geographical levels in what was then Czechoslovakia, as well as in other countries of the Soviet bloc. These committees continued to exist until the ‘Velvet Revolution’ of 1989. The system of national committees pretended to strive for self-governance, but this was a sham. Although these committees did contain elected components, they were merely a pillar of the centralist government regime, due to the strictly vertical government structure. These components were closely tied to the Communist Party that was constructed in a similar way.

The last twenty years of the communist regime were characterised by the merging of smaller and larger municipalities and by the establishment of so-called ‘central municipalities’, which were centres for the provision of public services. As a result of this trend, the number of municipalities gradually declined. During the seventies and eighties, the number of municipalities declined one third. The Czech Socialist Republic (CSR, part of the then Czechoslovakian Federation) numbered approximately 4,200 municipalities in 1988, compared to approximately 7,300 in 1970. The CSR territory was divided into 75 districts clustered in seven administrative regions (kraj, hereafter referred to as ‘region’). These were administered by equal numbers of national committees at three levels: municipalities (towns and villages), districts and regions. Even though the capital Prague had a special status, it was subdivided (in the same way as region capitals) into municipal districts, each with its own committee.

The recent history of self-governance in the Czech Republic can be divided in three phases. The recovery of democracy started the first phase and the other two are marked by the reform of public administration, boosted by the adoption of the new constitution following the separation from Slovakia on January 1, 1993. In 1990, self-governance was re-established following the adoption of the Municipal Law. That year, elections were held for municipal councils (taking the place of the national committees at the lowest level). District committees were transformed into district bureaus and further only carried out

central government policy. Regional committees were disbanded and their competences were divided over municipalities, district bureaus and the central level. Important developments in this period were the gradual re-establishment of the key activities of the municipality, as well as the new feeling among citizens of belonging to a municipality - a municipality as a community in which people live together. At that time, the imperfections of public administration were put high on the political agenda. An administrative level in between municipalities and the central government did not exist. Even though there were district bureaus, these were under central government control and had no clear authority regarding the territorial delineation of the mandate. It was considered advisable to add a regional level to the public administration system. The integration of the Czech Republic into the 'Europe of Regions' contributed to this consideration.

The third phase was triggered by the election of regional councils and the establishment of regional bureaus. This stage resulted in the abolition of the district bureaus and the redistribution of their competences among other public administration bodies, i.e. among municipal and regional bodies. Most district bureau activities were transferred to so-called "municipalities with extended authorities". The number of these authorities was settled (after lengthy deliberations) at 205, to replace the former 75 district bureaus. The selection of these "enhanced" municipalities was determined not only by their professional capacities and expertise, but also by political lobbying. This lobbying resulted in a rather unbalanced and unequal division of areas. The number of inhabitants per enhanced municipality varies widely, as well as the surface areas of the territories. On the other hand, it was a leap forward in the democratisation of public administration towards citizens. And that was one of the objectives of the reforms. The changes have resulted in a classic three-layer model for public administration: state, region and municipality. The combined model was applied, meaning that at each level deconcentrated central governance functioned simultaneously with autonomous local governance. Due to the discontinuation of district bureaus, the role of municipal and regional organisations was expanded and the establishment of autonomous government bodies gave expression to the constitutional principles of self-governance.

The main weakness of the reform is the rather limited change regarding the relation between autonomous and deconcentrated competences. Although municipalities were assigned an enormous number of activities, local level government bodies (i.e. the councils) hardly have a say since these are mostly standard operational procedures and ministerial measures, according to general laws and mainly consisting of secondary (generic)

policy. It seems that the reform has focussed primarily on deconcentration, but has been unable to match the expectations of autonomous governance (both at municipal and regional level). Inadequate changes in the redistribution of public resources also posed a problem. A significant part of municipal and regional responsibilities were based on provisional financial allocations by means of several temporary measures. The funds thus allocated were disproportionate to the mandate. Moreover, the number of civil servants did not decrease due to the fact that practically all staff members of former district bureaus had been transferred to the new regional and municipal bodies. In fact, district bureaus were replaced with new organisations, without much actual change. Nevertheless, the reforms have provided a firmer basis for the role of local government, including its relation with citizens.

Political, administrative and legal background

Constitutional basis

The constitution of the independent Czech Republic, adopted on January 1, 1993, guaranteed self-governance in territorial autonomous units. The constitution stipulates little more with regard to this matter. Article VII states that the Czech Republic is divided into municipalities, which form the territorial basis of self-governing units; regions are the higher-level self-governing bodies. Autonomous bodies are “territorial communities of citizens who have the right to self-governance”. Further, the constitution indicates that self-governing units are public services: they have the right to own assets and draw up a budget. The constitution defines the distribution of competences between municipalities and regions in simple terms: municipalities decide on all matters the law has not delegated to the regions. In 2003, the total number of municipalities was 6.250 and there were fourteen regions.

Legal framework

The position of municipalities, their basic rights and duties, are specified in the Law no. 128/2000 on the municipal government system. On the basis of this law, all municipalities have equal opportunities and responsibilities regarding their autonomous activities, regardless of their surface area or number of inhabitants. The so-called statutory towns (regional centres) constitute a special group. In 2003, nineteen of such towns existed, as determined by law. The territory of statutory towns may be divided into sub-districts, each with their own self-governing body. Seven of these statutory towns had made use of legal option and were divided into districts. The division of competences between the various bodies within the urban area and the various districts is then determined by the munici-

pal council by means of an administrative order. The statutes of the capital Prague have been established by a special law. The administrative position of Prague is exceptional.

The law determining municipal and district powers states that these include all matters pertaining to the interests of citizens and municipalities, which have not been entrusted to the regions. In conformity with local conditions and custom, municipalities are to provide the development of social care, meet citizens' demands, particularly with regard to housing, security and health care, transport and communication, information, training and education, general cultural development and maintaining public order. In addition, specific issues are assigned to municipal authorities by means of special laws (either merely concerning their implementation, or certain co-administrative tasks).

Regional legislation

The constitutional basis of regions is underlined by the fact that they can only be created or dissolved by means of a constitutional measure (no. 347/1997). The discretionary powers of regions are practically equal to those of municipalities, though at a different scale. Thus, municipalities are responsible for nursery schools and primary education, whereas regions are responsible for secondary education. Similarly, municipalities are responsible for the maintenance of local roads, whereas regions are responsible for the main roads. However, a key difference is that regional governments have the right to bring a bill before Parliament. Among the tasks delegated to regions is the competence to revise decisions made by municipalities on administrative procedural grounds. Moreover, regions have the mandate to supervise the activities of municipalities.

Financial and economic background

The constitution determined that municipalities, like regions, are public services that are allowed to hold assets and draw up their own budget. Municipal and regional budgets are supplemented with transferred monies from the central budget. Thus, municipal incomes consist of their own (autonomous) revenues and subsidies, largely determined by own tax revenues. The division between central and municipal taxes is laid down in the Act on the Budgetary Allocation of Taxes. According to this act, municipalities have a right to, for example, 100 percent of property tax, 30 percent of taxes on businesses of persons living in the administrative area and approximately 20 percent of a number of other taxes. The rate of the latter depends on the population size of the municipality.

Moreover, municipal tax revenues include administrative levies (payments for service delivery) and local taxes on the basis of municipal decrees (for example, dog

tax, taxes on recreational facilities, parking fees, waste collection fees). In addition, Czech municipalities have the opportunity to generate revenue from enterprise activities (leasing out owned real estate or land, interest, capital stock and stocks in companies). In 2003, autonomous tax revenues amounted to nearly 70 percent of total municipal revenues, meaning that municipalities were relatively independent from central government support.

The financial background of regions was substantially different from that of municipalities, particularly because they are relatively young. Regions in the Czech Republic did not effectively start their activities until 2001, while being particularly dependant on the central government budget during the initial period. Over 2001, regions gradually established authority over state property and administrative control over approximately 2,640 organisations. The overwhelming majority of these (approximately 2,400) consisted of organisations in the field of education. Not until January 1, 2002, did regions gain the right to collect their own taxes. Nevertheless, over 2003, the own income of regions made up no more than about 16 percent of their total revenues.

Social and cultural background

Shortly after adoption of the 1990 Municipal Law, the number of municipalities in the Czech Republic increased nearly 50 percent, which caused problems. As a result of this atomisation, several municipalities were created with only a small number of inhabitants, whose autonomy has been a problem from the beginning. In 1996, Czech legislators raised the limit for the number of inhabitants of municipalities newly to be created to a minimum of 1000. But this did not solve the problems for the municipalities already existing. In 2003, 6,250 municipalities existed, nearly 60 percent of which counted less than 1000 inhabitants. Consequently, a large number of municipalities are incapable of fulfilling the most basic tasks assigned to them. These problems became more evident after the abolition of the district bureaus.

One specific characteristic of Czech municipal governance is the overwhelming majority of so-called 'independent' councillors, particularly in smaller communities. The political profile of these government bodies is inextricable and it is no exception that in councils of small municipalities one particular family predominates. This trend can also be observed in larger towns and villages. Municipal councils comprise large numbers of representatives of non-political pressure groups. This can be ascribed to a general uneasiness about political parties as a legacy of the former regime, during which all power was concentra-

ted in one party. This legacy also explains why, especially in the larger towns, the presence of communists in municipal councils is rather prominent: after all, they form the only politically trained cadre. However, other parties find it impossible to co-operate with them, which makes the formation of coalitions a highly complex operation in many towns. One example is the extreme right - left coalition in Prague, which was serving its second term in 2003.

Dutch programme for external support to local governments

The GST programme is very small compared to the national programmes on strengthening of local governance, financed by other donors. The following sections provide an outline of some of these programmes. Evidently, the difference is that the GST programme aimed for direct inter-municipal co-operation, as a form of twinning, whereas other donors pursued national objectives.

European Union

The Phare programme made the most important contribution to the process of change of the political, economic and social structure of the country. The first phase (1990-1994) mainly concerned support for the process of transformation from a centrally planned economy to a market economy. In 1993, the EU formulated criteria to be met by future member states (the “Copenhagen criteria”), including: (i) stable agencies to safeguard democracy, (ii) a functioning and competitive market economy and (iii) the ability to take on commitments regarding EU membership. In the mid-nineties, the Phare programme in the Czech Republic expanded its sphere of action in order to promote this integration process effectively. The objective was twofold: making it possible for the Czech Republic to become a full member of the EU as soon as possible and, after they had acceded, to integrate the country as quickly as possible, letting the Czechs experience the actual advantages involved. Until the year 2000, a total amount of € 750 million was disbursed from the Phare fund to achieve the above-mentioned objectives.

The Phare programme was the main EU support instrument. Components of the programme also targeted local governments. Also, the implementation of major infrastructural projects benefited the management capacities of local governments. In 2000, two other EC programmes were initiated in addition to the Phare programme, with the aim to support candidate member states in their process of structural change:

(i) - the SAPARD programme, whose purpose was to support sustainable development of agricultural and/or rural areas. In the Czech Republic, restructuring rural

areas became a central component, with SAPARD aiming at the strengthening of municipalities and the private sector. Annual support to the Czech Republic amounted to € 22 million.

(ii) - The ISPA programme made funds available for environmental and infrastructural projects. The objective was to support the Czech Republic in meeting the acquis requirements in the area of water and air pollution and waste management. In addition, ISPA invested in transport infrastructure, particularly the establishment of connections to the European transport networks. The average support to the Czech Republic amounted € 71 million annually.

Other

In the early nineties, Czech municipalities received subsidies from several bilateral assistance programmes. Within this context, specific reference needs to be made to the USAID programme (see Poland). This programme supported the Czech Republic by means of two types of activities: a) developing municipal strategic plans and b) “Peace Corps” assistance. The programme in the Czech Republic was discontinued in the mid-nineties.

Other bilateral programmes were the German TRANSFORM and an Australian bilateral programme focusing on the training of civil servants in municipalities, as well as on creating local advisory centres for local development. In many of the summaries of the support received by the Czech Republic in the area of building and strengthening local governance, no mention is made of Dutch contributions.

4 The development of local governance in South Africa

The historical development of local government

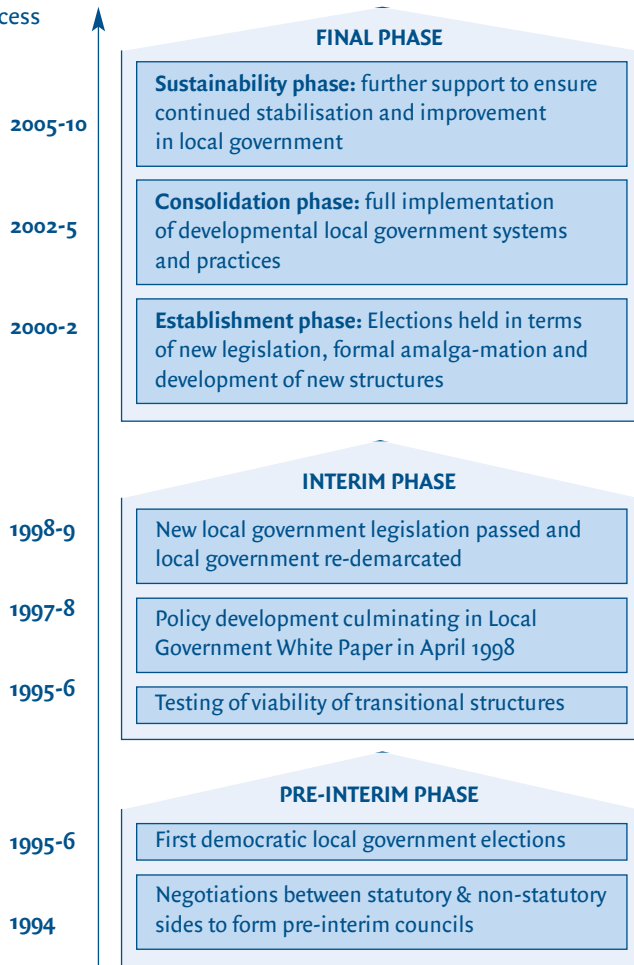
During the Apartheid period

The Apartheid system has left South Africa with a disorganised structure of local government. The “Group Areas Act”, key to Apartheid legislation, prescribes strict separation with regard to housing and forced removal of the black population to ‘own group’ areas. By means of spatial separation, controlled access, and an ‘own government in own areas’ policy Apartheid intended to limit the extent to which the wealthy white community would be burdened with responsibility for the underdeveloped black regions and townships.

The transition process of local governance

At the end of the eighties, most townships and rural areas in the hinterland were practically ungoverned. The crisis in local government was therefore the main reason for the national reform process launched in 1990. The national debate took place in the Local Government Negotiating Forum, in addition to the national negotiation process. The 1993 Local Government Transition Act that emerged from this process, did not result in a plan for a new local government system, but simply outlined a process of change. This transformation from a racial and fragmented local government to a non-racial, democratic local government was divided in three phases that are outlined in figure Bg.2.

Graph Bg.2 The transition process



Political, administrative and legal background

A transverse renewal process was initiated by the Constitution of 1996, followed by an array of new laws on local governance that provided the legal framework for a transformation of local governments in South Africa. The Constitution initiated the establishment of three categories of municipalities:

- category A (Metropolitan municipalities): municipalities with exclusive municipal executive and legal authorities within their territories;
- category B (Local municipalities): municipalities sharing their executive and legal authorities with a municipality from category C, within whose territory the category B municipality is located;
- category C (district municipalities): municipalities with municipal executive and legal authorities in an area covering more than one municipality.

In order to carry out the constitution, the ‘Municipal Demarcation Board’ was established on February 1, 1999. This board divided the existing 843 municipalities into 6 metropolitan municipalities¹ (category A), 47 district municipalities (category C) and 231 local municipalities (category B). According to Dutch standards the surface areas of these municipalities are extensive, in some cases even more extensive than a Dutch province. The challenge posed by this scale is that a large number of independent and geographically spread communities, that may have felt connected in the past, will now need to create a new feeling of solidarity within the new community.

The national government, elaborating on the 1998 White Paper on Local Governance, set up a legal framework with facilitating and encouraging effects. Its key legal components are the “Municipal Systems Bill”, the “Municipal Structures Act” and the “Demarcation Act”, together composing a completely new local government system, with regard to its functions as well as its form. In November 2000, the “Local Government Municipal Systems Act” was published in which a framework was established for planning, performance-based management systems, effective use of financial and human resources and organisational transformation in the direction of a private sector context. Each elected municipal council is required to adopt a plan connecting and coordinating several proposals on the development of a particular area, within the prescribed period. This plan is to serve as an integrated sample of the municipal council’s long-term vision and the

¹ According to the constitution, a category A municipality (metropolitan municipality) can only be established in metropolitan areas. The Municipal Demarcation Board determined that Johannesburg, Durban, Cape Town, Pretoria, East London and Port Elizabeth are metropolitan areas.

short-term needs with respect to development and internal change. This is what the annual budget is geared to.

The financial-economic background of local governments

During Apartheid, local governments had no basis for revenue generation and consequently they lacked the financial resources to make a difference with regard to the well-being of their constituency. Most district councils are still characterised by an inadequate basis for revenue generation and are mostly dependent on central government funds. Section 214 of the Constitution stipulates that “a Parliamentary act [a budget approved by Parliament] must ensure that the distribution of national tax revenues between national, provincial and municipal governments is correct and fair”. Nevertheless, local governments received an average of merely 3 percent of the national budget (2003). The new municipalities are therefore highly dependent on their own tax-raising powers and other forms of revenue generation, still - because they were new in 2003 - the revenue generation was still far from satisfactory.

Socio-cultural background

Apart from the three local government levels distinguished (province, district and local), South Africa also has approximately 800 chiefs, who are supported by 10,000 traditional leaders. These chiefs are the key to the local government for over 18 million people (approximately 40 percent of the population). Plans for new municipal borders aroused the anger of a large number of these traditional leaders, who feared to lose part of their functions, influence and power.

Main problems encountered by local authorities

The system and the structures of the new local government are meticulously laid down in numerous acts, bills, regulations and policy documents. The greatest challenge to the South Africa government was to translate policy into practice at local level. This required co-operation between the different interested parties involved: national government, provincial governments, local governments, NGOs, CBOs, traditional leaders and the private sector. However, these parties did not always co-operate within a coherent framework. The interaction between different parties is still incidental rather than structural (Van Eechoud, 2001).

Due to a backlog in education among large numbers of South Africans, caused by the Apartheid regime, local governments faced a lack of well-trained personnel. In 2003, a substantial number of initiatives were undertaken in the field of training, the majority of which was supported by the international community. Since the 2000 amalgamation of municipalities, most municipalities were involved in the process of restructuring their systems, both in political and in administrative terms. The newly elected council members were not always fully aware of the implications of their function, while the administrative amalgamation both led to the creation of different functions and a change of many civil servants. Thus, a significant part of the institutional memory was lost. The exact competences and mandates of public services still need to be defined more closely. In 2003 municipalities still were not fully capable of implementing the revenue generating activities the law allowed them. Incomplete or outdated administrative instruments, such as cadastral data and population registers were an impediment to the (correct) implementation of local revenue generation.

National support for the development of local governance

The national government has formulated several programmes aimed at supporting local governments in the development of their structures, functions and service delivery capacities, as intended by the new legal framework. National and provincial government departments established several programmes that are aimed at strengthening local governance. The most prominent of these are the following:

- Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP): a programme intended to enhance the development impact on the service delivery process by focussing on the transfer of skills and the general promotion of small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs);
- Social Plan Fund: 102 municipalities received subsidies for research and local economic regeneration programmes;
- The Municipal Infrastructure Investment Unit was founded in order to stimulate private sector investments in municipal services, as well as to create a market for this kind of investments;
- The Local Government Transition Fund supported municipalities with designing and implementing appropriate institutional and service delivery regulations;
- The Municipal Systems Improvement Programme supported the realisation of new municipal systems, including the elaboration of integrated development plans, performance-based management systems and related municipal management reforms;

- The Local Economic Development (LED), a poverty reduction programme, supported approximately 200 projects aimed at employment creation between 1999 and 2003.

External support for local governance in South Africa

Contrary to other African countries, external support in South Africa only has a symbolical value, though hardly any financial impact. Less than two percent of the government investment budget is financed from external sources (2002). Consequently, donors only have limited impact on South Africa's policies. Apart from the Netherlands, Denmark, Germany, Great Britain, the UNDP, the European Union, USAID and Sweden have been active in the area of developing local governance. The UNDP mainly focussed on local capacity building. Donors carried out projects and programmes in consultation with national and provincial departments. Denmark and the Netherlands were the only two not active 'in the field', though financing programmes at local level. The South African government has felt little need to formally coordinate the support from all different donors. Hence, no central agency or department has been established to coordinate foreign aid. The Ministry of Finance does register the total bilateral aid flow.

In 2003, several inter-municipal international co-operation programmes were active in South Africa. The national governments of Norway, Sweden and Canada supported inter-municipal co-operation programmes with a number of South African districts and towns. Part of the Swedish programme covered local governments that were also supported by the GSO programme (Kimberley and Nelson Mandela Metro).

Dutch support for local governance in South Africa

During Apartheid, the Dutch government intended to keep diplomatic relations open with the South African government, while simultaneously supporting anti-apartheid activities. Some local governments in the Netherlands regarded this policy as not sufficiently explicit. They joined forces in the "Local Governments against Apartheid" (LOTA) movement. After the regime change, the Dutch government offered direct support to the democratically elected government of Nelson Mandela, including a donation of 60 million guilders (1995) to the 'Reconstruction and Development Programme' (RDP). This donation in the form of budget support was used for programmes in the area of education, youth, rural development, better governance and human rights (1995-1997). Apart from this contribution to the RDP, the Netherlands also financed projects on these themes, as well as on themes like gender, environment and cultural development.

The Dutch contribution amounted to approximately 160 million guilders over the period between 1994 and 1999.

In 2003, Dutch policy on local governance was aimed at supporting the realisation of a democratic, transparent and accountable local government structure in South Africa. In 1999, it was decided that support would be provided for a period of five years and 250 million guilders was allocated to the period 2000-2004 with a preference for budget support. In 2002, the Minister for Development Co-operation decided to extend assistance to South Africa beyond 2004, considering the historical links and the sharp dichotomy within South African society. The local government component will not be continued as a 'sector' in the post-2004 programme, but shall be embedded within a broader 'good governance' approach.

No formal link exists between the GSO programme and the sectoral approach of bilateral assistance. However, in practice, they proved compatible. Compatibility was also observed with activities of the Dutch Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment (VROM) in South Africa. VROM is involved in integrated town planning and social housing (SALGA/VNG financed by VROM; Habitat Platform). Since 2001, it has been possible to obtain a scholarship for training and education in the water sector (Nuffic) in the context of international co-operation with respect to education. Both national and local governments are target groups.

5 The development of local governance in Nicaragua

The historical development of local governance

After forty years of the dictatorship and corruption of Anastacio Somoza and his protégés, a violent uprising occurred in 1978 among all classes. This resulted in a brief civil war that brought the socialist-oriented Sandinista movement to power in 1979. A new civil war was provoked by the United States that supported the anti-Sandinista rebels by means of military advice, money and arms. In combination with unsound financial policy, the unrest led to hyperinflation. Reduced exports, production and revenues brought the country to the verge of economic bankruptcy.

The 1990 free elections led to the replacement of the Sandinista movement and brought Violeta Chamorro to power. She headed a pact of fourteen political parties with heteroge-

neous affiliations. Non-Sandinista governments were also elected in 1996 and 2001. During the nineties, government policy and activities were aimed at restoring peace, developing a representative democracy, fighting hyperinflation and the transition from a planned economy to a free market economy (Nicaraguan Government, 2001: ix). Still, poverty remained a serious and persistent problem in Nicaragua.

Political, administrative and legal context

Ideas regarding decentralisation and decision-making at local level are not deeply rooted in Nicaragua. Historically, the country has always been a hierarchical society. The starting point of decentralisation and citizen participation within local level government can be traced to the Sandinista government (1979-90). In 1988, the Municipal Law (Law no. 40) was formulated and in 1990 municipal councils were elected for the first time. In the same year, the Instituto Nicaragüense de Fomento Municipal (INIFOM) was founded (Decree 497). INIFOM was responsible for the strengthening of administrative capacities of local governments. In 1998, Law no. 40 was revised and replaced by a new Municipal Law (Law no. 261).

Law no. 261 defined the mandates of municipalities in terms of service delivery and in terms of catalyst and supervisor of local development. Local government has formal mandates in the field of socio-economic development, protection of the natural environment and the exploitation of resources. Local governments are expected to actively involve citizens in local governance (Hegg, 1999). One of the elements introduced by the Sandinistas was the open hearing at community level, the *cabildo*. Local governments are obliged to convene a *cabildo* annually. Even though administrative and institutional strengthening was one of the four pillars of the Strengthened Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS, 2001), no coherent policy existed in 2003 that the PRS could translate into a process of decentralisation and development of local governance. The sectorial commission for decentralisation (Comisión Sectorial de Descentralización - CSD), composed of different public institutions, repeatedly formulated proposals for a National Policy on decentralisation. In 2003, the 2001 version was the most recent. Due to the fact that two successive governments never presented this proposal (whichever version) to Parliament, it could never acquire a legal status. The government assumed a similar position with regard to other important bills, such as the Budget Transfer Law (from the central budget to municipalities), the Municipal Tax Law, the Citizen Participation Law and the Public Sector Employment Law.

Financial and economic context

The main obstacle for municipalities in Nicaragua was the feeble budget they had at their disposal. In 2003, all municipalities in Nicaragua, except for the district capitals, faced severe financial constraints. Four causes could be identified:

- Fiscal reforms standardising the Value Added Tax reduced the revenue generating capacities of municipalities, as VAT-like taxes at municipal level (for example, on consumer goods like beer) were no longer possible. On average, municipal taxes were reduced by at least 15 percent.
- The lack of a budget transfer law implied that each year municipal budgets needed to be renegotiated individually with the central government. Political agreement would then prove to be a more important allocation criterion than the quality of the municipal budget. In the period 1997-2001, municipalities received no more than an average of one percent of the national budget (nonetheless, 43 municipalities received additional resources through World Bank loans). In 2003, the law on budget transfers was adopted.
- The majority of government agencies in Nicaragua was involved in a process that was referred to as decentralisation, though in fact it was deconcentration. In this process, certain tasks were transferred from the central to local governments, however, without the required financial resources being reserved. Thus, part of this ‘decentralisation’ merely signified a cutback in central government expenditure.
- The opportunities to generate revenue at local level (particularly property tax and tax on land) could not be fully exploited due to a lack of trained personnel, equipment and mechanisms to actually enforce tax collection. The legal basis for that purpose had not been sufficiently developed. In 2003, a new law was passed that made the payment of municipal taxes compulsory. New opportunities emerged for forms of political protection and corruption.

One of the new municipal powers is their increased capacity to attract donor funds by means of projects and twinning agreements. INIFOM has a central register of city linkages, which counted 160 city partnerships in 2003, 151 of which with European municipalities.

Socio-cultural and specific context

Over the last 20 years, political polarisation has been a characteristic model for Nicaragua. This polarisation was also apparent at local level and made it difficult to form coalitions or nearly impossible to reach agreements on basic municipal services and provisions. The introduction of strategic plans created more possibilities for reaching

broad-based understanding of the most fundamental aspects of municipal development and depolarised the prioritisation process. One of the manifestations of polarisation was the mutual control, laid down in the so-called ‘Pacto Político’ of 1998, between the leaders of the liberal PLC (the party of the government in power at that time) and the Sandinista FSLN (opposition). The Pacto led to a division of key functions within the public administration among these two parties. Formally, the objective was to achieve more political stability, however, in fact the economical and political elite of the country took possession of public administration and divided power among themselves. Until the new government came into power in 2002, the organisation and the institutional structure of the public sector was not based on terms like effectiveness and efficiency, but on considerations pertaining to the balance of political power and patronage.

Key problems

The key problems in 2003 could be described as follows:

- Public agencies were involved in a process of deconcentration, in which service delivery was transferred to local governments, without the required financial resources being reserved for these services².
- Local governments lacked the instruments and the knowledge to make full use of their mandate regarding tax collection.
- Local governments were unable to plan their budget, as the allocations from the national budget needed to be renegotiated annually.
- Until 2003, Nicaragua did not have an approved decentralisation policy.
- Until 2003, no Public Sector Employment Law existed. This implied that civil servants were changed often and were appointed on the basis of their political affiliations rather than their professional expertise.
- Although municipalities were obliged to elaborate Strategic Plans, they depended greatly upon Ministries and other public entities for the implementation of these plans. Municipalities had no autonomous resources to carry out these plans.
- A large number of donors were concerned with strengthening local governments and local administration. Until the start of the new INIFOM coordination mechanism (2001), this assistance was not streamlined and different methods and procedures were developed at local level with regard to planning and budgeting.

² An example: street lighting fell under the responsibility of the Ministry of Public Works. This Ministry also paid the electricity bill. Street lighting is now a municipal task, which implies that municipalities also have to pay the electricity bill.

Central government support to the development of local governance

In 1995, the local governments of León and Estelí started developing Master Plans. This paved the way for the development of Strategic Plans in practically all municipalities around the country. With the help of external donors like the World Bank and the Danish Danida, INIFORM became a major player in training and strengthening the capacities of local governments and local administration. It successfully introduced a national system for cadastres, SISCAT. However, INIFORM lacked technical capacities in the field and was therefore criticised by both donors and the association of municipalities (AMUNIC). Consequently, donors went their separate ways with regard to the strengthening of strategic planning and the cadastre. Among all these donors and other external organisations was the Dutch umbrella organisation for city links with Nicaragua, LBSNN³.

Donor support to decentralisation and the development of local governance

Nicaragua is among the countries in the world receiving the most support per capita of the population. Approximately half (51 percent) of the annual € 400 - 500 million in external support consist of donations. However, these contributions have declined since 1998. After the United States, Japan and Taiwan, the Netherlands, together with countries like Germany, Denmark and Sweden, are one of the most important donors.

According to information from the Nicaraguan Ministry of Foreign Affairs (SREC), Nicaragua received support from 19 bilateral and 21 multilateral donors (2001). Only 40 percent of the bilateral transfers between 1997 and 2001 was registered at the National System of Public Investment (SNIP). In 2001, 7 multilateral and 10 bilateral donors contributed to the process of decentralisation and the strengthening of municipal capacities. Finland, Denmark, Germany and Sweden were the donors allocating the most resources to the strengthening of local governments and local administration. Apart from bilateral donors, a considerable number of NGOs, development organisations (such as the Dutch SNV) and city linkages also contributed to the strengthening of local governance.

Dutch support to the development of local governance

Decentralisation is a transversal theme in the Dutch development programme with Nicaragua (2003). No specific programmes or projects had been established, neither to

³ At a later stage, LBSNN signed an agreement with INIFORM to standardise procedures.

support decentralisation, nor to support the development of decentralisation or local governance.

The Netherlands financed a project, aimed at strengthening the capacities of local government agencies, that involved several other countries and was implemented by the International Union of Local Authorities (IULA). Nicaragua was one of the countries where this project was carried out. The component in Nicaragua consisted of six projects (total budget of USD 150,000) within the 'Programme for the Training and Development of the Association of Municipalities AMUNIC-VNG'.

The number of 20 registered twinning and friendship relations between Dutch municipalities and local governments in Nicaragua was the highest after those with Spanish municipalities. Apart from the Netherlands, only Germany and the European Union allocate funds to inter-municipal international co-operation in Nicaragua.

6 The development of local governance in Tanzania

The historical development of local governance

For Tanzania, the concept of 'local government' is nothing new. It existed before the colonial period. At that time, local government was sometimes unconnected to local administration. After the Independence, however, local governance went through different phases: from abolition, through re-establishment, to reform, respectively.

Decentralisation policy (1972) led to the abolition of local governments as they had been established during the colonial period. The colonial system was replaced by a deconcentrated administration. In practice, government tasks were managed at the regional level, but controlled and coordinated at the central level. Decentralisation on paper actually meant deconcentration towards the (regional) bureaucratic levels. After the failure of deconcentration policy the Local Authorities were revived in 1984, with the objective to encourage citizen participation in governance at local level, and also to increase the mobilisation of manpower and financial resources for development in order to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of government service delivery. The Zanzibar Declaration (1991) introduced a multi-party system, following the policy recommendations of the international financial institutions. These recommendations were also followed with regard to the liberalisation of the markets, privatisation and opening up the borders to

direct investments. Together with this changed role for the government, another administrative structure was introduced as well.

Political, administrative and legal context

The performance of most public institutions, including the Local Authorities, had not been very successful (Moshi, 1993 and Kiragu, 1998) mainly as a result of the legacy of colonial structures, bad management and the lack of technology (Taylor, 1996 and 2001).

The Local Government Reform Agenda (1996) stated that the capacities and the efficiency of service delivery by local governments to the population formed the justification for the delegation of tasks and mandates from the central government to lower governments. The 'Policy Paper on Local Government Reform' (1998) said that the local government system should be based on political delegation and decentralisation of functions and finances.

In 2003, the Tanzanian government was characterised by a central level (consisting of the Ministries of the President and the Prime Minister, the socio-economic Ministries sector Ministries and regional Secretariats) and a local level rooted in neighbourhoods (towns) and villages. General responsibility for the coordination and implementation of decentralisation policies rested with the Presidents Office - Regional Administration and Local Government (PO-RALG).

Article 146 (1) of the Tanzanian constitution states that the "the purpose of having local government authorities is to transfer powers to the people". However, the constitution then states that local governments assist the central government within a unity state. A certain tension exists between these constitutional articles, though the Tanzanian interpretation is that the unity state is constructed 'bottom-up' and is therefore rooted in the local level. The organisational structure of public administration is either urban or rural. Municipal councils are set up in urban areas, whereas in rural areas these are District councils. The Councils are made up of Committees that assemble to discuss themes put forward by the Ward Development Committees (WDCs). The ward is a geographically delineated area within a District, with its own, elected, government.

In the rural areas, village governments constitute the lowest administrative unit. The village assembly is the highest decision making body, composed of all inhabitants of the village. In that sense, it is compatible to the traditional village structures. However, in

contrast to the traditional form, the village chief is directly elected. Villages may also be large and extensive. Within a rural village area, there are ‘development committees’ or ‘Kintongoji committees’. Similar committees also exist in urban areas, though these - the M’taa - have been delegated more administrative and organisational tasks (for example, regarding waste collection).

The long-term objectives of the Tanzanian government have been laid down in Development Vision 2025. This document pays remarkably little attention to local governance and merely writes that “deliberate efforts must be made to empower the people and catalyse their democratic and popular participation. The strategy should entail empowering local governments and communities and promoting broad-based grassroots participation in the mobilization of resources, knowledge and experience with a view to stimulating initiatives at all levels of society” (Chapter 4, iii).

Since 1984, the government has introduced specific policy measures regarding local governance and democratization:

- bringing the Local Government authorities back to life in 1984;
- starting the Local Government Reform Programme in 1996; and
- restructuring Regional Governance in 1997.

Financial-economic context

Local authorities are dependent upon their harmonious co-operation with the PO-RALG. The Ministry of Finance determines the financial ceiling for current expenses, while the development budget (capital account) depends for 72-77 percent (1997-2001) on allocations from the central budget. Over the period 1997-2001, an average of 17 percent of the national budget was transferred to the Local Authorities. In spite of this high percentage (in the Netherlands it amounts to approximately 15 percent and in South Africa to 3 percent) the resources for investments were highly limited, as 77 percent of the transfers was spent on salaries. No less than 82 percent (2001) of the total revenues of local authorities went to salaries. The percentage of the total amount of available resources taken up by wages and salaries has had a negative effect on the performance of local governments. The high percentage is also a result of the small amounts in absolute terms: on average, local governments only spent € 9 per inhabitant annually (1997-2001).

The autonomous revenues of Local Authorities amounted to approximately 23 percent of the total Local Authority budget (excluding external donations). Since the 1996 Reform

programme, however, revenue was generated at local level, but they were significantly less than projected.

Socio-cultural context

Seppälä (1998) described that local governments maintaining contacts with external donors are usually dealing with one or more rather powerful non-governmental organisations. The donor's approach is usually based on the assumption that the local governments are, or will be, in charge of the development process. Whereas in Western societies several leading actors are involved in, or take responsibility for, various spheres of society, the leading role in all spheres of Tanzanian society is reserved for the public sector. Seppälä (1998) puts a question mark over the fact that donors seem to confirm this role of the government.

Local authorities in Tanzania are facing major problems

In spite of the fact that the resources transferred from the central budget to the lower governments are relatively high in terms of percentage of the total budget, their absolute value is low. Apart from the lack of financial resources, the lack of sufficient and qualified personnel, as well as required equipment, makes it impossible for Local Governments to (adequately) provide (all) services. Consequently, local governments are both distrusted by the population and accused of incapacity by the central government (Ngware, 1997). This puts the legitimacy of the Local Authorities at stake. Local or municipal institutions under the district, municipal or city council are often vulnerable and are regularly undermined by politicians or bureaucrats at the central level. As a result of their disappointing performance, Local Authorities receive little moral and material support from political parties, NGOs, or the private sector.

The hierarchical mind-set of the average civil servant does not contribute to the notion of the separation of power, the decision-making process or resources. The tendency to take decisions at the central level is persistent, even if formal mandates have been delegated to Local Authorities (Wunsch and Olowu, 1998).

Central government support to the development of local governance

The central government has committed itself to reforming the public sector in general and local government in specific. This becomes apparent from the Local Government Reform Agenda (URT, 1996). Local government reform in Tanzania has mainly focussed on four policy areas:

- Political decentralisation, which delegates and ordains power in a framework of regulations and local government procedures.
- Financial decentralisation, which provides the local Councils with discretionary attributes in the field of public finance, including the levying of local taxes.
- Administrative decentralisation, which separates the technical staff members (civil servants) from the respective Ministries and the central level bureaucratic procedures. One of the consequences was a separation from common public service delivery (Public Service Commission).
- A new relation between the central and local governments. This implies a change from hierarchical relations towards inter-governmental relations. Although the central government will keep a certain amount of control over the lower governments, as stated in the constitution, the 1997 Regional Administration Act No.19 and the 1998 local Government Act characterise the relationships between central government and local councils as one between co-administrators.

In 2003, the Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) was the focal point of government efforts regarding decentralisation. It, in turn, was a component of the 1991 Civil Service Reform Programme (CSRP). The Local Government Reform Agenda, 1996-2000, LGRA) was approved and presented to the donors during the 1997 round-table conference.

Government and donors agreed to establish a management unit in the Prime Minister's Office (PMO). Within the PMO, responsibility for the general coordination of the reform rested with Regional Administration and Local Government, PO-RALG).

The LGRA 1996-2000 was made up of six components:

- institutional and legal framework;
- restructuring of local administration;
- governance;
- finance;
- personnel development and management;
- programme management.

One of the two activities of LGRA's Governance component was strengthening the Association of Local Authorities in Tanzania (ALAT). This strengthening of ALAT was supported by a project financed from the Dutch bilateral development co-operation budget and implemented by VNG International. This independent project is included in this

evaluation of the efforts regarding the strengthening of local governance by means of municipal international co-operation (see CD ROM, sub-report C).

Donor support to the development of local governance

Even though the total bilateral and multilateral donor support represented over 11 percent of the Gross National Product (1999) and amounted to an average € 900 per annum (URT, 2002, p. xi), donor contributions to the development of local governance were rather modest. The LGRP was by far the most important activity aimed at the strengthening of local governments and administration. Several external donors were involved in the LGRP, providing social support by means of sectoral basket funding. Apart from the Netherlands, contributions to this fund were also made by the European Commission, Denmark, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Finland, Norway and the UNDCF. Certain donors earmark their contributions, including the Netherlands, that allocated part of its contributions to the strengthening of ALAT's capacity. As far as known, the USAID was the only donor, apart from the Netherlands, that financed a (regional) programme on the strengthening of inter-municipal contacts. However, USAID discontinued this programme, as its effects could not be demonstrated. This had been a demand of the American Department of the Treasury. The Norwegian government supported a number of specific contacts between the Tanga Regional Commissioner and certain districts in Norway. The broader Norwegian programme for municipal international co-operation was not active in Tanzania.

The Dutch programme for inter-municipal co-operation

Dutch bilateral support for Tanzania amounted to approximately € 70 million per annum (Budget 2003). The share of this sum reserved for the development of local governance was exclusively put in the basket fund with other donors. All donors involved in the reform programme supported local governance building through the central level. Apart from the Dutch inter-municipal links, no direct decentralised partnerships existed in 2003.

The Dutch municipal international co-operation programme was not included in the bilateral programme, though it was consistent with the general policy of the Netherlands Embassy in Dar es Salaam of supporting local governance.

7 Context factors and effectiveness of external interventions

Both in South Africa and in Nicaragua the roles and the functions of the public sector had developed further than in Tanzania. In South Africa, the quick and rigorous changes in the structure and the mandates of local governments on the one hand caused a loss of institutional memory and continuity, but, on the other hand, it created modern and new conditions. In the year 2003, the conditions in South Africa were reasonably favourable to the development of local governance: modern administrative legislation was introduced, South Africa had developed its own municipal international co-operation policy and municipal international liaison officers were appointed in the larger cities. In 2003, many things were still 'new' and there was not a lot of 'red tape' yet. It remained to be seen, though, whether Dutch municipalities would be able to think 'big enough'. South African municipalities are very extensive in surface area and in number of inhabitants. This requires approaches and procedures that are different from what Dutch municipalities are accustomed to, for example, regarding co-determination, decentralisation of public services and management. Apart from the change process itself, which has interrupted many existing contacts, there were no indications that context factors in South Africa may have had a negative effect on the effectiveness of GSO supported activities.

In the period 1997-2002, context factors in Nicaragua were less favourable. The general education level of the population is high and lack of technical knowledge appears not to be the main bottleneck for the development of local governance. The bottlenecks are weak management capacity, politisation and the lack of financial resources. Even though, on paper, the national government encouraged decentralisation and local governance, this was unconvincing in practice. The political reality was one of appropriation of power, patronage and a national government retaining centralised control. One example is the fact that Nicaraguan municipalities were highly dependent on their own revenue generating capacities. However, the law did not allow much in that respect. Property tax was by far the most significant source of income for local governments. However, in order to be able to impose taxes, an accurate cadastre and ways to enforce taxation were required. But the cadastres were far from functional and the executive barely offered municipalities facilities to enforce taxation through legal measures. The inter-municipal projects supported by the GSO programme and parallel activities by LBSNN that were financed through European Commission funds supported the development of these cadastres. Also, the central government allocated donor funds for that purpose. However, despite the fact that municipalities were offered little possibilities as far as taxation was concerned, tasks previously implemented by the central government were transferred to the

local level at the same time, without the central government making the required resources available (until 2003). Thus, it was possible to cut the central budget while the position of the municipalities was being undermined, because while resources were not increased, their tasks were. Consequently, popular dissatisfaction was directed at local governments rather than the central government. During many years, the legal framework for decentralisation had been impeded by the government (until 2003).

Had the GSO activities succeeded in effectively strengthening local governance, these strengthened local governments would not have been able to be successful due to numerous legal and economic restrictions. In Nicaragua, context factors had a negative effect on the effectiveness of activities that were supported by the GSO programme.

In Tanzania, very few GSO funded activities produced any results, and therefore it has been impossible to assess whether context factors have had any impact. Field studies did show that the 'reality gap' between a Dutch municipality and its Tanzanian partner is substantial. Co-operation with Tanzanian local governments in the first place demanded a good understanding of the functioning of local governments in that country. Contrary to Nicaragua and South Africa - where local administrations and governments, in spite of their restrictions, were at least operative and functioning - in Tanzania, practically everything required for functioning was lacking, in spite of the political will: knowledge, resources, infrastructure and communication.

With regard to the countries where the GSO programme was implemented, the conclusion can be drawn that context factors in South Africa have been most favourable for the development of local governance, whereas they were least favourable in Nicaragua. Considering the high percentage of total GSO resources (an average of nearly one third) allocated to activities in Nicaragua, the conclusion can be drawn that context factors were not taken into consideration for the development of local governance - neither with regard to the applications submitted by Dutch municipalities, nor for the allocation of subsidies by VNG International, nor for the policies VNG International pursued with regard to the management of GSO resources.

Regarding the countries where the GST programme was implemented, context factors have been highly favourable for local governance. Here, the main factor was that politicians, administrators and civil servants were very interested in the experiences of their European colleagues and eager to be introduced to European practices. One problem

regarding local governments in the Czech Republic was that they are small, sometimes too small to operate as independent units.

In Poland, the local government level is a long-established level within the administrative hierarchy, which remained functioning during the centrally planned economy. Partly due to the support of resources the European Commission had made available (the Phare programme) to administrative and governmental innovation, administrative capacities were substantially improved within a short period of time. The financial position of local governments, as well as the relation government - citizen, were points of interest in Poland. In the Czech Republic, on the other hand, the history of the administrative system has hindered decentralisation. Even though legislation was amended several times after the changes of 1989 and the separation from Slovakia, local governments remained small and relatively powerless. Local governments in the Czech Republic hardly possess any income generating attributes. The lack of qualified civil servants is also more of a challenge in the Czech Republic than in Poland.

Neither of the three developing countries selected had a matured system of local governance. In South Africa, the radical changes in the structure and the implementation of local governance and local administration included drastic reforms regarding geographical distribution and the local interpretations of what the roles of municipalities are. Compared to other countries on the African continent South Africa has established a modern administrative legislation. The roles of local governments have been enshrined in the new constitution. Although financial transfers from the central budget to local governments are relatively limited (approximately 3 percent of the central budget), the basic preconditions for the structural and sustainable strengthening of the role of local governments are met.

In Nicaragua, the local governance structure was more stable, though it has not been supported by an adequate legal framework. Transfers from the national budget have been remarkably small (1.5 percent of the national budget up to 2003, when they were increased), in addition to restricted opportunities for own revenue generation. Political support for the decentralisation process was limited (until 2003).

In Tanzania, local governance had already been established in the colonial period. After a certain period of time, when it was abolished, it was reintroduced in 1984. Local governance in Tanzania is characterised by many weaknesses that partly result from a lack of

financial resources, making the functioning of local governments practically impossible. A relatively large amount of central funds was transferred to lower governments, though in absolute terms, these contributions are limited. The operational weakness of local governance in Tanzania caused a lack of trust among the own constituencies. In Tanzania, the political will for decentralisation is present.

In its appraisal of project proposals, VNG International has paid scant attention to context factors. Municipalities submitting applications did not take national context factors into account either. Both municipalities and VNG International regarded local governments as the instigators of change that need to be supported especially in cases when national context factors are unfavourable. Little attention was given to the idea that strengthened governments should be enabled to develop further in those cases where the efforts to strengthen local governance had been successful.

ANNEX 8 SELECTION OF FINDINGS FROM EVALUATION REPORTS

Table 10B Selection of findings from evaluation reports written under the authority of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Finding

Evaluation KPA - Nicaragua

Executive

DHV Consultants, 1997

The management model of KPA-Nicaragua is based on the co-operation and a division of tasks between VNG and the LBSNN and was established at the request of the Minister for Development Co-operation. In this manner, the Minister made an exception for Nicaragua in the sense that he requested the NCDO to take over 'the rest' of KPA from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (DGIS). VNG is not an intermediary between the Ministry and the NCDO, though it is an intermediary between the Ministry and the LBSNN.

Evaluation GSO programme

DHV Consultants, 1997

The principles of the GSO programme are innovative, support for the objectives is broad-based among municipalities in the Netherlands and in developing countries; the management of resources runs smoothly and reliably and the results point in the expected direction. Development co-operation is not a municipal core task. This implies that either the coordinating officers are overburdened, or that tasks are 'contracted out' to private organisations, so that the municipal apparatus loses some of its 'feeling'. The involvement of managers appears to be a rather personal matter. The GSO programme should facilitate supra-municipal activities, as well as activities between municipalities in the South. The programme should also be made accessible for those civil society organisations in the Netherlands that are directly involved in city linkages.

Evaluation MMTP

NEI, 2001

The MMTP is compatible to the objectives of the GSO programme. It is considered a valuable addition to the other modalities. However, the specific role MMTP fulfils within the GSO programme is not unequivocal. As the MMTP was initiated and organised by VNG International, this modality increases accessibility, particularly for smaller municipalities in the Netherlands. As a result, more municipali

Table 10B Selection of findings from evaluation reports written under the authority of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Finding
Evaluation MMTP

Executive
NEI, 2001

ties in the Netherlands are able join in, which would mobilize more public support for international co-operation. However, MMTPs rarely give cause for stimulating and building structural partnerships between Dutch municipalities and municipalities in developing countries.

Evaluation NEWS

ACE-Europe, 2001

NEWS was mainly based on a political vision of creating civil society support for development co-operation in accession countries. The various parties involved held divergent views regarding the programme's objectives. The plan was deemed 'unrealistically ambitious'. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs' limited ownership of the programme, in addition to VNG International's inadequate capacity to mobilize the manpower and knowledge required for the implementation, led to results that fell short of the expectations.

The programme was too complex to be implemented properly. Only a limited number of projects were aimed at good governance and capacity building of local administrations in developing countries.