



Developing National Sustainable Development Strategies in Post-Conflict Countries

- WORKING DRAFT -

**Development Account Project (ROA 105)
Strengthening National Capacity for the Integration of
Sustainable Development Principles into Development
Strategies in Countries Emerging from Conflict**

**United Nations Department of Economic and Social
Affairs Division for Sustainable Development**

Executive Summary

Concept and approach of the guidance notes

These guidance notes were developed to address the dual challenges of peacebuilding and sustainable development, and, more specifically, provide guidance on **how to approach sustainable development in post-conflict countries**. This document is primarily intended to support national governments of post-conflict countries. In addition, it can support all other actors involved in development processes in post-conflict societies, like civil society organisations, the private sector, donors, and development organisations, as well as country and field-level practitioners. While these guidance notes have been developed for post-conflict countries, the challenges described herein, as well as the solutions offered, are also valid for many countries that are at risk of experiencing violent conflict.

The development of a full-fledged National Sustainable Development Strategies (NSDS) in post-conflict countries often remains unrealistic. To avoid duplicating the plethora of existing strategies, development plans, and donor requirements, these notes take a hands-on and realistic approach to what developing a NSDS in post-conflict country can and should be. The approach of these guidance notes is to **focus on already existing national development strategy and planning processes**--such as Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP) and national visions--and **integrate those elements of NSDS that are possible and useful in the post-conflict context**.

Linking sustainable development and peacebuilding and integrating them into national strategy and planning processes has the potential create synergies and more effective policies that help prevent relapses into conflict. The guidance notes explain **five key elements**, each constituting a building block for successful planning and strategy processes that combine sustainable development and peacebuilding. These five elements are not the only building blocks of a planning and strategy process integrating sustainable development and peacebuilding, but they have been identified as particularly important and often neglected or overlooked.

Five key elements for sustainable development in post-conflict countries

Element 1: Understanding the Conflict. In a post-conflict country, severe security, social, economic, and environmental challenges can easily lead to a relapse into conflict. These challenges can be summarised and structured as follows:

1. Poverty, marginalisation, and vulnerability
2. Unsustainable exploitation of natural resources and environmental deterioration
3. Insecurity, militarization, and lawlessness
4. Societal divisions
5. Poor governance, corruption, and low capacity
6. Poor economic performance, limited fiscal resources, and disruption of infrastructures and public services
7. Regional and external risks

Understanding and analysing these challenges is the starting point of any conflict-sensitive approach or action to prevent conflict. This also includes an understanding of the political economy, which, in turn, is often closely connected to the development of a war economy and groups that have an interest in spoiling peace and prolonging the conflict. But such a conflict and stakeholder analysis is not without its own challenges, since a conflict analysis has to be based on a common understanding of all key stakeholders or it will later not be acted upon. Accordingly, a conflict analysis entails a political negotiation process and management of national stakeholders and donors' expectations. But since time and resources are short in supply, rigour and participation have to be balanced with what is realistically achievable: A 'good enough analysis' that is used and accepted by key stakeholders is better than a rigorous and academic document that nobody reads.

Element 2: Linking sustainable development and peacebuilding. Sustainable development is based on the principle of meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Conceptually, sustainable development can be broken down in three core dimensions:

- **Economy:** Economic sustainability means maximising society's well-being, economic equity, and eradicating poverty through the creation of wealth and livelihoods, equal access to resources, and the optimal and efficient use of natural resources.
- **Society:** Socio-political sustainability means promoting social equity and uplifting the welfare and quality of life by improving access to basic health and education services, fulfilling minimum standards of security and respect for human rights, including the development of diversity, pluralism, and grassroots participation.
- **Environment:** Environmental sustainability means the enhancement and conservation of the environment and natural resources for present and future generations.

The key to balancing these three dimensions is to understand their linkages and interactions. For sustainable development, helping to prevent the relapse into conflict means minimising negative impacts and risks arising from trade-offs among the dimensions and maximising the positive potentials or synergies among the different dimensions. Approaches that have an environmental focus can help to better balance the different dimensions of sustainable development because efforts in a post conflict country normally focus on the social and economic sector. Two sets of approaches are best fit, especially if used in combination. First, approaches that link pro-poor economic development and the environment, because their focus is on livelihoods and poverty (social dimension) and they link economic and environmental sustainability. Second, approaches linking environment, natural resources, and peacebuilding, because they provide the missing link to peacebuilding.

Element 3: Managing sustainable development processes in post-conflict countries: There is no single approach or formula for achieving sustainable development. Balancing the different dimensions and negotiating trade-offs among them is highly context specific and every country has to determine for itself how to approach it best. But there are certain key management principles that are decisive for sustainable development processes. These principles can also support peacebuilding.

- First and foremost, sustainable development processes are based on **participation** and inclusion which in turn can support peacebuilding by (re)building the social contract between a divided citizenry and its government. Participation can also help increase the efficiency of sustainable development strategies through decentralised planning and management, and by capitalising on traditional knowledge and institutions. But participation also has its risks and challenges. If done the wrong way, it can exacerbate tensions and divisions, especially if the expectations of the different stakeholders are not met. Thus, the process has to be based on a thorough understanding of the different stakeholders and their expectations and it has to be designed in a way that minimises these risks.
- The second management principle is to include more **long-term thinking** into planning processes for mid-term goals and short-term actions. This is especially challenging in a post-conflict situation because it is normally dominated by uncertainty, humanitarian crisis, and the need to produce quick peace dividends. But long-term planning helps to avoid unintended long-term impacts or laying certain negative developmental paths that are hard to change. Besides avoiding these negative consequences, long-term goals and visions also provide a useful frame of reference for policy making. A long-term development vision can help ensure policy coherence and unify different actors to strive for a common goal.
- The third principle is **iteration and improvement**. Ideally, every sustainable development process is an iterative and cyclical process. The emphasis is on managing progress toward sustainability goals rather than producing a fixed 'plan'. This means that sustainable development processes encompass analysis, formulation of policies and action plans, implementation, and regular review--in other words, they include feedback loops. This not only allows for adaptation to the volatility of the post-conflict environment, but also affords the opportunity to learn from the past.

Element 4: Building capacities for sustainable development in post-conflict countries. While low capacities are a major challenge for post-conflict countries in general, there are a number of specific obstacles in regard to sustainable development that are often overlooked:

- First, in post-conflict countries **data as well as the capacities to collect, analyse, and feed it into the policy process are often weak**. This hinders the development of effective policies to achieve sustainable development and build peace, like in the case of lost land registries or the repatriation of citizens. Thus, data collection, information management, and capacities for policy analysis should be treated as a priority in the recovery process. This not only entails the development of information infrastructure and systems, like statistical departments, but also increases networking and information sharing among the government and civil society.
- Second, a common consequence of conflict is **weakened institutional linkages**, both within government itself but also between the state and civil society. In order to plan and implement multi-dimensional initiatives, cooperation within the government and with outside actors has to be strengthened. This is often done by creating new institutions, but without management processes that foster cooperation and coherence--for example, through sharing information--these new institutions will be useless. Also, cooperation cannot simply be created by rules and frameworks.

Cooperating actors have to have an interest in cooperating. This interest can be created by providing incentives for cooperation or increasing the costs of not cooperating.

- Third, high aid flows and **the multitude of different organisations and institutions active in post-conflict countries creates its own problems**. First, it makes government ownership, a prerequisite for successful and sustainable development, hard to achieve. Also, high aid flows can lead to rent-seeking and corruption, as well as create real or perceived inequalities and thus exacerbate tensions among social groups. In general, national governments need to take a more proactive role in determining how aid is allocated and managed and hold donors accountable for their actions. In this regard, building long-term relationships based on mutual trust is very important. This, in turn, can be the base to establish mutual accountability mechanisms that hold both recipient governments and donors accountable.
- Fourth, **building and empowering visionary leadership can be a powerful tool for change**. After conflict it can help to secure the much-needed political buy-in for overcoming the legacy of conflict and rebuilding the state. To be effective and helpful, leaders should understand themselves as brokers of peace, guarantors of stability and catalysts for post-conflict development. Their ability to build coalitions around common desires to overcome conflict and crisis is critical. But as institutions progressively get stronger leaders have to allow the transfer power and change their management style accordingly.

Element 5: Sequencing and prioritising policy reforms in post-conflict countries.

It is critically important that reforms in post-conflict countries are gradual and sequential. Successful reforms strengthen the reformers and lay an institutional foundation, as well as political will and legitimacy for more complex reforms. Although transition processes are not linear and vary widely across sectors and countries, three idealised phases can be defined that can provide a frame of reference for setting priorities:

- **Phase I** (0-3 years): Activities in this phase focus on stabilisation, 'quick wins', and identifying priorities. Peacebuilding in this phase means picking the low-hanging fruit to produce first peace dividends and progress. The humanitarian efforts in this phase should have a long-term vision in order to reduce dependency and make the transition to sustainable development easier
- **Phase II** (4-7 years): The main goal of this phase is to transition to normal public service delivery and thus establish and build legitimacy for the government. This is the earliest phase to try to come to terms with the past and start a reconciliation process.
- **Phase III** (8-10 years): In this phase the country moves from externally driven to 'normal' sustainable development processes. More comprehensive planning and strategy processes can commence.

Setting priorities in these phases does not mean that *all* actions are focused on these particular goals. In order to be successful, recovery should encompass actions that work with different time horizons.

Entry points for sustainable development in post-conflict countries

Several entry points exist in post-conflict countries to integrate these five elements. Two types of strategy and planning processes stand out as **main entry points** since most post-conflict countries already have them in place and they have a very broad scope encompassing multiple sectors:

- **National development plans** are periodical development plans normally covering a period of five years and setting out major development objectives. While many developing countries have a long tradition of developing such plans, not every developing country does. Often economic concerns dominate environmental and social concerns.
- **Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers** are a largely donor-driven tool to articulate a vision for growth and poverty reduction, yet they often lack a clear environmental dimension. The fact that almost all post-conflict countries already have a PRSP, or are in the process of developing one, makes them the most realistic and obvious entry point for sustainable development in post-conflict countries.

National development plans, as well as PRSPs, normally have a time horizon of around five years. **National visions**, which normally cover a time span of 20 to 30 years, can complement these development strategies by providing a set of more general long-term goals.

Comprehensive approaches like PRSPs need a certain level of capacity and stability to be successful. This means that these plans are normally developed in Phase III. But there are also opportunities to integrate sustainable development principles that do not require this level of capacity. A number of **donor, peacebuilding, and recovery strategies** can provide earlier entry points:

- **Post Conflict Needs Assessments** have been designed by the United Nations (UN) and the World Bank as entry points for developing post-conflict recovery strategies. PCNAs summarise strategic priorities for recovery since it is impractical to wait for a traditional government implemented plan, like a PRSP. As such, they can be seen as a precursor for more nationally owned and comprehensive planning processes.
- The **UN Peacebuilding Fund (UNPF)** is a multi-donor trust fund. It provides funding for peacebuilding activities that directly contribute to post-conflict stabilisation in the early stages of recovery, especially before donor conferences or other multi-donor trust funds have been organised and set up.
- A **Common Country Assessment (CCA)** is the joint UN assessment and analysis of a country. Based on the CCA, a **UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF)** is created that serves as a strategic framework for UN programming, in most cases for a five-year period.

Another possible entry point is **environmental and natural resources strategies**. Since these strategies already cover the environment, the goal here is to link them with the social and economic dimension of sustainable development as well as peacebuilding. Specifically, National Forest Programmes, as well as convention-specific plans like National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plans, stand out as entry

points in this regard. The experiences and lessons learned here can later be used as a starting point or input for more comprehensive approaches.

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Check Lists:

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Abbreviations

CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CCA	Common Country Assessment Frameworks
CDC	Community Development Council
CoP	Conference of the Parties
CSC	Combat, Shadow and Coping
DDR	Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration
ECLAC	United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
ENVSEC	Environment and Security Initiative
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GTZ	German Development Cooperation
IFP-EW	Initiative for Peacebuilding Early Warning
IEA	Integrated Environmental Assessments
IDPs	Internally Displaced People
IISD	International Institute for Sustainable Development
IOM	International Organization for Migration
I-PRSP	Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
IRF	Immediate Response Facility
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NAPAs	National Adaptation Programmes of Action
NBSAP	National Biodiversity Strategy and

	Action Plans
NCSA	National Capacity Self-Assessment for Global Environmental Management
NCDS	National Capacity Development Strategy
NCSO	National Councils for Sustainable Development
NDP	National Development Plans
NEAP	National Environmental Action Plans
NFP	National Forest Programme
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NSP	National Solidarity Program
OECD	Organization for Economic Co- operation and Development
OECD DAC	OECD Development Assistance Committee
PCNA	Post-Conflict Needs Assessment
PPA	Participatory Poverty Assessment
PRF	Peacebuilding & Recovery Facility
PROFOR	Program on Forests
PRSPs	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
REDD	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation
SEA	Strategic Environmental Assessments
TOKTEN	Transfer of Knowledge Through Expatriate Nationals
UN	United Nations
UNCED	UN Conference on Environment and Development
UNDAF	UN Development Assistance Frameworks

UNDESA	UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDG	UN Development Group
UNDP	UN Development Program
UNDP BCRR	UNDP Crisis Prevention and Recovery - Disaster Reduction Unit
UNEP	UN Environmental Program
UNESCAP	UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
UNFCCC	UN Framework Convention on Climate Change
UN Habitat	UN Human Settlements Programme
UNHCR	UN High Commissioner for Refugees
UNPF	UN Peacebuilding Fund
UN REDD	UN Collaborative Programme on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation
UNSSC	UN System Staff College
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WACCAF	Water, Crisis, and Climate Change Assessment Framework
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development

1 Introduction

In 1992, the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) adopted the Rio Declaration and Agenda 21, declaring “Governments, in cooperation where appropriate with international organizations, should adopt a national strategy for sustainable development [...] This strategy should build upon and harmonize the various sectoral, economic, social and environmental policies and plans that are operating in the country” (UNCED 1992a). Eight years later, in 2000, 147 heads of state reaffirmed this commitment by signing the Millennium Declaration, which, though the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) aimed to “integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs” (UN 2000). Ten years after the UNCED, a follow-up conference, the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD), was held in 2002 to renew the global commitment to sustainable development.

But 1992 was not only an important year for putting sustainable development on the map. It also witnessed the creation of the Agenda for Peace, introduced by then-UN Secretary-General Boutros-Ghali. The number of peacekeeping missions rose steeply in the 1990s and early 21st century and the United Nations played a significant role in dealing with and managing the growing number of conflicts around the world. But the UN’s role was not limited to peacekeeping. It expanded to building peace through sustainable development and promoting more stable and resilient states. By 2005, these new organizational efforts to promote peace became institutionalised with the creation of the UN Peacebuilding Commission, the key aims of which include proposing integrated strategies for post-conflict peacebuilding and recovery.

1.1 Purpose and target audience

These guidance notes were developed to address the dual challenge of peacebuilding and sustainable development, and, more specifically, provide guidance on how to approach sustainable development in post-conflict countries. The existing literature on National Sustainable Development Strategies, however, does not address the specific challenges of post-conflict countries, nor does it address how to build and sustain peace. This limited understanding of connections between sustainable development and peacebuilding can lead to missed opportunities. However, there is guidance on how to link development and peacebuilding (World Bank 2005a, b, UNDP 2008), as well as how to link environment and peacebuilding (UNEP 2009a, b). Integrating environment and peacebuilding into national strategies and planning processes fosters the creation of synergies and more effective policies to help prevent relapses into conflict. Especially in countries in which natural resources play a major role in conflict, sustainable development can help overcome legacies of conflict. In other post-conflict countries, sustainable development folds in key elements of building a stable state and helps to identify policies, actions, and strategies that combine economic, social, and environmental goals and at the same time build peace. For example, public works

programs to create employment for demobilised combatants can be used to restore damaged ecosystems that provide essential services for vulnerable population groups.

To avoid duplication of existing strategies, development plans, and donor requirements, these guidance notes take a hands-on and realistic approach to what a NSDS can contribute to peacebuilding in a post-conflict country.

Devising a NSDS is a highly complex and challenging endeavour, even for a developed country. The effort is only greater complicated by the specific challenges and limitations of post-conflict countries. As a result, it is important to hone in on what is possible. Setting up a completely new strategy process is only one way to develop a NSDS (UNDESA 2009d). As an alternative, many countries integrate sustainable development into their Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) or other comprehensive national development strategies. Other countries concentrate on strategies that focus on the environmental and natural resource dimension of sustainable development and integrate economic and social dimensions (UNDESA 2009d: 5).

While it promotes sustainability as a development principle, NSDS also offers a distinct management approach, as it provides a coordinated, participatory, and iterative process of strategy development and actions to achieve economic, environmental, and social objectives in a balanced and integrated manner (UNDESA 2001). Further, it emphasises the importance of participation in contrast to centralised top-down planning. And the ultimate goal of NSDS is to move a country toward sustainable development with ample learning along the way. These guiding management principles of NSDS can contribute to build peace and more stable states.

In an effort to provide the most value added, these guidance notes focus on already existing national development strategies and planning processes, like PRSP and national visions, and integrate those elements of NSDS that are realistic and useful in the post-conflict context. This document includes background, lessons learned, and hands-on instruction on how to integrate sustainable development into existing national development strategy and planning processes in post-conflict countries. The uniqueness of each local context disallows for calling any guidance notes blueprints, and these notes should not be read as such. They build upon the 'Guidance in Preparing a National Development Strategy' (UNDESA 2002), but are specifically adapted to the post-conflict context. As such, they consider the specific challenges a post-conflict country faces and focus on the key elements of NSDS processes that are useful, beneficial and realistic to achieve in a post-conflict environment.

They are primarily aimed to support national governments of post-conflict countries. In addition, however, they can support all other actors involved in development processes, like civil society organisations, the private sector, donors, and development organisations, and especially country and field-level practitioners.

While these guidance notes have been developed for post-conflict countries, the challenges described, as well as the solutions offered, are also valid for many countries considered at risk of violent conflict.

Finally, this document is based on the latest thinking in sustainable development and peacebuilding, incorporating a wide array of experience from within and beyond the

UN. It is important, however, to view this as a developing and living document. Testing and using these guidance notes will lead to new insights and experiences. Ultimately, this document will be revised and adapted as the world changes, new challenges arise, and national governments and international donors work together to build more stable and sustainable states.

1.2 How to use the guidance notes

These guidance notes give a comprehensive introduction into sustainable development and peacebuilding. The conceptual approach and structure of the document is twofold:

- 1. Generic Guidance:** Chapters 2 through 6 give generic guidance on how to integrate sustainable development and peacebuilding into any planning and strategy process in a post-conflict country. These chapters contain five key elements, each constituting a building block of the planning and strategy process. While these are not the only building blocks, they have been identified as particularly important to successful integration of sustainable development and peacebuilding. The elements need not be accomplished in sequence, although the assessments and analysis of element 1 and 2 should be done in the early stages of a strategy process.
- 2. Entry Points and Specific Guidance:** Chapter 7 focuses on key entry points for sustainable development and peacebuilding in post-conflict countries. It gives specific guidance on how to integrate sustainability and peacebuilding into different planning and strategy processes that are used in post-conflict countries. All generic guidance given prior remains applicable here, and specific recommendations are not intended to duplicate previous guidance, but rather refine and add to it, where possible. This chapter puts its focus on more comprehensive planning and strategy processes, like PRSPs and national development plans that are identified as main entry points. It also covers key donor, peacebuilding, and recovery strategies, like Post-Conflict Needs Assessments, as well as examples of sectoral approaches to handling environment and natural resources that are connected to international processes like the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) and National Forest Programs. Finally, it should be noted that the guidance varies in structure and detail among the different strategy and planning processes, due to the very different nature of these processes, as well as to the availability of lessons learned.

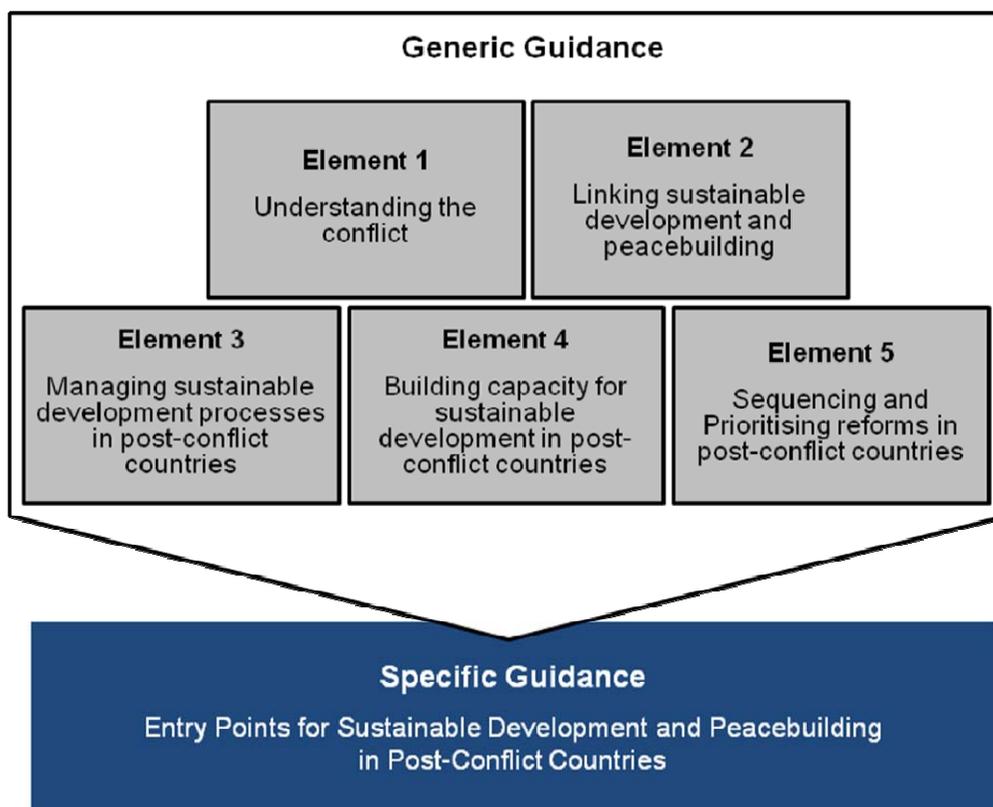


Figure 1 Conceptual approach of the guidance notes

Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual approach of the guidance notes. It is recommended that users of this document begin by reading Chapters 2 through 6 on Elements 1 to 5, and then advance to chapter 7 on the entry points, since the generic guidance serves as the basis for specific guidance and gives an introduction to all the concepts applied in Chapter 7. Also, all generic guidance is applicable to the specific strategy and planning processes explained in Chapter 7 and will not be repeated there. Chapter 7 only includes additional, entry point specific guidance refining the generic guidance.

The chapters are generally structured in the following way:

1. Introduction and explanation of key concepts;
2. Description of **goals, advantages, risks and challenges**, and **guidance and lessons learned**;
3. Information boxes that include **case studies** and **in-depth information** highlighting certain points made;
4. List of information sources that can be used as a starting point (**building upon existing analysis**);
5. **Check lists**; and
6. List of further **tools and resources** to support your work.

Since the topics covered are different and the availability of guidance and lessons learned varies, not all chapters necessarily include all of these points.

To provide orientation, the following symbols are used throughout the document:

Glossary of symbols	
	Goals
	Advantages
	Risks and challenges
	Guidance and lessons learned
	Check list
	Building upon existing analysis
	Case study
	In-depth information
	Tools and resources

Figure 2 Glossary of symbols

In addition, each chapter that includes guidance will have a small table in the beginning of the chapter outlining the points covered, following a short review of the five key elements, to give a quick overview of Chapters 2 to 6:

The starting point of any conflict-sensitive approach or action to prevent conflict is a thorough understanding of the conflict. Developing this understanding is the **first element --Understanding the conflict**—and the focus of Chapter 2. This chapter starts by outlining key challenges of post-conflict countries in regard to conflict. A special focus is put on the difficult political economy of post-conflict countries. The guidance in this chapter explains how to conduct conflict analysis. *The goal of the first element is to understand the conflict in order to act in a conflict-sensitive way and identify peacebuilding priorities.*

After understanding the challenges post-conflict countries face, Chapter 3 focuses on how to approach these challenges by explaining the **second element--Linking sustainable development and peacebuilding**—or, in other words, how sustainable development as a development approach can help address the key challenges outlined in Chapter 2. This section begins by explaining the hidden meaning and elements behind the ubiquitous, but often poorly understood, term sustainable development and how it can contribute to peacebuilding. The guidance in this chapter focuses on approaches that try to link the environment and pro-poor economic growth as well as environment and peacebuilding. *The goal of the second element is to identify ways in which sustainable development can support peacebuilding.*

While Chapter 3 explains sustainable development as a development approach, Chapter 4 focuses on NSDS processes as a specific management approach. NSDS contains certain key management principles that are not only decisive in achieving sustainable development but can also support peacebuilding. These key management

principles constitute the **third element--How to manage sustainable development processes in post-conflict countries**. Specifically, the principles of this element are participation, long-term perspective, and iteration and improvement. *The goal of the third element is to improve process management by integrating key management principles of NSDS processes.*

Besides the challenges outlined in Chapter 2, post-conflict countries also face a number of specific capacity challenges in regard to sustainable development. Overcoming these obstacles is the **fourth element--Building capacities for sustainable development in post-conflict countries**--outlined in Chapter 5. This element does not cover all capacity challenges a post-conflict country faces but focuses on some critical capacities needed for devising sustainable development strategies, like capacities for policy analysis, leadership, and donor management. Each sub-chapter reviews one challenge and contains guidance on how to surmount obstacles before embarking on more comprehensive reforms or programs. *The goal of the fourth element is to overcome critical capacity challenges for developing and planning sustainable development strategies.*

Another important concept for peacebuilding and development in post-conflict countries is the **fifth element, Prioritisation and sequencing of policy reforms in post-conflict countries**. Chapter 6 outlines the concept of defining major post-conflict development phases and illustrates this concept by explaining reforms and priorities in key policy sectors, such as environment and natural resources, social service provision, and the economy. *The goal of the fifth element is to prioritise and sequence reforms along the post-conflict development phases.*

2 Element 1: Understanding the Conflict

Historical evidence has shown that 25 to 50 percent of post-conflict countries fall back into conflict within a few years (UNDP 2008: 16). To prevent such relapses, it is critical that development and peacebuilding activities in post-conflict countries only go forward once practitioners and policymakers have a thorough understanding of potential conflict dynamics, drivers, and risk multipliers¹. Fully understanding the context in which a post-conflict country is operating is at the core of **conflict-sensitive development** (Fewer et al. 2003). Accordingly, conflict analysis is the first element of the generic guidance and constitutes the first building block for successful sustainable development in post-conflict settings. In fact, it should be the first step of any development activity in a post-conflict country, especially when trying to prevent a relapse into conflict.

This chapter provides guidance on how to analyse conflicts and identify important conflict drivers and risk multipliers that have to be addressed to prevent relapses into conflict. Beginning with a description of key conflict-related challenges for post-conflict countries, the chapter then explains in detail the political economy of post-conflict countries and how it relates to and interacts with many conflict drivers and risk multipliers. This section serves as background information for conflict analysis. The last sub-chapter provides practical guidance on how to conduct conflict analysis, and includes a discussion of the various political risks and obstacles often involved in government-led conflict analysis.

Defining key terms 1 What is a post-conflict country?

The concept of a post-conflict country became harder to define with the movement away from large-scale interstate wars with formal surrender, negotiated cessation of hostilities, and peace talks followed by peace treaties. Today, conflicts are often smaller and protracted on the intra-state level. In addition, hostilities often do not end with a peace agreement. Spoiler groups, which have an interest in prolonging conflict, often try to derail the process to peace. Post-conflict countries are thus better understood as countries engaged in efforts to achieve peace. The post-conflict process involves a number of transition steps—called “peace milestones”—and includes:

- Cessation of hostilities and violence;
- Signing of political/peace agreements;
- Demobilization, disarmament, and reintegration of former combatants;
- Refugee repatriation;

¹ Conflict drivers and risk multipliers are terms used to describe features of the natural resource base, economy, social structures, and political environment that impact the likelihood of conflict. This does not mean that there is an automatic causality. Conflicts are very complex and their outbreak and escalation always depends on multiple interrelated factors. This is also why the term “conflict cause” is not used here. The World Bank, instead, uses the term “conflict factor” to discuss conflict drivers and risk multipliers (World Bank 2005a: 8).

- Establishing the foundations of a functioning state;
- Initiating reconciliation and societal integration; and
- Commencing economic recovery.

If a country does not backslide on too many of these milestones, it is likely to continue moving toward peace and “normal” development.

Sources: Brown et al. 2007, UNDP 2008

2.1 Key Challenges

The following seven key challenges are most common in post-conflict countries and important for understanding potential relapses into conflict. Based on the UN-developed human security approach, these challenges adopt a people-centred approach, meaning they emphasise the importance of individual security defined as “freedom from want” and “freedom from fear” instead of simply focusing on the state and its means to ensure security. These challenges, then, are based on a broad understanding of security that encompasses secure livelihoods, human rights, and the environment (for more information see UNDP 1994 and Commission on Human Security 2004).

The following challenges overlap and interact. In addition, the list does not claim to be comprehensive. Rather, it primarily serves to identify major conflict drivers and risk multipliers that post-conflict countries face and for which sustainable development and NSDS management principles provide points of entry:

- 1. Poverty, Marginalisation, and Vulnerability:** Poverty is the main challenge to sustainable development and is closely related to conflict (World Bank 2005a: 7, UNDESA n.d.: 10). Inequalities among culturally, ethnically, or socially defined groups—so-called horizontal inequalities—often instigate violent conflict. These inequalities relate to economic opportunities, access to land and natural resources, standards of living, and other socio-economic indicators (Stewart et al. 2007). They can go hand-in-hand with broader political marginalisation (i.e. uneven political influence and power). Vulnerabilities and marginalisation can fuel grievances and be co-opted to mobilise groups along ethnic, religious, cultural, or regional lines, eventually leading to conflict (Brown et al. 2007: 20, Stewart 2000, World Bank 2005a: 7). Perceptions of injustice and inequality can play a significant role in turning marginalisation into conflict (Gehrig and Rogers 2009); two especially vulnerable groups are returning refugees and internally displaced people (IDPs). Sometimes, however, inequalities are about geographic, not social or economic, marginalisation, such as rural-urban disparities or disparities between resource-rich and lesser-endowed regions (World Bank 2005a: 30). **Challenge 1: Fight poverty and inequality.**
- 2. Unsustainable exploitation of natural resources and environmental deterioration:** Violent conflict can be detrimental to the environment, which can, in turn, exacerbate poverty and have ripple effects on the livelihoods of local populations (UNDESA n.d.: 10-11). These impacts can be direct by damaging

natural resources and ecosystems, for example, through hazardous substances or overtaxing renewable resources before they have time to replenish or regenerate. But impacts can also be indirect and created by coping strategies of local populations and displaced people in emergency situations or via uncontrolled overexploitation. For example, in the Democratic Republic of Congo, uncontrolled exploitation of natural resources, like coltan, has destroyed and polluted agricultural land, and illegal logging has seriously impacted wildlife. In addition, institutions to protect environment and/or manage conflicts over natural resources are few, and those that do exist have become substantially weakened (UNEP 2009b: 15, UNDP 2008: 23). For example, protected area authorities and conservation organisations are often forced to abandon parks and reserves as armed groups move in. In this situation, environmental problems and conflicts over natural resources can perpetually destabilise communities and fuel conflict. These conflicts can be scarcity-driven, like many conflicts over land and water, but they can also be abundance-driven. In such cases, the resource itself and the wealth and power linked to it become a source of conflict. Natural resources and the institutions managing them can sustain conflict by financing belligerents. Individuals or groups may undermine peace efforts because they could lose access over revenues generated by resource exploitation (UNDESA n.d.: 10-11, UNEP 2009b). In addition, the negative impacts of resource exploitation and the inequitable sharing of economic benefits can be driver of grievances among affected populations.

Challenge 2: Manage natural resources sustainably and equitably.

- 3. Insecurity, militarisation, and lawlessness:** As a result of prolonged conflict, institutions in post-conflict states are often weak, and Trust in these institutions—the major functions of which include public security and law enforcement— may have been lost over the course of a conflict. Non-state armed groups are often still active and strong in post-conflict societies. And unless disarmament programs are fully implemented, weapons may remain easily available, military spending of the state may remain high, and traditional power structures may continue to be distorted (World Bank 2005a: 31-32). Such militarisation and insecurity often manifests itself in human rights abuses and violent crime. To build legitimacy, it is critical to establish a sense of security and justice. Without a reliable and functioning judiciary in a post-conflict society, violence is likely to continue as a means to settle disputes (UNDP 2008: 33). In many countries, truth and reconciliation commissions have played an important role and created a foundation for conflict resolution capacities (UNDESA n.d.: 30). At the same time the security sector has to be reformed and non-state armed groups demobilised and integrated into society. These issues are often connected to informal war and shadow economies (for a definition, please see section 2.2) that thrive in lawless environments and provide income for actors undermining peace, be it state or non-state security forces or criminals. **Challenge 3: Built legitimacy for state institutions by providing security and functioning systems of law and justice.**
- 4. Societal Divisions:** Conflict often leads to the polarisation of societies. Politicisation, stereotyping, and atrocities during conflict erode social capital among groups, while social capital within groups is strengthened. As a result, group identities and ties within these groups are strengthened while the bridges between different societal groups are weakened or destroyed (World Bank 2005a: 30-31).

This becomes especially problematic if these divisions are mirrored in governance institutions and result in exclusion, inequities, socio-economic stratification, vulnerability, or marginalisation. Without addressing these divisions, peace remains unstable. A more specific challenge in this regard is weak leadership stemming from the lack of legitimate leadership based on a national constituency that represents all societal groups (UNDESA n.d.: 13). **Challenge 4: Build trust among social groups.**

- 5. Poor governance, corruption, and low capacity:** “One of the most broad-reaching casualties of violent conflict and war is the decimation of government institutions and organizational linkages” (UNDESA n.d.: 11-12). Poor coordination among local and national institutions, formal and traditional institutions, the state and the (newly developing) civil society is often a hallmark of post-conflict societies. As a result, competition, overlapping authorities, or even a power vacuum can develop (UNDESA n.d.: 11-12, UNDP 2008: 22). Weak institutions also tend to suffer from corruption and “brain drain”, whereby the most skilled parts of the population migrate during conflict. These Diasporas also often serve as channels for out-migration after the end of conflict (UNDP 2008: 28). Besides the direct effect of reducing human capital through death and migration, conflicts also have a negative effect on human capital, specifically on education. During and after conflict, access to education is severely restricted. This has long-term consequences for recovery and economic development (UNDP 2008: 30-31). In general, corruption and low capacity hinder the ability of the state to tackle any of the challenges outlined here. **Challenge 5: Build capacity and fight corruption.**
- 6. Poor economic performance, limited fiscal resources, and disruption of infrastructure development and public service provision:** Damaged infrastructure, scarce employment opportunities, reduced foreign investment, big shadow economies, and increased capital flight are all challenges for a country faced with poor or bad governance. The government’s inability to collect taxes, manage resources, implement policy, and uphold the rule of law limits the possibilities for post-conflict recovery and economic growth (World Bank 2005a: 7). Countries with inadequate abilities to perform basic operations also tend to be poor at fighting poverty, providing adequate social services, and realising peace dividends. These countries are further in danger of conflict if they experience severe underemployment or unemployment of young males, who feel frustrated and marginalised by the lack of opportunities and social recognition. This alienation can make them more susceptible for recruitment by armed groups (UNDP 2008: 21-22, Goldstone 2001, Urdal 2004). In addition, anti-person mines and explosive remnants of war (for example, ordnance and munitions) can be a serious obstacle to a country’s conflict recovery, as they can continue to injure and kill civilians, as well as restrict access to agricultural land, water, and infrastructure. **Challenge 6: Create inclusive economic growth and employment, and provide basic public services.**
- 7. Regional and external risks:** Post-conflict countries not only face challenges within their borders but also from beyond. On the one hand, interventions or support from beyond borders can have destabilising effects if they are not sensitive to the context. For example, excessive food aid may distort local market prices. Also, rival states might intervene with the goal of destabilisation. Kinship ties of social groups in

neighbouring states and political rivalries between states can lead to interventions and support of conflict groups by providing material support or safe heavens, for example. Diasporas can also support different conflict groups. Yet on the other hand, conflicts have a tendency to develop so called spill-over effects, especially if borders are porous. Refugees and armed groups moving across borders, as well as small-arms proliferation, pose significant threats (World Bank 2005a: 32). **Challenge 7: Address and mitigate regional or external risks.**

2.2 Understanding the political economy of post-conflict countries

The political context, including the political economy² and power relations of a post-conflict country, are largely shaped by the outcomes of the seven challenges listed in the previous section. Developing and implementing strategies for sustainable development, as well as peacebuilding, require an understanding of this political context, particularly identifying what kinds of reforms are needed and possible (UNDP 2008: xxi).

Understanding how war economies function is paramount to understanding the political economy of post-conflict countries. When conflict breaks out, a country's economic activities do not stop, but rather change. These activities move away from the formal into the informal sector, thereby reshaping patterns of accumulation, exchange, and distribution. At the same time, criminal activities and patterns of violent predation thrive during war (UNDP 2008: 15), leading to the development of so-called war economies, which are driven by politicians, commanders, and fighters, who are interested in generating new forms of profit, power, and protection (Fewer et al 2003: 5). Weak state control and corruption feed into these war economies and as they develop the competition for profit, power, and protection further consumes and undermines already weak state institutions.

Since certain actors benefit from conflict, vested interests in perpetuating conflict and spoiling peace are created. For many years, conflicts were primarily understood as originating from unaddressed grievances, like religious or ethnic discrimination, but at the end of the 1990s, greed and the benefits arising out of conflict began to receive more attention in research. Although there is nothing new about armies using natural resources to sustain their fighting capacity, authors have carried the economic argument one step further by claiming that many of today's civil wars have become principally driven by natural resource-based wealth accumulation (Collier 2003, Collier and Hoeffler 2004, Collier et al. 2006). For example, Reno (2000: 57) argues that warfare should be understood as "an instrument of enterprise and violence as a mode of accumulation." So, whereas the availability of resources used to be perceived as creating an opportunity to engage in conflict, the struggle for these resources has now become a principle object or motive for armed conflict (de Koning et. al, 2007). But most of the time the political economy of conflicts cannot be simply reduced to either

² Political economy is a term used to explain how political institutions, the political environment, and the economy interact and influence each other.

explanation – greed or grievance. Rather, it is a combination and interplay of greed and grievance motives (Fewer et al. 2003a: 5). One often observed dynamic is a shift from grievance to greed. For example, a marginalised and oppressed group picks up arms to fight for their cause. To finance their fight they start illegal commercial activities like drug trade or plundering natural resources. As conflict progresses, these illegal commercial activities become an end in itself, and can lead to new kinds of inequity that fuel new cycles of violence.



In-depth information 1 Conflict Resources

The interaction between resources and conflict is complex, and the mechanisms by which resources lead to conflict are difficult to trace (Ross 2006: 206). The challenges mentioned in Section 2.1 often interact to create the context for resource conflicts. For example, the governance ability of the state has a strong influence on how a state manages its resources and controls access to them. Also, the likelihood of competition over resources to turn into (violent) conflict often depends on inequality among and marginalisation of certain population groups.

In addition, there are certain factors that are closely connected to the characteristics of the resources itself. These characteristics have been shown to influence the dynamics of resource conflicts:

- **Geographical location:** Resources can be geographically concentrated or widely dispersed. This can create different types of armed conflict. For instance, more concentrated resources tend to lead to coup d'états or separatists movements, while dispersed resources are more likely to lead to rebel movements and warlords. Another spatial factor influencing conflict occurs when resources are located further away from government control, thus making it harder to monitor and manage access to the resource (Le Billon 2001, Auty 2001).
- **Ability to exploit:** While the ability to exploit a resource does not make the outbreak of conflict more likely, it can intensify and prolong conflicts if resources are easily exploitable (Feil and Switzer 2004; Ross 2004, Lujala et al. 2005). The degree to which a resource can be exploited is dependent on a variety of factors. For example, oil needs high capital investments in infrastructure to exploit and transport it. Thus it is more likely to be controlled by the government. Gold, timber, and alluvial diamonds, on the other hand, can be exploited by artisanal miners. These resources are also described as “lootable”. Also, raw materials for narcotics like poppy and coca are fairly easy to cultivate.
- **Markets:** Resources need to be lucrative and marketable, otherwise exploitation makes no sense. This means, in addition to being exploitable or lootable, there also has to be access to a (global) market where these resources can be sold for a high enough prices (Ross 2004). Particular as part of war economies, shadow markets may emerge as a consequence (see below).

Conceptually, economic activities in war economies can be categorised into activities that help to wage war, profit from it, or simply survive it (UNDP 2008: 37-39). This distinction can help in understanding war economies, which can be divided accordingly into combat, shadow, and coping economies:

- **Combat economies** create the revenues to sustain and finance conflict through extortion and forced labour, for example.
- **Shadow economies** are outside the control and regulation of the state. The economic actors exploit weak governance, high corruption, and porous borders. Shadow economies include but are not limited to combat economies. Sometimes shadow economies are also called underground, informal, or parallel economies (Schneider and Enste 2002).
- **Coping economies** refer to the economic activities of the civilian population that tries to survive and cope with conflict.

These different categories overlap, and goods and services can play different roles in each economy (also see figure 2). One example is opium in Afghanistan: It serves as financing for armed groups, who tax economic actors in the shadow economy like smugglers, but is produced by farmers that use poppy growing as a coping strategy (UNDP 2008: 39).

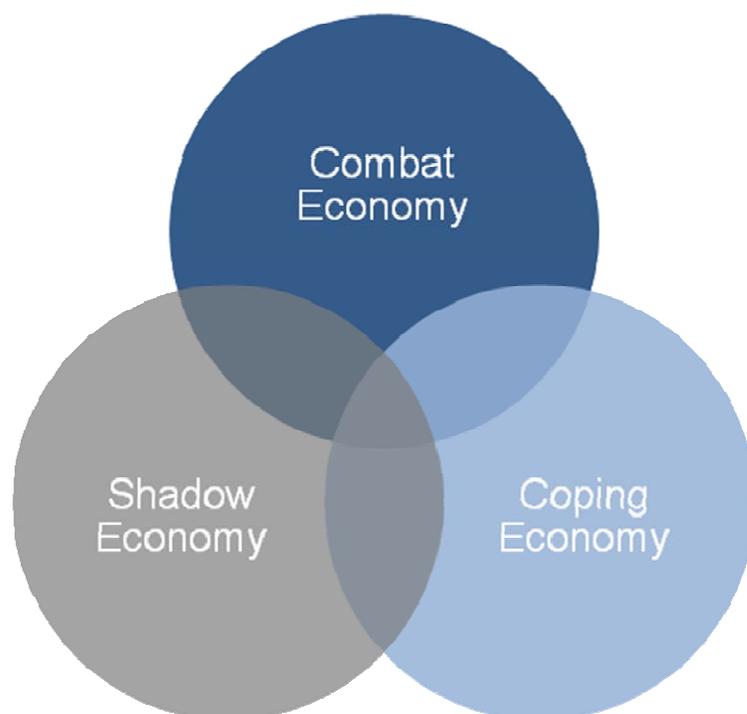


Figure 3 War economies

From the perspective of sustainable development, these three types of economies create problems. To stay with the example of Afghanistan, the combination of combat, shadow, and coping (CSC) economies may create wealth and provide livelihoods for some in times of war, but the fragile and violent situation puts limits on both. The perpetual violence and fear of repression in this situation prevents the elimination of poverty or improving the quality of life and thus societal sustainability. Furthermore, a focus on coping and criminal activities, as well financing war efforts, often pushes environmental issues aside.

While this categorisation into different economic classes might seem like a primarily academic distinction, it helps to understand the problems and legacies stemming from

war economies. Often combat and shadow economies continue to function and undermine peace and hinder development since actors who profit from these economies are interested in sustaining them and/or conflict. For example, elites who profit from war often are those who are in power after conflict ends. Their interest in creating transparent fiscal systems, economic justice and regulation, and restoring public services and general welfare might be limited (UNDP 2008: 29). However, this is not only an elite problem: This may include individuals who learned to survive in a coping economy and have little trust in a new system. It reinforces the need for participatory processes to provide a platform for convincing potential spoilers to cease objection – and thus gain legitimacy.

2.3 How to analyse a conflict

There are a multitude of conflict analysis tools and methodologies (see tools and resources below). The conceptual approach of many conflict analysis tools is based on distinguishing among different conflict factors:

- **Root or structural causes:** These long-term causes—like social and political marginalisation, unequal access to resources, and inequalities—lie at the heart of conflict, and include such.
- **Destabilising or proximate factors** generated by the conflict: A long-lasting conflict normally transforms and changes. What was initially a root cause of the conflict can become less important. War economies that develop during a conflict are a good example; economic interests created by the conflict can become more important factors than the initial structural causes that lead to the outbreak of conflict.
- **Trigger Factors:** Often tensions and grievances build up over a long time until a certain event or actor triggers the outbreak of violence—for example, the assassination of a political leader or a coup d'état. While structural causes create conflict potential, trigger factors are the immediate cause that leads to a violent escalation.

You will find in this section	
	Guidance and lessons learned
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Check list
	Building upon existing analysis
	Tools and resources

These conceptual distinctions can be of value in two ways: First, trigger factors are hard to tackle since they are very unpredictable. Also, it is often impossible to exactly pin down how root causes and trigger factors interact (Maier 2010: 39). This means that trigger factors normally cannot be directly addressed by sustainable development. What can be addressed, however, are proximate factors and structural causes. Second, although root causes were the initial conflict cause, proximate factors are often more urgent since they can be the main risk factors in regard to relapse into conflict. This is why we discussed and explained proximate factors in detail as part of the political economy of post-conflict countries.

Since conflicts change over time, it is also important to closely analyse the conflict dynamic – the way the conflict developed in the past and how it might develop in the future. A common problem is that conflicts are inherently complex and, thus, hard to

predict. One way to deal with this uncertainty and complexity is to develop different possible scenarios (for more information on scenario planning see Chapter 4.2).

But time is not the only factor to keep in mind; space plays an equally important role. Sometimes conflicts affect certain areas more or differently than others. For example, the Lord's Resistance Army is a Ugandan insurgent group, mostly active in the North. The conflicts the group instigated devastated only parts of the country, while the rest was able to develop more steadily (Brown et al. 2007: 16). Thus it is also important to understand how conflict affects different areas, what the specificities of these areas are, and how that may have created new imbalances and different needs among regions (cf. Fewer et al. 2003: 8).

To really understand the conflict factors and risk multipliers, a conflict analysis should also include an analysis of different actors, their interests, and their actions. This is also called a **stakeholder analysis** or actor mapping. According to the definition of political economy detailed above, actors in post-conflict countries can be broadly assigned to one of three ideal types (Debiel and Terlinden 2005: 5-6):

- 1. Reformers**, who drive the transformation process toward the rule of law, democracy, transparency, and participation. Their careers are linked with the visible success of their reforms and ability to mobilise support. This does not mean that they are solely career-driven, since most of them strongly believe in the reforms they are pushing forward.
- 2. Opportunists** are oriented toward the status quo, since they enjoy a certain level of status, privilege, income, and power in the existing system. Due to the risks involved, they do not reject all reforms but lack the incentive to actively support them. Faced with the possibility of loss of status, they can turn into spoilers, but if they see benefits in reform, they can also turn into reformers.
- 3. Spoilers** want to sustain the status quo since their status; power, income, and/or identity depend on the existing situation. They might try to use their physical power (armed groups), financial power (business people), or socio-cultural power (religious or traditional leaders) to maintain the status quo. They are often dependent on or linked to the combat or shadow economy. Sometimes spoiler groups can also be external, with links to groups beyond the border, for example, or connections to neighbouring communities.

This list is general and partial. It is not meant to be used to pre-label certain groups as spoilers to exclude them from reform processes, but to better the understanding of which groups can be obstacles for peace and reform. The examples here are only illustrations of the points made. For example, religious leaders and business people can of course also be reformers. Also, these categories often overlap since some groups are able to take on different roles in different sectors. For example, a group might oppose reform in one sector while supporting reform in another one. To understand the different actors it is important to analyse the following categories:

- Interests (stated and hidden);
- Resources and power (base); and
- Relationships to other actors

Guidance and lessons learned:

- **Time and resource constraints:** “The ability to use some of the better-known, complex and comprehensive donor-designed tools for conflict analysis in a fully participatory manner within a tight timeframe remains in question (Sherriff 2009: 95).” Thus, *be realistic about the scope and analytical depth of your conflict analysis*. Weigh time and resource constraints against the goal of the conflict analysis. If time and resources are scarce, gathering a group of experts and practitioners in workshops or seminars can be a way of drawing many years of knowledge together into a deep analysis in a short time (Stabilisation Unit 2008: 19). There is also a donor trend toward “lighter” conflict assessments that are better linked to strategy and programming instead of focusing too much on analytical and academic rigour. This can be best described as a conflict scan (Sherriff 2009: 95-96).
- **Sensibilities of conflict analysis and participation:** The goal of a conflict analysis is to create a thorough understanding of the conflict and explain what might lead to a relapse. Never assume that a basic understanding of conflict analysis already exists (Sherriff 2009: 98). In addition, if done by a government, *a conflict analysis also is a political document*. Normally, ‘causes’ of conflict are highly contested and different groups have very different perspectives on the conflict and its impacts. A conflict analysis can be an opportunity to establish a common understanding of the conflict and an entry point for action. But just as important as having a common understanding of the problem is to have a common understanding of what the ultimate goal is: peace. To build peace, key actors have to develop a common understanding of what peace actually looks like and what the elements of successful peace will be. *Creating these common understandings is not easy and it normally involves compromise and negotiations*. It is just as important to have all important key stakeholders to be part of the process as to have a good analysis that helps to set goals and priorities (for more information on participation see Chapter 4.1). An analysis that does not have broad support will not be acted upon. This can also create problems with donors who feel like important aspects have been ignored by the analysis and endangering a relapse into conflict. In such cases, managing the expectations of the donors is sometimes as important as the expectations of national stakeholders.
- **Ownership and integration:** Make sure that the outcome of the analysis feeds into existing planning and strategy processes. This should be done by formally linking the different processes but also by making sure that the findings of the analysis are target-group specific and in a usable form, like a concise bullet-point executive summary. In your case, the ultimate goal is to link sustainable development with peacebuilding, so the final document should clearly highlight these linkages. Rigour should be balanced with ownership and usability. A “good enough analysis” that is used, is better than a rigorous and academic document that nobody reads (Sherriff 2009: 98-99).
- **Iteration:** A conflict analysis is often a one-off exercise. Nevertheless, conflict dynamics can change quickly and new risks arise, especially if the government decides to embark on a reform course and address issues that are connected to the

conflict. Thus, try to establish a conflict analysis as an iterative process, for example through regular reviews. For more information also see Chapter 4.3.

- **Mitigating risk:** Every reform and change produces winners and losers and changes power structures. This can create risks and in post-conflict countries this means the risk of relapse into conflict. Especially, if spoilers fear losing power, influence or resources, they often decide to take up arms again and defend the status quo with violence. Ways to mitigate these risks and harness opportunities for building bridges, convincing opportunists, and engaging spoilers can be found in a thorough stakeholder analysis. Besides explaining interests and power of the actors and their relationships, an analysis should include likely scenarios of successful reform – and how it would affect these three points. This allows for pre-emptively designing policies and reforms in ways that mitigate risks and harness opportunities. In some cases it might not be possible to mitigate risks, since some spoiler groups will not allow engagement. In this case, sometimes unsavoury compromises might be necessary.

Building upon existing analysis:

In most cases there are already a number of conflict analyses, situation reports, research papers, and other documents on the conflict. The following can be used as a starting point:

- UN Common Country Assessment;
- Post-Conflict Needs Assessments (PCNA);
- Conflict analysis by individual donor governments; and
- Conflict analysis and reports from international or national think tanks, like the International Crisis Group (www.crisisgroup.org).

Tools and resources:

There are a variety of tools available to support conflict analysis:

- **UN Inter-Agency Framework for Conflict Analysis in Transition Situations:** This tool provides a common analytical framework to support conflict-sensitive programming and inter-agency planning instruments of the UN, such as Post-Conflict Needs Assessments. See UN DG support documents on conflict analysis. <http://www.undg.org/index.cfm?P=1252>
- **Conflict Analysis Framework (World Bank):** This tool provides guidance on conducting conflict-sensitive social analysis at the country level in order to inform Country Assistance Strategies and Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers. <http://go.worldbank.org/3QZPKY2XU0>
- **Conflict Assessment (USAID):** This tool was developed to help design and implement development programs in high-risk environments. http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/conflict/publications/docs/CMM_ConflAssessFrmwrk_May_05.pdf
- **Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (World Bank):** This toolbox helps to analyse poverty and social impacts of policy reforms, including identification of reform “winners” and “losers”. <http://go.worldbank.org/39I9SFVEJ0>
- **Aid for Peace Approach:** This method was developed as a way to plan and evaluate interventions in conflict zones with regard to their contribution to peacebuilding. The approach includes, but is not confined to, conflict analysis. It has four main components: 1) Ensuring that an intervention is conflict sensitive; 2) Assessing the risks or negative effects of the conflict on an intervention; 3) Identifying needs and opportunities for peacebuilding; and 4) evaluating peacebuilding activities. http://www.berghof-handbook.net/documents/publications/dialogue4_paffenholz.pdf
- **Do No Harm Guidance Note: Using Dividers and Connectors (CDA):** An analytical tool focusing on issues that can be used as dividers or connectors. http://www.cdainc.com/cdawww/pdf/issue/dnh_guidance_note_on_dividers_and_connectors_Pdf.pdf

- **Conflict-related Development Analysis (UNDP BCRP):** This is an analytical tool targeted at UNDP practitioners and other development agencies working in conflict-prone and affected situations. Specifically, it was designed as a practical tool to better understand the linkages between development and conflict with the goal of increasing the impact of development on conflict. http://www.undp.org/cpr/whats_new/CDA_combined.pdf

3 Element 2: Linking Sustainable Development and Peacebuilding

After learning to understand the challenges of post-conflict countries in regard to conflict, the next step—the second element—is to focus on how to approach these challenges by linking sustainable development and peacebuilding. Sustainable development is a widely used term, but one that is, nevertheless, often poorly understood. This chapter starts by explaining what is behind this development approach and how it differs from other approaches. The claim in the introduction of the guidance notes—that sustainable development can support peacebuilding—is substantiated by going back to the challenges outlined in Chapter 2 and explaining how sustainable development can help to address them. At the end of the chapter, practical guidance on how to identify links between sustainable development and peacebuilding is given by focusing on approaches that link peacebuilding and pro-poor economic development, as well as peacebuilding and environment.

3.1 Understanding sustainable development

The Brundtland Commission Report, *Our Common Future*, defines sustainable development as development that “meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (World Commission on Environment and Development: 27). Following this principle, sustainable development is long-term in its outlook and an integrated and more balanced approach to development.

Though often considered a solely environmental issue, sustainable development goes far beyond that. The Rio Declaration explains that “human beings are at the centre of concerns for sustainable development. They are entitled to a healthy and productive life in harmony with nature” (UNCED 1992b).

Conceptually, sustainable development can be broken down in three core dimensions (UNDESA 2002: 7, Dalal Clayton and Bass 2000: 9):

- **Economy:** Economic sustainability means maximising society’s well-being, economic equity, and eradicating poverty through the creation of wealth and livelihoods, equal access to resources, and the optimal and efficient use of natural resources.
- **Society:** Socio-political sustainability means promoting social equity and uplifting the welfare and quality of life by improving access to basic health and education services, fulfilling minimum standards of security and respect for human rights, including the development of diversity, pluralism, and grassroots participation.
- **Environment:** Environmental sustainability means the enhancement and conservation of the environment and natural resources for present and future generations.

These dimensions should ideally be pursued together. Where not all three core dimensions can be equally achieved, trade-offs among those objectives should be

negotiated (Dalal Clayton and Bass 2000: 9). Taking the right choices to balance economic, social, and environmental goals is often challenging, but trade-offs, as well as negative and positive economic, social, and environmental impacts of policy change, have to be understood and assessed. Negative impacts of trade-offs have to be minimised and compensated for. The key challenge of putting sustainable development into practice is the understanding and management of these complex interactions and relationships among economic, social, and environmental objectives (UNDESA 2002: 7). Participation and inclusion are imperative to unite all key stakeholders and negotiate long-term goals and trade-offs among the various dimensions of sustainable development, as well as the allocation of resources. In fact, all development processes face the challenge of negotiating goals, trade-offs, and allocation of resources, but not necessarily with the goal of balancing the different dimensions of sustainable development. It is important to emphasise that for a comprehensive development approach, like sustainable development, to be successful, it needs the involvement and participation of all sectors, not only the government.

While being long-term in its outlook, sustainable development is not an action or a fixed goal to be left for the future. It is a process of moving toward sustainable development, that includes short-, medium-, and long-term actions, strategies, and goals and addresses immediate concerns while at the same time addressing long-term issues (UNDESA 2002: 8).

Achieving sustainable development as it is described here might seem too idealistic and unrealistic in a world in which the positions of stakeholders differ to a degree that compromise seems unattainable and in which economic considerations and interests dominate the political sphere. It is important to understand that the description here illustrates an ideal to strive for. Sustainable development is the process of moving toward this ideal, step by step. As pointed out previously, sustainable development is often mistaken as solely an environmental issue. In part, this is due to the fact that the environment is the dimension of sustainable development that is most often neglected or traded off. This is already the case in development practices and even more in post-conflict areas, where other priorities seem more pressing (Conca 2006: 6). To counter this bias, the dimension of environmental sustainability deserves special attention. An important development in this regard is the growing importance and influence of concepts that emphasise and try to harness the benefits of environmental sustainability to create economic growth and development. These approaches, while not new, are gaining attention with more countries, especially emerging economies like China, which is trying to work in this direction. On the international level, the OECD has been championing this concept of “Green Growth” (OECD 2010), while UNEP has developed a ten-pillar approach called “Green Economy” (UNEP 2009d).

3.2 Sustainable development as structural peacebuilding

In post-conflict countries, sustaining and building peace is the main objective. Thus, any development has to be conflict-sensitive and, at the least, not aggravate the risk of relapse into violent conflict. In the context of development cooperation, this principle is called “do no harm” (OECD 2001). But the focus on “*do no harm*” sometimes means that opportunities to “*do development better*” by promoting economic, social, and environmental sustainability, as well as peacebuilding, can be overlooked (UNDESA n.d.: 10). This does not mean that conflict sensitivity leads to inaction, but that the focus is sometimes too narrow, as very few actions may be conceivable if risk-aversion is maximised.

At the same time, post-conflict countries are characterised through a multitude of transition processes. The transition from war to peace often goes hand in hand with democratisation, decentralisation, and market liberalisation (Reychler and Langer 2006). Terms like recovery, reconstruction, and rebuilding seem to imply that the goal is to return to the status quo before conflict. This is not the case. Typically, the pre-war political, social, and economic systems and inherent pathologies like extreme inequality, poverty, corruption, mismanagement, exclusion, and marginalisation have contributed to the outbreak of the conflict in the first place. Thus, stakeholders in post-conflict countries are confronted with the challenge to overcome these problems but also with a window of opportunity to build “*differently and better*” (UNDP 2008: 5).

Defining key terms 2 From conflict to peace

Peacebuilding: “Peacebuilding comprises the identification and support of measures needed for transformation toward more sustainable, peaceful relationships and structures of governance, in order to avoid a relapse into conflict. The four dimensions of peacebuilding are: socio-economic development, good governance, reform of justice and security institutions, and the culture of justice, truth and reconciliation.” (UNEP 2009b: 7 and 31 based on OECD/DAC 2008b)

Peacekeeping: “Peacekeeping is both a political and a military activity involving a presence in the field, with the consent of the parties, to implement or monitor arrangements relating to the control of conflicts (cease-fires, separation of forces) and their resolution (partial or comprehensive settlements), as well as to protect the delivery of humanitarian aid.” (UNEP 2009b: 7)

Peacemaking: “Peacemaking is the diplomatic process of brokering an end to conflict, principally through mediation and negotiation, as foreseen under Chapter VI of the UN Charter.” (UNEP 2009b: 7)

State-building: “Purposeful action to develop the capacity, institutions and legitimacy of the state in relation to an effective political process for negotiating the mutual demands between state and societal groups” (OECD/DAC 2008a: 14). This is a broader definition of state-building going beyond the narrow focus on building institutions. This broad concept of state-building is a central element in any strategy to institutionalize peace.

Reconstruction: Actions undertaken by international or national actors to support

the economic and, to some extent, social dimensions of post-conflict recovery.

Sources: UNEPb 2009, OECD/DAC 2008a, b, Call and Cousens 2007

By showing how the above-identified challenges can be approached through sustainable development, it can be illustrated how sustainable development and peacebuilding can reinforce each other:

- 1. Poverty, Marginalisation, and Vulnerability:** Sustainable development emphasises poverty reduction and livelihoods. Addressing the needs of vulnerable and marginalised groups and the root causes of poverty is central to sustainable social and economic development, as well as peacebuilding.
- 2. Exploitation of natural resources and environmental degradation:** Sustainable development is based on environmental sustainability as one of its core dimensions. Natural resources and the environment are critically important in regard to peacebuilding and preventing relapses into war (for a detailed description of these links see Chapter 3.3). Timing and setting priorities are very important, since inaction or poor choices easily leads to locking development into an unsustainable path that undermines peace (UNEP 2009b: 6). Managed well, natural resources can support economic development, create employment and revenues for the government thus supporting peacebuilding and sustainable development (UNEP 2009a: 6). Environmental management can be, for example, perceived as a low profile sector and create opportunities to foster multi-level and multi-group engagement, cooperation and reconciliation (UNDESA n.d.: 27; UNEP 2009a).
- 3. Insecurity, militarisation, and lawlessness:** “The core functions and services of the state – including security – need to be viewed through the lens of a dynamic model of fragility, which places capacity and service delivery alongside societal expectations of the state and the process for reconciling them. The question of whether security will be provided in a way that meets the needs of citizens, or will function primarily as an instrument of oppression, will not be dictated by capacity, but shaped – indeed, often usefully constrained – by the basic political process of state-society contract formation and reformation” (OECD/DAC 2008a: 8). This means that capacity in itself is not enough. Only if the political processes around it are inclusive and legitimate this capacity will be used to foster peace. Sustainable development is based on these principles and thus can help create inclusive and participative policy processes.
- 4. Societal divisions:** Besides its specific focus on marginalised groups and inclusive poverty reduction, sustainable development emphasises the importance of negotiating long-term goals and creating a shared vision for the future. This might be unrealistic in many post-conflict countries just emerging from conflict with population groups having suffered human rights abuses and violence. But it can help to build trust and bridges. It is an opportunity for the government to show that it is serious about overcoming the legacy of conflict and realising real inclusiveness. Open discussion of differences and the understanding of benefits and losses of certain policies and trade-offs can help to manage conflict peacefully (UNDESA 2002: 10). The goal is to rebuild both social capital and the links

- between different groups and individuals. In this regard, some authors underscore the longer time horizon of environmental projects that might foster peacebuilding through cooperation among different groups over a longer time (Weinthal 2006: 9, UNEP 2009a).
5. **Poor governance, corruption, and low capacity:** A common vision for sustainable development can help overcome weak organisational linkages – among different national government institutions, and between national and local government institutions, as well as between government institutions and civil society. Fighting corruption and building capacity can be prioritised for sustainable development. In fact, sustainable development is not possible without functioning institutions that can implement it, thus working toward better governance is crucial. In itself the process nature of NSDS allows for perpetual learning and capacity building, if integrated and planned for (UNDESA 2002: 10).
 6. **Poor economic performance, limited fiscal resources, and disruption of infrastructures and public services (“war damage”):** Mainstreaming sustainable development principles into peacebuilding can provide an effective system of using limited resources better and maximising the peace dividend. The comprehensive analysis of problems and their social, economic, and environmental dimensions allows for maximising synergies. For example, by linking growth strategies, employment policies, and sound environmental management. This does not mean, however, that every policy or action can or has to achieve multiple goals at once. It is more about using windfall profits, where possible.
 7. **Regional and external risks:** Moving toward sustainable development with the help of a NSDS process is foremost a national endeavour. But often environmental, economic, and social challenges do not stop at borders, as evidenced by refugee flows and pollution. To address these issues, NSDS and their policies have to be coordinated with neighbouring countries. Also, cross-border cooperation can help address other challenges. For example, joint infrastructure projects can stimulate economic growth and create employment. While building relations between neighbouring countries can be a challenge if there is a history of conflict, transboundary environmental cooperation and management of these ecosystems or natural resources can be a stepping stone to (re)build relations and trust between countries (UNEP 2009a, b).

Besides these benefits for peacebuilding, there are a number of additional elements that sustainable development processes offer post-conflict countries:

- **Facilitating decision-making and improving the effectiveness of public policy:** Sustainable development processes help to define, promote, and build consensus around policy priorities on the basis of comprehensive and integrated analysis of economic, social, and environmental issues.
- **Improving mobilisation of resources:** Sustainable development processes help countries coordinate and prioritise donor support and help meet reporting requirements under international conventions.

- **More efficient allocation of resources:** Sustainable development processes help facilitate efficient allocation of limited resources by setting priorities through participative processes, as well as identify and guide the implementation of development projects and programs.

3.3 How to link sustainable development and peacebuilding

While sustainable development and peacebuilding have been defined and explained in the last two sub-chapters, the comprehensive scope, lack of national capacity, and complexity of the issues covered by these terms sometimes makes it hard to put them into practice.

In general, to develop a sustainable development strategy it is important to **understand the linkages and interactions among the different dimensions of sustainable development**. The goal is to develop a comprehensive and

integrated strategy that balances the different dimensions of sustainable development. A strategy that includes all dimensions is not automatically sustainable. It needs to be based on an understanding of and account for the main positive and negative feedbacks among the economic, social and environmental systems. If these interdependencies are ignored, in the best case, synergies that can create additional benefits will be left unused. In the worst case this will lead to unintended negative effects and risks (Swanson et al. 2004: 14). Always try to achieve both: minimise or compensate the negative impacts *and* optimise the positive potentials (Dalal-Clayton and Barry 2002: 38-39). Since resources and capacities are probably scarce and many priorities already set, changes and additions must be feasible and realistic.

The second important element is to **make sure that your actions are centred on the population and its well-being**. Theoretically, this means that sustainable development is people-centred. Practically, this means that you have to make sure that not just one part of the population benefits and that long-term negative effects for poor and/or marginalised population groups are minimised.

Guidance and lessons learned:

Efforts in a post-conflict country typically concentrate on the social and economic sector. To compensate for this, the focus in this guidance will be on strengthening the environmental dimension of sustainable development and linking it to peacebuilding. Two sets of approaches seem to be the best fit. First, approaches that try to link pro-poor economic development and environment which are explained in Section A and second approaches that try to link environment and peacebuilding and are explained in Section B.

A. Linking pro-poor economic development and environmental sustainability:

Development approaches that link pro-poor economic development and the environment seem especially useful for achieving sustainable development. Their focus on poverty and livelihoods is people-centred and fosters social sustainability. At the

You will find in this section	
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same time these approaches are actively linking environmental and economic sustainability.

The **UNDP-UNEP Poverty-Environment Initiative** has developed guidance and resources on how to link poverty reduction and the environment in national strategy and planning processes. These documents provide good starting points to identify possibilities of linking socio-economic development, the environment, and peacebuilding. The strength of this approach is that it makes a strong case that environmental sustainability is not distinct or in conflict with development goals:

“Poor households rely disproportionately on natural resources and the environment for their livelihoods and income. The poor are more vulnerable to natural disasters such as droughts and floods and to the ongoing impacts of climate change. On a broader scale, natural resources such as forests and fisheries play a larger role in the national income and wealth of less developed economies” (UNEP and UNDP 2009a: 1).

This understanding has been translated into a **handbook for practitioners** (UNEP and UNDP 2009a) that outlines how to identify the links among poverty, economic development, and environment. This approach draws heavily on the concept of ecosystem services and how human well-being and livelihoods depend on them (see box Ecosystem services and human well being). It is also based on a multidimensional understanding of poverty that not only focuses on income, but also on social, political, cultural, and natural assets (for more information see DFID 1999).

In-depth information 2 Ecosystem services and human well being

Ecosystems are the functional unit of living beings and their environment. Together they form complex and interdependent networks that provide a number of services, so-called ecosystem services. Humans depend on a number of these services.

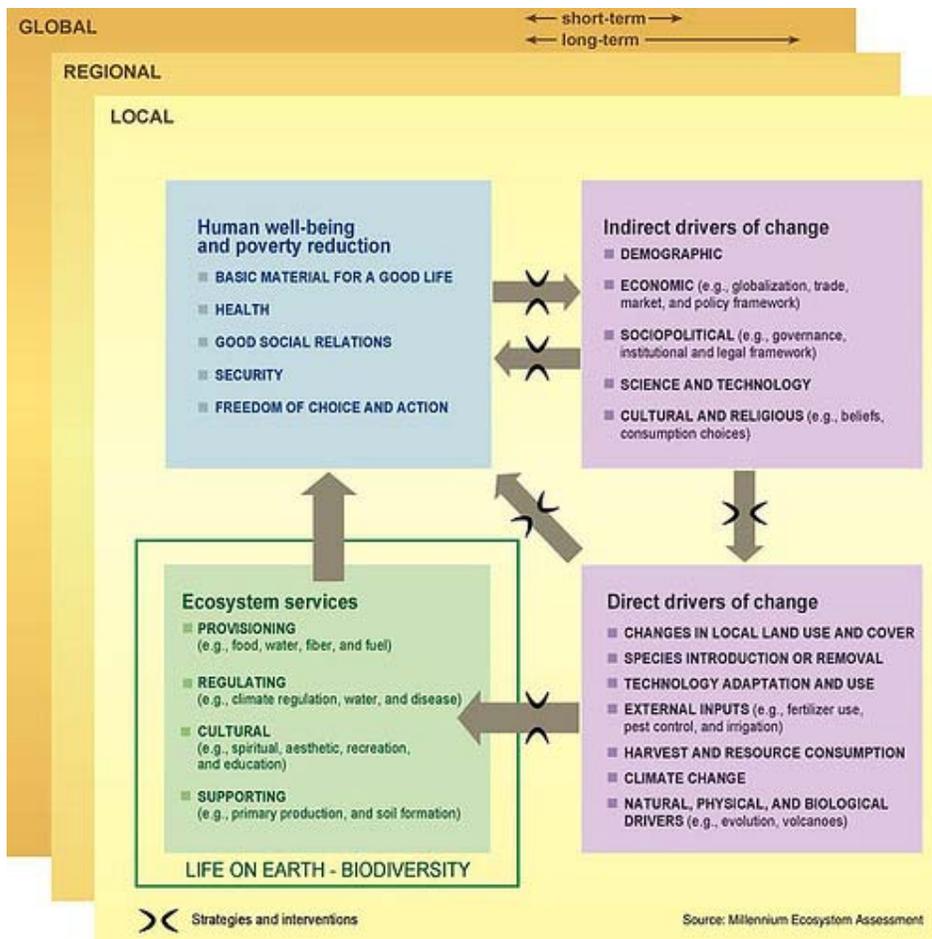


Figure 4 Ecosystem service and human well-being

Source: Millennium Ecosystem Assessment. For more information see <http://www.maweb.org>

A second publication of the UNEP-UNDP initiative outlines **how to make the case for environmental sustainability** in terms that economic planners understand. It can serve as a good resource on how to frame arguments in a situation in which the environment is not a priority.

For more information on how to link economic development with environmental sustainability, please also see Chapter 6.1.3.

B. Linking the environment and peacebuilding:

The documents described before explained how to integrate the environment and pro-poor economic development, but unfortunately, they do not cover peacebuilding. The following approaches provide this missing link. They concentrate on how environment, natural resources, and peacebuilding can be linked.

UNEP's Post Conflict and Disaster Management Branch has published a number of documents on environmental peacebuilding. A good introduction to the subject is "**From Conflict to Peacebuilding. The Role of Natural Resources and the Environment**" (UNEP 2009b) as well as the **UNEP Guidance Note on "Integrating Environment in Post-Conflict Needs Assessments"** (2009a). Looking at the four dimensions of peacebuilding, these documents highlight the following links with the environment and natural resources:

- "The **socio-economic** dimension: Natural resources provide for basic human needs in post-conflict societies, including land, food, shelter, and livelihoods. Resources are critical to the development of sustainable livelihoods as well as the successful return and reintegration of refugees and displaced people. Essential services such as water, energy and waste management also rely on natural resources. "High-value" natural resources are often used to kick-start economic development and provide budget revenues. In some cases, restoring degraded, damaged or destroyed natural resources where they are posing a threat to human health, livelihoods or security is also a priority.
- The **governance** dimension: Given the importance of natural resources in livelihoods, essential services and economic development, rebuilding effective governance institutions for natural resources at the national and local levels, including community-based resource management is an important need. This includes efforts to build legitimate and effective political institutions, meaningful democratic participation, the reform of bureaucracy and the public sector, capacity-building for political parties and civil society, jump-starting constitutional and electoral processes, reviving traditional management techniques and enhancing legislative and policy frameworks.
- The **security** dimension: One key peacebuilding priority is to prevent the illegal sale of natural resources from funding arms and armies. In addition, during the disarmament, demobilization and reintegration (DDR) of ex-combatants, unsustainable resource extraction as a substitute or supplementary livelihood is common. Mechanisms are needed for monitoring the extraction and export of "high-value" natural resources, as well as increasing financial transparency. On the positive side, natural resources can also support DDR processes in terms of job creation.
- The **justice, truth and reconciliation** dimension: The shared management of natural resources can contribute to dialogue, confidence-building and reconciliation between divided communities or ethnic groups. Resource wealth-sharing is an important part of solving historical tensions and power differentials. In some cases,

underlying grievances that might have contributed to the conflict such as access to land and other resources need to be resolved as part of reconciliation processes.” (UNEP 2009a: 14)

Based on this understanding of the links between peacebuilding and environment, UNEP is developing a **Conflict Analysis Framework** that gives guidance on how to identify the links among environment, natural resources and conflict (UNEP forthcoming). Drafts of the framework have already been tested on several cases. There are also a number of more specialised documents and tools focusing on different aspects of environment and conflict. As part of the **UN-EU Partnership on Natural Resources and Conflict**, four **Guidance Notes** have been developed on **extractive industries and conflict**; **land and conflict**; **renewable resources and conflict**; and **capacity building for resource governance** (UN Framework Team on Preventive Action 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2010d). Also, as part of this partnership a **capacity inventory** (UN Framework Team on Preventive Action 2010d) was developed that gives an excellent first entry point to an overview of UN tools, documents, and capacities in the area of consensual and sustainable land and natural resource management. The **U.S. Agency for International Development** developed helpful guidance notes that are called **conflict toolkits** on **Forest and Conflict**, **Land and Conflict**, **Livelihoods and Conflict** and **Minerals and Conflict**. As part of the Initiative for Peacebuilding Early Warning (IFP-EW), a **Water, Crisis, and Climate Change Assessment Framework (WACCAF)** provides guidance on how to identify and analyse existing and potential new conflicts over water (Ruettinger et al. forthcoming). It also helps to identify opportunities for cooperation in the context of increasing competition over the resource.

For more information on how to link environment, sustainable development, and peacebuilding, please also see Chapter 6.1.1.



Building upon existing analysis:

Environment-Conflict Links:

- **Post-conflict Environmental Assessment (UNEP):** Upon request from national governments, these assessments typically provide an environmental history, geographic overview, summary of the country's pre-existing environmental challenges, assessment of the impacts of conflict in creating or exacerbating environmental challenges, and a survey of the legal, administrative, and bureaucratic context for environmental monitoring, assessment, clean-up, protection, and enforcement. Assessments also provide recommendations for national authorities, UN Country Teams and civil society organisations (Conca 2006: 8). <http://www.unep.org/conflictsanddisasters/>
- **Environment and Security Initiative (ENVSEC):** Geographically focused on South-Eastern Europe, Eastern Europe, the Southern Caucasus, and Central Asia, this initiative has produced reports and maps on environment and security in these regions. <http://www.envsec.org/>
- **Reports and studies by international think tanks and NGOs:** A growing number of think tanks and NGOs conduct Environmental Security Assessments, like adelphi (www.adelphi.de), the Institute for Environmental Security

(<http://www.envirosecurity.org>), and the Foundation for Environmental Security and Sustainability (<http://www.fess-global.org>).

- **Initiative for Peacebuilding/Initiative for Peacebuilding Early Warning (EU):** As part of this initiative a cluster on ‘Regional Cooperation on Environment, Economy and Natural Resource Management’ was created. Its members published a number of case studies and reports on different aspects of environment and security: www.initiativeforpeacebuilding.eu, www.ifp-ew.eu

Environment:

The following reports and assessments are focused on the environment and/or human development and can be a useful starting point to identify environmental and/or social issues:

- Millennium Development Goals (MDG) Reports and National Human Development Reports
- World Bank Country Environmental Analyses
- EC Country Environmental Profiles
- UNEP State of the Environment Reports
- Environmental analysis and assessments from regional development banks
- National Environmental Action Plans (NEAP) (also see Chapter 8 Annex)



Tools and Resources:

Environment and pro-poor economic development:

- **UNDP-UNEP Poverty-Environment Initiative:** See description above (UNEP and UNDP 2009a, b). For further in-depth references on how to analyse linkages between environmental sustainability, pro-poor economic growth, and poverty reduction in country-specific contexts, see the PEI library at: <http://www.unpei.org/knowledge-resources/elibrarymaster.asp#preliminaryassessments1>

Environment and conflict:

- **UNEP’s Post Conflict and Disaster Program: Guidance Notes** on “Integrating Environment in Post-Conflict Needs Assessments”, **report** “From Conflict to Peacebuilding. The Role of Natural Resources and the Environment” (UNEP 2009a, b) and **Conflict Analysis Framework** (unpublished). For a description see above. <http://www.unep.org/conflictsanddisasters>
- **Guidance Notes on Natural Resources, Conflict, and Peacebuilding (UN-EU).** For a description see above: <http://www.unep.org/conflictsanddisasters/Policy/EnvironmentalCooperationforPeacebuilding/UNEUPartnership/tabid/29405/Default.aspx>
- **Conflict Toolkits (USAID):** For a description see above: http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/conflict/publications/docs/CMM_Livelihoods_and_Conflict_Dec_2005.pdf

- **Water, Crisis, and Climate Change Framework (WACCAF):** Developed as part of the Initiative for Peacebuilding Early Warning (Ruettinger et al. forthcoming). For a description see above.

Economic development and peacebuilding:

- **Peacebuilding Essentials for Economic Development Practitioners (International Alert):** A series of guidance notes and case studies that outline lessons learned, good practices and tools covering various economic topics – from market development to the socio-economic integration of ex-combatants: http://www.international-alert.org/peace_and_economy/index.php?t=3

Environment:

- **Environmental-Mainstreaming.org (IISD):** A website compiling reports, guidance, and tools on mainstreaming environment into development processes. A very good starting point is the synthesis report from Dalal-Clayton and Bass (2009): <http://www.environmental-mainstreaming.org/>
- **Mainstreaming Biodiversity into Sectoral and Cross-Sectoral Strategies, Plans, and Programmes (CBD, GEF and UNEP 2007):** A training module on how to specifically mainstream biodiversity conservation into development plans and strategies can be found here <http://www.cbd.int/doc/training/nbsap/b3-train-mainstream-en.pdf>
- **Environmental Assessments** try to predict the environmental effects of an action, project, program, or policy. A checklist to see if an environmental assessment should be done for an action or policy can be found in UNDG 2010: 33.
- **Integrated Environmental Assessments (IEA)** analyse all natural and human interactions to support the development and implementation of policies. IEA's Training Manual for Integrated Environmental Assessment and Reporting can be found here: <http://www.iisd.org/measure/tools/assessment/capacity.asp>
- **Integrated Ecosystems Assessments** look at all interactions between humans and ecosystems based on the ecosystem services approach. **Ecosystem Services: A Guide for Decision Makers** can be found here <http://www.wri.org/publication/ecosystem-services-a-guide-for-decision-makers>
- **Strategic Environmental Assessments (SEA)** are focused on evaluating the consequences of a proposed policy, plan, or program. OECD Good Practices for Applying SEAs can be found here <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/4/21/37353858.pdf>
- **Rapid Environmental Assessments** are carried out immediately after a crisis or conflict to assess environmental damage and risks: <http://www.unep.org/conflictsanddisasters/>

4 Element 3: Managing Sustainable Development Processes in Post-Conflict Countries

These guidance notes are building upon a key management understanding: To address complex challenges, plans have only limited use, since they are not dynamic. Planning - the process of creating a plan itself – is the decisive factor. This process should be ongoing and not end with one document. A well-structured and managed process is crucial for addressing complex and dynamic challenges. NSDS is such a *process-oriented* management approach.

As seen in the last chapter, there is no single approach or formula on how to achieve sustainable development. How to balance the different dimensions and negotiate trade-offs between them is highly context specific and every country has to determine for itself how to approach it best. But there are certain key management principles that are not only decisive in achieving sustainable development but which also build peace. They can help improve the management of sustainable development processes. These key principles constitute the third element and are explained in this chapter. Each management principle is introduced by outlining its importance for peacebuilding, followed by a description of the goals and risks of integrating this management principle, as well as generic guidance, on how to put these process elements into practice.

4.1 Participation

In post-conflict countries, participation³ and inclusion are especially important since the social contract between a divided citizenry and its government needs to be (re)built (UNDESA n.d.: 27). Meaningful participation can reduce the likelihood of a relapse into war (Brown et al. 2007: 26-27). In addition, legitimacy has to be restored and elections are not enough. Representative institutions that foster inclusive political processes are indispensable (UNDP 2008: xxii). Furthermore, inclusive and participatory processes and structures help build a public sphere that serves as a national dialogue platform (Kaltenborn-Stachau 2008).

But inclusion and participation go even further, to the core of what a legitimate state constitutes: The central contention of the OECD/DAC for state-building in fragile states is “that fragility arises primarily from weaknesses in the dynamic political process through which citizens’ expectations of the state and state expectations of citizens are

³ Participation is “the process through which stakeholders (those affected by the outcome of reform) influence or share control over setting priorities making policy, allocating resources, and ensuring access to public goods and services” (World Bank 2005a: 8).

reconciled and brought into equilibrium with the state's capacity to deliver services. Reaching equilibrium in this negotiation over the social contract is the critical if not sole determinant of resilience, and disequilibrium the determinant of fragility. Disequilibria can arise as a result of extremes of incapacity, elite behaviour, or crises of legitimacy. They can also arise through shocks or chronic erosion and be driven alternately by internal and external factors. Resilient states are able to manage these pressures through a political process that is responsive" (OECD/DAC 2008a: 7).

This understanding is based on the concept that the opposite of fragility is not stability but resilience, i.e. the ability to cope with or adapt to change. Resilience is built through "a combination of capacity and resources, effective institutions and legitimacy, all of which are underpinned by political processes that mediate state-society relations and expectations" (OECD/DAC 2008a: 12). With participation and inclusiveness to foster the negotiation of long-term development goals at its core, the NSDS approach tries exactly that. The NSDS process is based on inclusion and participation of all sectors. This encompasses the whole government, as well as civil society and the private sector.

But besides its importance to create legitimacy and to negotiate national development goals, participation can also increase the efficiency of sustainable development strategies through decentralised planning and management and by capitalising on traditional knowledge and institutions (UNDESA n.d.: 27-28). In this regard, it is especially important to look beyond the national level to the regional and local level. Top-down approaches are still too common in development planning (UNDESA 2009a, 11). Examples for inclusive and participatory development approaches are community-driven development and recovery models, like the National Solidarity Program in Afghanistan (see case study 1). Another interesting new approach, which has been developed and mainly applied in Latin America, involves placing emphasis on territory. Called the "territorial approach", it understands a certain spatial unit as a cultural, social, and economic unit with a distinct identity. Tapping into and building upon this identity allows for unification and mobilisation of the different stakeholders, as well as better alignment of development priorities across sectors and population groups (De Miranda and Adib 2007).

No matter what the approach, a special focus has to be put on women's participation. Women are normally especially vulnerable to conflict and its consequences. Yet, they are often a crucial driver of development and peacebuilding, as in Rwanda, where widows came together after the genocide to create one of the biggest aid organisations in the country. This understanding has been most visibly translated into the Security Council Resolution 1325 that specifically asks to increase women's participation on all decision-making levels and governance mechanisms for the prevention, management, and resolution of conflict.

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	Risks and challenges
	Guidance and lessons learned
	Check list
	Case study
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Case study 1 Successful community-driven development: National Solidarity Program Afghanistan

The Afghan National Solidarity Program (NSP) was created in 2003 by the Afghan government and supported by a consortium of international donors. While participatory development programs existed before in Afghanistan and tried unsuccessfully in other parts of the world, this program learned from previous experiences. As a result, it radically put the role of the community at the centre. It focused on the ability of rural communities to identify, plan, manage, and monitor their own development projects. The idea behind this program was to empower local communities to drive their own development.

Each community elected representatives who formed a Community Development Council (CDC), the main management bodies of the program. These elections were only valid if at least 60 percent of the community participated, thus making sure that women were also included. The process was overseen by a so-called Oversight Consultant managing the process, the German Development Cooperation (GTZ), and facilitated by Facilitation Partners, local and international NGOs, as well as UN-Habitat.

The program had to develop complex chains of accountability to account for the different capacities, mandates, roles, and positions of all actors from donors to beneficiaries. Nevertheless, the radical focus on communities seemed to have increased the sense of ownership and accountability. In addition, by having a national coverage, villages from all over the country got assistance according to the same criteria. In contrast to often fragmented and—for local stakeholders—seemingly random aid programs, this encouraged a sense of social cohesion and trust in the government. A villager from Parwan noted: “One thing is for sure. Thanks to NSP, we now know that we are part of a same country. We know that across the valleys, there are communities who get equally the same support from the government” (Torabi 2007: 6). Having touched the lives of two out of three rural people and 20,000 communities having elected a CDC, this program is considered by the World Bank as one of their most successful development programs ever (World Bank 2010).

Sources: Torabi 2007, World Bank 2010

But participation is not without risks. For example, too much direct local participation can lead to the sidelining of nascent political institutions that would normally be used as channels for public participation like parliaments and political parties. In general, the public space participation provides can also create social tensions by providing a space to air unresolved grievances in a way that deepens divisions and does not foster reconciliation (Dudwick and Nelsson 2008: 4). Also, if done in the wrong way, participation can create expectations that, if not fulfilled, further exacerbate divisions and tensions (see In-depth information 4 “Managing Expectations” below).

On the donor side, participation is regarded as a central tenet of development cooperation and widely promoted. But donor behaviour often tends to be exclusive and to lack transparency (Kaltenborn-Stachau 2008: 34). This gap between rhetoric and action can lead to a loss of credibility.

⊕ **Goals:**

- Generate commitment and ownership.
- Build legitimacy by including all societal groups, especially marginalised and vulnerable groups.
- Capitalise on existing local and/or traditional knowledge and institutions.
- Increase efficiency through decentralised planning and management.

⚡ **Risks and challenges:**

- Sidelining of nascent political institutions like parliaments and parties (Dudwick and Nelsson 2008: 4)
- Exacerbating social tensions by airing unresolved grievances (Dudwick and Nelsson 2008: 4).

In-depth information 3 Too much or too little? The sensitivities of stakeholder participation in fragile contexts

Democracy, participation, and inclusive policy processes can help break the cycles of violence and conflict. But in some post-conflict environments, democratisation processes can also pose a risk of conflict relapse. This seems to be more likely if the political system is a mix of autocratic and democratic (Collier et al. 2006). In the long run, functioning democracies have a lower conflict risk because they provide greater opportunities, access and power for all groups and individuals, as well as institutionalised conflict resolution mechanisms (UNDP 2008: 34). But in the short run “too much reform too quick” can create its own destabilising effect. To avoid these effects, order and organize the introduction of democratic institutions and apply it in a way that is sensitive to the context (Reychler 1999).

Looking at the question of how much participation is necessary and possible, a balance has to be found between effectiveness and inclusiveness. The concept of good enough governance as outlined by Grindle (2004) and others can be a guide. It entails a minimum of acceptable government performance and civil society engagement that does not significantly hinder economic and political development and that permits poverty reduction initiatives to go forward (OECD/DAC 2008: 35).

Also, be aware of vulnerabilities and risks of certain groups. For example, media is very important to create accountability and disseminate information, but at the same time journalists in post-conflict context are especially vulnerable (UNDESA n.d.: 28-29).

Guidance and lessons learned:

Process management:

- Conduct a thorough stakeholder and conflict analysis to identify all actors who are potentially affected by a reform, policy, program, or action and understand their positions and interests. Put a special focus on vulnerable and marginalised groups.

- Participation processes can be steered by influencing actors and their positions, the relationship between actors, and by the rules of interaction.
- Institutionalise the participation process instead of treating it as a one-time consultation.
- Meet key stakeholders before launching the participative process to establish trust and understanding (Sherriff 2009: 98).
- Use traditional institutions to ensure communication and collaboration among groups, but be aware that they can also be counterproductive and exacerbate conflict, for example if they exclude certain groups like young men (World Bank 2005a: 61).
- Do not sideline other democratic institutions, like parliaments, but involve them actively.
- Do not treat women's participation as an optional or additional element but as a critical means to sustainable development and peace (for more information see Onslow et. al. 2010).

Information and communication:

- Build trust by upholding freedom of association and access to information. Some groups might need support and capacity building to understand the information provided and to voice their interests.
- Maximise the reach by diversifying the means of communication and geographic span of communication with conflict affected groups, especially on the local level. For example, provide information in minority languages (World Bank 2005a: 9).
- Broaden access to information by developing a communication strategy that is embedded in the sustainable development process (World Bank 2007: xvii).
- Clearly communicate and demonstrate the benefits that arise from the action, initiative, program, policy, or strategy (World Bank 2005a: 9). For example, disseminate success stories.

Conflict management:

- Prioritisation normally means that not all views can be incorporated. In order to avoid being accused of excluding certain views, maximise transparency of the process. For example, clearly document the inputs and the selection process.
- Sometimes the open discussion about conflict issues can undermine peace efforts. One way of dealing with this is by trying to rephrase and reframe these issues and using other concepts to address them indirectly, for example, by focusing on cooperation opportunities instead of conflict issues.
- Formulas for reconciliation cannot be imported; each country has to find its own way (World Bank 2005a: 10).

Civil society and media:

- Civil society institutions can be a powerful tool to ensure that processes have local ownership and are geared toward the needs of its beneficiaries. They can also help raise awareness about certain issues (UNDESA n.d.: 27). And while they often have

useful and tested knowledge, targeted capacity development for civil society organizations is often overlooked (UNDESA n.d.: 28).

- Strengthen the media to analyse development processes and help disseminate information (World Bank 2005a:61).



In-depth information 4 Managing expectations

Faced with the challenges outlined in this chapter, all stakeholders should be realistic about what to expect. Try to avoid raising unrealistic expectations, since the disappointment can contribute to fragility due to loss of trust (Fewer et al 2003: 10). Managing expectations is a crucial part of every participatory process. Besides the previous recommendations, the following points can provide some guidance:

- Use the stakeholder analysis as a starting point and detail the different expectations, specifically understand what you are expected to deliver to each stakeholder.
- Make sure that all stakeholders understand you and their role, including what they are expected to deliver.
- Formally track stakeholders and monitor their expectations, for example, by writing meeting reports.
- Involve all key stakeholders from the beginning and include them in setting the goals of the process.
- Communication is the key: Make sure all stakeholders have the same information and understand it. This is especially true if there are major changes. Also, clearly outline the goals of the participation process and what outcomes can be expected.

Check list 1 Quality of participation process and civil society involvement

- Is the process a positive step forward from the past in increasing and widening participation?
- Is the process as comprehensive/inclusive as possible under the circumstances? Have key stakeholders and interests been identified? How has local/national civil society been involved?
- Is the process sensitive to the underlying tensions and dynamics of conflict? Is there evidence of attempts to include previously excluded groups and bridge societal divides?
- Is there a dynamic of ongoing participation/consultation, or is it a one-off exercise?
- What is the level of transparency about the quality/extent/limitations of the process?

(McLean Hilker et al. 2003)

 **Tools and Resources:**

- **The World Bank Participation Sourcebook:** A comprehensive publication including case studies and tools: <http://go.worldbank.org/R3WF0ID3N0>
- **Communication for Governance and Accountability Program (World Bank):** This program has produced a number of useful technical briefs specifically focusing on participation, accountability, and communication, such as a brief on Multi-Stakeholder Dialogues (World Bank 2009): <http://go.worldbank.org/7BUHFCCQ70>
- **Community-Based Development in Conflict-Affected Areas (USAID):** Part of the USAID conflict toolkits mentioned before, this document provides guidance on how to approach community-based development programming: http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/conflict/publications/docs/CMM_CBD_Guide_May_2007.pdf
- **Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA):** PPAs are a tool for including poor people’s views in the analysis of poverty and the formulation of strategies to reduce it through public policy. ODI has compiled a handbook for PPAs: <http://www.odi.org.uk/resources/details.asp?id=1747&title=rough-guide-ppas-participatory-poverty-assessment-introduction-theory-practice>
- **Tool for Participatory Assessment in Operations (UNHCR):** Focused on refugee populations this tool outlines a step-by-step approach to include beneficiaries, the definition of problems, and programming: <http://www.unhcr.org/publ/PUBL/450e963f2.html>
- **Peacebuilding with a Gender Perspective (Initiative for Peacebuilding):** The Gender Cluster of the EU’s Initiative for Peacebuilding has a number of reports, lessons learned, and case studies on women, participation, and peacebuilding: <http://www.initiativeforpeacebuilding.eu/gender.php>

4.2 Long-term perspective

The long-term perspective of sustainable development is often referred to as the intergenerational dimension. Incorporating a long-term perspective into planning and strategy is especially hard in a post-conflict environment that is characterised by uncertainty, humanitarian crisis and the need to produce quick peace dividends. The tension of stabilisation and delivering quick results versus longer-term goals is especially evident in capacity building. Capacity building is a mid- to long-term process which is often neglected in the face of urgent needs. External expertise and donor control is used to compensate for lacking local capacities in the short term. But these efforts “over time can undermine the very capacity that is needed to make any kind of sustainable difference (UNDP 2010: 25).”

You will find in this section	
	Goals
	Guidance and lessons learned
	Case study
	Tools and resources

It is important to include more long-term thinking into planning processes for mid-term goals and short-term actions to avoid unintended long-term impacts or laying certain

developmental paths that are hard to change. This is especially true in regard to natural resources, which can provide important income in the short term, but will be lost in the long run if exploited in an unsustainable way. Thus, no matter what the eventual decision and priority for action is – short, medium, or long-term – it is critically important to be aware of the long-term consequences of each of these actions to make an informed decision.

Besides avoiding long-term negative consequences, long-term goals and visions also provide a useful frame of reference for policy making. A long-term development vision can help ensure policy coherence and unify different actors to strive for a common goal (also see Chapter 7.3). But the notion of long-term has to be realistically assessed in a post-conflict country, especially in the light of higher uncertainty and volatility. This means that what is normally considered long-term in national development processes sometimes needs to be adjusted to the post-conflict context.

A good example of how to combine long-term goals with short-term actions is the work of many organisations supporting relief and recovery after disasters. While providing short-term relief and helping mid-term recovery, these organisations today often try to incorporate activities to mitigate or reduce the risks and impacts of future crisis in the long-term. This not only helps to be better prepared and less vulnerable, but also increases the efficiency of interventions: “The experience proves that in many post-crisis scenarios it is most effective when interventions are designed to begin simultaneously; consideration of long-term impacts of short-term interventions can add value to the latter, and depth to the former” (UN HABITAT 2004: 3).

Scenario planning is a helpful methodology for long-term planning and assessing long-term effects. Scenarios “are powerful tools for addressing what is both fundamentally significant and profoundly unknowable – the future” (Dalal-Clayton and Bass 2002: 171, Carius and Maas forthcoming). It is important to understand that scenarios do not try to predict the future. They are not forecasts but plausible and possible alternative narratives about the future which can be used to test strategies or actions against. Bringing together different stakeholders for scenario workshops can also be an effective way to create a common understanding about the future and begin developing long-term visions.

Goals:

- Analyse long-term consequences, especially in regard to conflict drivers and risk multipliers
- Define long-term goals and visions for sustainable development.
- Combine long-term goals with short- and mid-term actions.

Guidance and lessons learned:

- Check short- and medium-term actions for their long-term consequences.
- Make sure that short-term actions are embedded in a long-term strategy.
- Trying to include a long-term perspective does not mean to take no risks, but risks and trade-offs have to be realistically assessed.



Case study 2 Combining short-term needs and long-term strategy: Post-conflict capacity building in Liberia

The one-year review of the implementation of Liberia’s Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2008-2009) revealed that capacity constraints were a key impediment to achieving the objectives laid out. The Liberian government, with the support of its international partners, approached this challenge in two ways: First, a number of critical and innovative emergency measures to address short-term capacity needs were implemented. This included the establishment of a 100-person Senior Executive Service to reinvigorate the public sector through expertise, professionalism, and new ideas, bringing in expatriate Liberian professionals for short periods to share skills and experiences and the introduction of a system of internal controls, new financial management procedures, and measures aimed at fighting corruption.

But the Liberian government was aware that these ‘quick win’ interventions remained largely disparate and lacking of an overall strategy. Thus, the Ministry of Planning and Economic Affairs with support of UNDP also started a project to develop a 10-year National Capacity Development Strategy (NCDS). This strategy was specifically meant to be a structured, holistic, and cohesive approach to link long-term sustainability and ‘quick-wins’.

Source: Torori and Reinartz 2009

Tools and Resources:

- **Scenarios: An Explorer’s Guide** (Shell): Shell was one of the first companies to use the scenario planning approach and developed this very helpful guide: http://www-static.shell.com/static/public/downloads/brochures/corporate_pkg/scenarios/explorers_guide.pdf

4.3 Iteration and improvement

The situation in post-conflict countries is often volatile and changes quickly. As a consequence, managing change is one of the main challenges governments in post-conflict countries face. Accordingly, national planning and strategy processes must have the institutional capacity and structure to adapt to change, as well as learn from past experiences. Ideally, every sustainable development process should try to achieve this by being an iterative and cyclical process in which the emphasis is on managing progress toward sustainability goals rather than producing a ‘plan’ (UNDESA 2002: 8). This means that sustainable development processes encompass analysis, formulation of policies and action plans, implementation, and regular review. In other words, they include feedback loops.

You will find in this section	
	Goals
	Guidance and lessons learned
	Tools and resources

Besides being adaptable, the plans and strategies can become more ambitious and comprehensive as the country moves through the different phases of post-conflict development.

Putting these management principles into practice means that the policy process has to include mechanisms for monitoring and learning. Applied to sustainable development processes, monitoring and reporting systems should be able to measure:

1. The progress in implementing policies; and
2. The economic, social, and environmental state (of the nation).

But measuring is not enough. The information needs to be fed back into the policy cycle, meaning it has to reach the decision makers and inform their actions and adoption of policy. Most of the time, however, there is no such formal mechanism for analysing the data collected and re-designing, improving, and adjusting policies (Swanson et al. 2004: 25).

One major problem in regard to measuring sustainable development is that the causality between sustainable development strategies and outcomes is very difficult to assess, making outcome monitoring and learning very hard (Swanson et al. 2004: 42). This does not mean that it should be ignored, but in a post-conflict context, resources and capacities are scarce. Thus, you should assess what is realistically possible. As mentioned before, sustainable development is an incremental process; a realistic step-by-step approach which leads in the right direction is a good start.

But feedback loops are not enough to adapt to change. Already during the planning and strategy process, flexible implementation options should be developed that are able to adjust to dynamic and changing situations (World Bank 2005a: 13). This means “plans which depend on scenario planning, learning, adaptation and intent rather than targeting” (UNDP 2010: 26).



Goals:

- Measure the progress in implementing policies and their impact on the economic, social, and environmental state, as well as peacebuilding.
- Design flexible implementation options to be able to adjust to dynamic and changing situations.



Guidance and lessons learned:

- Establish formal monitoring and progress mechanisms, like regular reporting on trends in the form of a report. These mechanisms should also review lessons learned and consequences of the action taken and trends observed. But do not take the formalisation of the learning process too far, since learning is, to a certain degree, informal. There should be a balance between formal and informal approaches and tools (Swanson et al. 2004: 41-42).
- Have indicators for monitoring already outlined when sustainable development and peacebuilding objectives are set (Swanson et al. 2004: 23).
- Establish partnerships with academic organisations, businesses, and NGOs. For example, set up advisory councils for implementation and monitoring, which are mandatory for environmental policies in Mexico. These partnerships can provide

advice and support. In general, they also increase participation (Swanson et al. 2004: 26).

- Evaluation can be time- and resource-intensive. Thus, it might be necessary to choose certain key actions, programs, or policies for monitoring.
- Do not forget the local level, since monitoring should not just cover the national level, but also local impacts.
- Develop a dissemination strategy for lessons learned and evaluation of results that accommodates the information needs of different actors. For example, develop policy briefs for decision makers.



Tools and Resources:

- **PRSP Sourcebook (World Bank):** This very comprehensive sourcebook on developing PRSPs includes chapters on monitoring and evaluation: <http://go.worldbank.org/JFUR0KRGD0>
- **Sustainable Development Strategies: A Resource Book** (Dalal-Clayton and Bass 2002) also includes instructive chapters on monitoring and evaluation in NSDS: <http://pubs.iied.org/9307SIIED.html>
- **Guidance Note on Integrating Environment into PCNAs (UNEP):** This document includes a number of generic progress indicators (UNEP 2009a: 11-12)

5 Element 4: Building Capacities for Sustainable Development in Post-Conflict Countries

As outlined in Chapter 2, low capacities are one of the major challenges for post-conflict countries in general, but also for achieving sustainable development in particular. Since there is plenty of literature, tools, and guidance on capacity building⁴ in general (for more information see www.undp.org/capacity/ and tools and resources below), the

guidance in this chapter focuses on the fourth element—**building critical capacities needed for developing and planning sustainable development strategies** in post-conflict countries. This chapter does not cover the specifics of how to *implement* sustainable development and peacebuilding strategies, for example on the sustainable and conflict-sensitive management of natural resources (see In-depth information 5 “Building capacities for managing land and natural resources”). Also, the guidance here does not cover all capacity challenges that post-conflict countries face in terms of strategy and planning. Instead, it focuses on some key areas that are often neglected and overlooked. The following sub-chapters describe these critical capacities and give guidance on how to develop them before embarking on more comprehensive reforms or programs. Sometimes, tackling these challenges can also be part of the reform and program itself. It does not necessarily have to be a prerequisite, but it is crucially important that the planned sustainable development plans and strategies match the level of institutional capacity. They should not be too comprehensive or complex (Dalal-Clayton and Bass 2000: 18), but *capacity consistent*. In order to know what the institutional capacity level is, a thorough and comprehensive capacity assessment should be done (see Tools and resources below).

In general, governments should concentrate on reforms that are feasible and not spend political capital on non-essential institutional reform. For example, anti-corruption efforts should first be targeted at corruption hindering development and recovery. This should also be recognised by donors, who should avoid “overwhelming reformers with too many demands, and accept some role for local patronage networks to avoid threatening political stability in volatile environments” (Dudwick and Nelsson 2008: 4).

You will find in this section

	In-depth information
	Tools and resources

⁴ The definition of capacity in these guidance notes is broad: Capacity is “the ability of people, organizations and society as a whole to manage their affairs successfully” (UNDESA n.d.: 18).. Capacity development “is the process whereby people, organizations and society as a whole unleash, strengthen, create, adapt and maintain capacity over time” (UNDESA n.d.: 18).



Tools and resources

- **Capacity Assessment Methodology (UNDG):** This tool helps to analyse different levels of institutional and organisational capacity of national governments: <http://www.undg.org/index.cfm?P=225>
- **Capacity Assessment Tool for Post Conflict Needs Assessments (UNCSS):** This is an instrument initially developed to assist Post-Conflict Needs Assessment (PCNA) practitioners and has a specific focus on capacity needs: <http://www.unssc.org/home/learning-product/capacity-assessment-tool>
- **National Capacity Self-Assessment for Global Environmental Management (NCSA):** This process is specifically designed for assessing environmental capacities. For more information, see Chapter 7.
- **Capacity Development in Post-Conflict Countries (UNDP 2010):** A good background document on capacity development in post-conflict countries <http://content.undp.org/go/cms-service/download/publication/?version=live&id=2805949>



In-depth information 5 Building capacities for managing land and natural resources

Land and natural resources often play an important role in violent conflicts (also see Chapter 3 and Case study 4, “Land conflict and tenure in post-conflict countries”). But if managed in an inclusive, conflict sensitive and sustainable way, land and natural resources can also play an important role in peacebuilding. As part of the UN-EU Partnership on Natural Resources, Conflict and Peacebuilding, a guidance note and training on Capacity Development for Managing Land and Natural Resources was developed (UN Framework Team for Preventive Action 2010e).

5.1 Overcoming lack of data, poor information management, and limited applied policy analysis

In post-conflict countries, data, as well as the capacities to collect, analyse, and feed it into the policy process are often weak. The loss of institutions during a conflict often goes hand in hand with lost data and information. In addition, the quality of the data available is often poor, predating the conflict or not directly relevant to conflict causes or peacebuilding. One example is data that lacks geographical disaggregation, making it hard to identify patterns of marginalisation (UNDP 2010: 19). Lost data can also be a direct obstacle to peacebuilding, as in the case of lost land registries or the repatriation of citizens (also see Study 4, “Land conflict and tenure in post-conflict countries”).

You will find in this section	
	Guidance and lessons learned
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Check list
	Case study
	Tools and resources

Thus, data collection and information management should be considered a key component of the post-war recovery process (World Bank 2005a: 62).⁵ It is important to treat this as a capacity building challenge and not a one-time data collection exercise. Priorities are not only to develop and improve information infrastructure and systems, like statistical departments, but also to increase networking and information sharing among the government and civil society. But civil society and the media not only need access to statistical information, they also need the capacities to analyse it (UNDESA n.d.: 28). This allows on the one side for informed policy debates and on the other side makes arguments for and against certain policies stronger and verifiable.

The lack of data and information management often goes hand in hand with low capacities for integrated policy analysis. The result is a short-sighted and poorly integrated policy. Building capacity in this field means not only to train staff to use tools for integrated policy analysis like they are outlined in Chapter 3. It also entails creating coordination mechanisms since integrated policy analysis normally spans different sectors (also see Chapter 5.2). But funds are used for more 'urgent' needs and policy analysis, monitoring, and evaluation are often underfunded (UNDESA n.d.: 12). This poses significant problems in regard to sustainable development strategies, since sound data and analytical capacity are a prerequisite and the base for any sustainable strategy process.

Guidance and lessons learned for national governments:

Although lack of data, poor information management, and lacking capacity for policy analysis are often named as impediments to developing more sustainable and sound development strategies, guidance on how to systematically approach these in post-conflict countries is practically non-existent. The only guidance and lessons learned available is from developing PRSPs in post-conflict countries:

- Disaggregate indicators, if disparities between regions and ethnicities are a major conflict source. GIS technology can be an important source of information (UNDESA 2009a, 10).
- Look for data from international organizations, e.g. from specific projects, to establish baselines (UNDESA 2009a, 10). Also, look for pockets of capacity that have been retained—for example, as part of ongoing programs of international financial institutions —by the Central Bank, etc. Although this information rarely includes recent social and poverty data, it can be used as the base for more extensive information gathering once conflict has come to an end. Look for data from NGOs and civil society organisations that had an ongoing presence throughout the conflict and after, to close data gaps (Conca 2006: 14, World Bank 2005a: 11).
- Do not try to do everything at once and prioritise your needs. “When there is a great shortage of accurate information there can be a tendency to want ‘everything at once’. This can put unwarranted stress on fragile systems and institutions – and rely on too many different projects being taken on (often with donor support) in unrealistic

⁵ It is important to understand the difference between data and information. Data is raw information in a computable format, while information, as it is used here, refers to processed and analysed data.

time-frames. If there has not been a census for many years, for example, it may be a mistake to try to do a major poverty survey in the same year as the first national census since a conflict” (McLean Hilker et al. 2003).

- Make sure that urgent information needs related to resettlement and reconstruction processes (for example, tracking population movements and the rehabilitation of essential services) are met before more ambitious poverty data exercises are conducted. Key poverty and social information can be gathered through rapid and participatory methods which will enable a start to be made, in advance of a national household income and expenditure survey (McLean Hilker et al. 2003).
- Tapping into expatriate communities to fill capacity and knowledge gaps can be a useful short-term strategy (UNDESA: 26-27). Also see Case study 3, “Diaspora engagement and capacity development”.
- Do not treat data collection and analysis as a one-time exercise. Use every opportunity to train personnel and build capacities for the long term.
- A critical mass of technical personnel in the Ministry of Finance and or Planning and a few key line Ministries is likely to be essential to kick-start more comprehensive sustainable development processes.



Case study 3 Diaspora engagement and capacity development

During and after conflict, many skilled individuals flee the country. Overcoming this so-called ‘brain drain’ is a serious challenge for post-conflict countries. While diasporas on the one hand make out-migration easier and thus often foster brain-drain, they also offer many opportunities. They can provide a pool of highly skilled individuals that, if tapped into, can help to overcome some of the capacity challenges of post-conflict countries. Governments and donors have different options to facilitate this process:

- Highly skilled professionals can visit the country for a limited time to build capacities and share their experiences (‘brain circulation’). These professionals can provide necessary means and stimuli for the development of certain sectors, like statistics. An example for this approach is Liberia’s Transfer of Knowledge Through Expatriate Nationals (TOKTEN) program.
- Incentive schemes can be set up to encourage the return and retention of highly skilled migrants. Effective practices have included official web sites with employment and other information, job placements, incentives such as travel costs, integration assistance, medical insurance, and professional equipment to help ensure successful reintegration (IOM 2010).



Guidance and lessons learned for donors:

- Do not forget or underfund capacity building in the area of data, information management, and policy analysis vis-à-vis urgent humanitarian tasks. Training and knowledge transfer should be used to make sure that data collection and analysis are not one-time exercises.

- Coordinate closely with national governments and among each other on analytical work to strengthen national capacities and avoid carrying out separate, uncoordinated analytical work (World Bank 2007: xv)

Check list 2 Policy Analysis

- What human and technical capacity exists to develop and own policy at sector and central authority level?
- How many central ministries currently exist and what recent policy and planning experience do they have?
- Have government salaries been paid recently?
- What is staff morale like?
- Are plans in place to attract capacity back to the public sector?
- How do decision makers get accurate, timely and accessible information?
- What national economic, social and environmental reports, profiles, and assessments exist?
- What institutional arrangements are in place to foster collaboration among data and information providers in order to integrate environmental information with socio-economic information?

(adapted from McLean Hilker et al. 2003 and UNDG 2009: 24)



Resources and Tools:

- **Online module on information requirements for sustainable policies** compiled by the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific http://www.unescap.org/drrpad/vc/orientation/M7_Intro.htm
- **A Guide to Designing a National Strategy for the Development of Statistics** (PARIS21 Secretariat: 2004) provides a very comprehensive introduction to the subject: http://siteresources.worldbank.org/SCBINTRANET/Resources/NSD_Guide-Nov04.pdf
- **PRSP Sourcebook (World Bank)**: Chapter 5 gives guidance on how to strengthen statistical systems: <http://go.worldbank.org/JFU0KRGD0>

5.2 Overcoming political and organisational fragmentation

Another common consequence of conflicts is that institutional linkages are weakened. Also, public institutions often still reflect the structures that were conducive to the outbreak of conflict in the first place and/or perpetuated conflict. For example, public institutions might still have links to their former leaders, remain divided along partisan lines,

or serve fractional political interests. In this context, vertical coordination across different levels of government (national, regional, and local) and horizontal coordination among different government ministries, as well as coordination among traditional and formal institutions, are often low. Another very important relationship that tends to lack coordination is between governments and donors (for information on ways to overcome this obstacle, see Chapter 5.3). Organisational fragmentation and weak linkages are important obstacles to planning and implementing multi-dimensional policy initiatives.

Many countries institutionalise cooperation within the government and with outside actors to strengthen collaboration and to ensure policy coherence. Examples include inter-ministerial or inter-agency committees, cabinets, and advisory bodies. It is fairly common to set up a new institutional structure for more comprehensive national planning processes, like PRSPs. The problem, however, is that creating another set of institutions might just contribute to fragmentation rather than create coherence. That is why, besides an institutional structure, management processes have to be set up to foster cooperation and coherence. The quality and quantity of the information flow within and among state institutions, as well as institutions beyond the government, is decisive to foster policy coherence and cooperation (Kaltenborn-Stachau 2008: 18).

On a more general level, ensuring policy coherence does not simply mean increasing central top-down control over the various sectors. It involves establishing certain rules and frameworks that foster cooperation and coordination (Obser 2003: 2). But cooperation cannot simply be created by rules and frameworks. It is only possible if the cooperating actors have an interest in cooperating. This can be done by providing incentives for cooperation or increasing the costs of not cooperating--for example, by punishing non-cooperation. Creating the right incentives is highly context-specific and defies any general guidance. Nevertheless, understanding the interests of the different institutions is a prerequisite for getting incentive structures right.

Guidance and lessons learned:

Although weak organisational links and fragmentation are often named as serious issues in post-conflict countries, specific guidance on how to overcome these challenges is practically non-existent. However, there is literature on general policy coherence that provides some instructive lessons:

- Do not create new institutions that work in isolation from established ministries and agencies.

Establish effective coordination processes and incentives for improving coherence through, for example, financial and fiscal mechanisms or information sharing

You will find in this section



Guidance and lessons learned



Tools and resources

mechanisms. This includes developing arbitration mechanisms to manage conflicts among different institutions and sectors.



Tools and Resources:

- **Improving Policy Coherence and Integration for Sustainable Development (OECD 2002):** This policy brief gives a good introduction into the subject: <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/61/19/2763153.pdf>

5.3 Dealing with a crowded context and donor involvement

Post-conflict countries are normally characterised by high aid flows, with an average of 14 - 24 percent of GDP one year after the end of conflict (UNDP 2008: 129-130). At the same time, many different international organisations, NGOs, peacekeeping troops, and donors work side by side with national institutions. This is often described as a crowded context and it creates its own problems. The sheer number of different donors and development programs with various time frames (humanitarian and peacekeeping having immediate to short term goals while donors have medium to long term goals) can be hard to manage and put a strain on the already low capacities of the government. This makes government ownership, a prerequisite for successful and sustainable development, hard to achieve.

You will find in this section	
	Guidance and lessons learned
	Tools and resources

Besides the complexity created by a multitude of different donors, there can also be negative effects stemming from their actions. For example, there is a risk of disempowering and undermining capacity of national governments by empowering local institutions through donors (UNDESA n.d., 13-14). Also, high flows of aid can lead to rent-seeking activities and corruption (Bevan 2005). Another risk is that aid and development assistance, if leading to real or perceived inequality, can exacerbate tensions among different groups.

In general, national governments need to take a more proactive role in determining how aid is allocated and managed and hold donors accountable for their actions. In this regard, building long-term relationships based on mutual trust is very important. This trust can be gained by showing the political commitment and capacity to drive the development process. For example, by delivering clear and realistic national development plans (Rocha Menocal and Mulley 2006). In other words, national governments have to show the ability to use funds and the space provided to restore and reform institutional capacities and policy (UNDP 2008: xxii).

A fairly new development is the establishment of so-called mutual accountability mechanisms that hold both recipient governments and donors accountable. Examples of such mechanisms include Tanzania's Independent Monitoring Group and Assistance Strategy and Afghanistan's Development Assistance Database (De Renzio and Mulley 2006). Besides these national initiatives, there are also a number of international agreements and mechanisms that incorporate dimensions of mutual accountability. These are part of the effort by the donor community to increase aid effectiveness. The main agreements and mechanisms are the EU's Cotonou Agreement, the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, the World Bank and IMF Global Monitoring Reports, and the Mutual Review of Development Effectiveness by UN ECA and DAC (for more information see De Renzio and Mulley 2006).

Guidance and lessons learned for national governments:

- Sound macroeconomic policies directly contribute to the maintenance of good relations with the donor community (Rocha Menocal and Mulley 2006: 20).

- Show commitment to reforming and strengthening the public sector, especially regarding public financing management and the budget. Strong institutions and enhanced capacity to clearly identify, prioritise, and address development needs, makes it easier for donors to align with your priorities and needs. This includes the points made in Chapter 5.1 and 5.2 regarding coordination and policy coherence (Rocha Menocal and Mulley 2006: 20-21).
- Show strong political will and commitment to lead the development agenda and your own development process. This is best done by developing a clear and well-articulated national development strategy (Rocha Menocal and Mulley 2006: 21).
- Engage with donors in an open, constructive and frank way. This does not have to be without friction. “Don’t be afraid to say ‘no’ to aid which fails to meet quality standards. With credible government ownership, donor behaviour is more flexible than many recipient governments believe” (De Renzio and Mulley 2006: 4).
- Establish mutual accountability mechanisms. This can be done, for example, by setting clear rules and procedures through semi-contractual arrangements or legislation that outlines processes for joint strategy formulation and standardised review cycles for donors and governments. Share experiences with other countries in this regard (for more information, see De Renzio and Mulley 2006).
- Increase transparency by disseminating information on aid and donor behaviour to allow for independent local monitoring. As a first step, create an openly accessible aid database (De Renzio and Mulley 2006: 4).
- Know the key international agreements and mechanisms pertaining to donor accountability, alignment and aid effectiveness and the donor commitments these include.

Guidance and lessons learned for donors:

- Implement guidelines and best practices outlined by international agreements on aid effectiveness, ownership, harmonisation, and alignment, as in the Paris Declaration.
- Make early and predictable aid pledges and foster faster and deeper debt relief (UNDP 2008: xxii).
- Support capacity building for aid management in order to strengthen the recipient government’s ability to negotiate with donors and monitor their behaviour (De Renzio and Mulley 2006: 4)
- Increase transparency by disseminating information on aid, aid policies, and commitments, as well as donor behaviour, on the national and international level (De Renzio and Mulley 2006: 4)

Tools and resources:

- For an introduction to mutual accountability mechanisms, please see De Renzio and Mulley (2006) and Rocha, Menocal, and Mulley (2006)
- The website [aideffectiveness.org](http://www.aideffectiveness.org) is a portal that provides access to tools, case studies, and essential documents on aid effectiveness, in general, and mutual accountability, in particular: <http://www.aideffectiveness.org>

- Better Aid (OECD): This publication series consists of key reference publications on development co-operation, prepared by the OECD DAC, and concentrates on the efforts by both donor and recipient countries in implementing their Paris Declaration commitments:

http://www.oecd.org/document/16/0,3746,en_2649_3236398_41726352_1_1_1_1,00.html

5.4 Leading for sustainable management

Visionary leadership can be a powerful tool for change, especially in the absence of strong institutions. Well-known examples include the Liberian President Ellen Johnson Sirleaf and former South African President Nelson Mandela. These leaders were not only endorsed by the public but

were also trusted and supported by the international community. Strong leadership after conflict can secure much-needed political buy-in for overcoming the legacy of conflict and rebuilding the state. This includes sustainable development strategies which need both political commitment and strong and visionary leadership to be successful. It is important to understand that leadership goes beyond the sphere of government; strong civil society leaders can also drive change, especially by setting the stage for society-state relations. This, of course, presupposes that there is an active and organised civil society in the first place, which might not be the case. In such cases, it should be a priority to empower society to become an actor of change.

To be effective and helpful, leaders must understand their role and value in a post-conflict country. Negative examples are leaders that understand themselves as victors in a ‘winner take all scenario’ and thereby continue the conflict legacy of leaders who remain attached to the role they had during the conflict. For example, some civil society leaders in Timor-Leste continued to see civil society-state relations as hostile and antagonistic since they came out of the movement that overthrew Suharto. This approach did not facilitate constructive and productive engagement in the public sphere (Kaltenborn-Stachau 2008: 19). Positive examples include leaders who understand themselves as brokers of peace, guarantors of stability, or catalysts for post-conflict development. Their leadership is not only based on authority, charisma, or being the victor, but more on their ability to “build coalitions around common desires to overcome conflict and crisis” (Andrews 2009: 33). Expressed as critical leadership skills, this attitude reflects the ability to foster collective action, mediate, negotiate, and build consensus and stable relationships across different societal and political groups (UNDP 2010: 14). This also means that successful leadership is based on coalitions of change bringing together different parties and representing different constituencies. Coalitions often have more than one leader. These leaders can and should have different roles. “Three main roles centre on (i) creating acceptance for the purpose at hand, (ii) building authority to achieve this purpose, and (iii) enhancing the coalition’s ability to achieve the purpose, by mobilising funds, people and even information” (Andrews 2009: 34).

As important as strong leaders can be, in the long run, it is essential to build inclusive governance structures that are accountable to a large constituency to ensure accountability and stability. “Personality-driven institutions most often lack downward accountability and are subject to rapid decline should the leader leave the country or the institution (Kaltenborn-Stachau 2008: 17).” Thus it is important to use the space and support generated by strong leadership to build institutions and develop the necessary processes. Inevitably, the question of succession will come and, if not addressed early on, can challenge the structures and processes created. This also means that leaders have to change their management style as institutions get

You will find in this section	
	Guidance and lessons learned
	Tools and resources

progressively stronger. They have to make sure that legitimacy shifts to these institutions (World Bank and UNDP: 10).

Guidance and lessons learned for governments:

- Build coalitions that are broad and representative, including actors from outside the government like citizens and donors. These coalitions normally function in a non-hierarchical way.
- Produce and demonstrate results by de-constructing the crisis in solvable chunks (Andrews 2009).
- In many cultures, elders traditionally take leadership roles, but there are also important opportunities to build young leaders. This can be done through programs and policies to empower young people, as done in Liberia, Rwanda, and Timor Leste (UNDESA: 23). This is also important in regard to the role of young men in conflicts.
- As institutions grow stronger, ensure that legitimacy shifts to these institutions.

Guidance and lessons learned for donors:

- Leadership development should not be limited to the government, but also include political parties, business, civil society, and labour leaders as well as the media (UNDP 2010: 14).
- Support leaders to understand what respective roles they can play and promote programs to increase interaction (Kaltenborn-Stachau 2008: 33)

Tools and resources:

- **Leadership Development Services (World Bank):** The World Bank is supporting leadership development around the world <http://go.worldbank.org/M1HWXSE3T0>

6 Element 5: Sequencing and prioritising policy reform in post-conflict countries

It is critically important that reforms in post-conflict countries are gradual and sequential. Successful reforms strengthen the reformers and lay the institutional foundation, political will, and legitimacy for more complex reforms (UNDP 2008: xxi). While the challenge of sequencing is prevalent at all stages of development interventions, it is particularly acute in the crowded post-conflict situation where short-term humanitarian and longer-term development needs can collide (UNDESA n.d.: 21). Sequencing and prioritising policy reforms is the fifth element of the generic guidance and a key concept for peacebuilding and development in post-conflict countries. It is normally based on defining three major development phases after conflict. Priorities, challenges, and capacities vary and change while moving through these phases.

This chapter explains how these three phases of post-conflict development are defined, as well as the limitations of this approach. Three sub-chapters provide examples and summarise lessons learned for sequencing and prioritising different policy areas. This is meant to serve as background knowledge and as the basis for country-specific analysis. The list of policy areas is not comprehensive and has an emphasis on those fields within the sector that are normally overlooked. Where possible, these priorities are structured following the three main development phases in post-conflict countries. In cases in which areas are not clearly structured along the three phases, guidance and lessons learned were not conclusive enough to allow linking certain priorities to different phases. In order to link this Element to Element 2, possibilities for achieving synergies between the different dimensions of sustainable development are identified in a box at the end of each sub-chapter titled “Thinking outside the box”.

6.1 Phases of Post-Conflict Development

The transition between recovery, (re)construction, and long-term development is not a linear process (UNDESA n.d.: 20). The different phases of transition overlap considerably. Also, different geographic regions or social groups are likely to be in different development phases. This makes it hard to clearly define and separate them.

With these limitations in mind, most literature on post-conflict development identifies and defines three major phases (see, for example, Collier et al. 2003; UNDG, UNDP and World Bank 2004; Debiel und Terlinden 2005). The following description of these phases is not meant as a blueprint but as background information to identify development priorities and assess the capacity for reform. Priorities do not mean that *all* actions are focused on these particular goals. For example, in Phase I actions with a long-term impact should also be started. Actually, more and more research shows that the most successful recovery encompasses actions that work with different time horizons (see Chapter 4.2)—that is, the transition between the phases is not linear.

Phase I: Stabilisation (‘Quick wins’ and identification of priorities) (0-3 years): The primary goal of this phase is to stabilise, set priorities, and start the recovery process.

This often includes starting the regrouping and (re)building of organisations, human and technical capacities, and transparent procedures within governments and constituencies. Peacebuilding in this phase involves picking the low-hanging fruit to produce first peace dividends and progress. This will create a base on which to build to tackle more difficult reconstruction tasks. The humanitarian efforts in this phase should have a long-term vision in order to reduce dependency and make the transition to sustainable development easier (UNDESA n.d.: 21). Participation structures and legal structures are most of the time lacking in this phase, but informal fora and dialogue can play an important role (Debiel and Terlinden 2005: 19).

Phase II: Transition and Recovery (Re-building a legitimate state and larger reconstruction works) (4-7 years): The main goal of this phase is to transition to normal public service delivery and, thus, establish and build legitimacy for the government. The public institutions are now strong enough to engage in larger reconstruction works and the focus shifts away from short-term humanitarian to a longer-term vision for sustainable development. While foreign donors can play a leading role in development initiatives, local stakeholders at various levels should be included in planning and implementation to build ownership (UNDESA n.d.: 22). This is the earliest phase to try to come to terms with the past and start a reconciliation process (Debiel and Terlinden 2005: 19-20).

Phase III: Development (Normalizing development and poverty reduction) (8-10 years): The country moves from externally driven to 'normal' sustainable development processes. The integration into regional or global initiatives, agreements, or intergovernmental agencies supports these processes (UNDESA n.d.: 22).

It has to be emphasised that priorities are not only dependent on urgent needs and risks, but also on the capacities and the political nature of the peace process (Maier 2010: 42). This only underlines the need for a thorough conflict assessment and understanding of the political economy (Chapter 1) and a comprehensive capacity assessment (Chapter 4) to set realistic priorities, but also to identify priority areas for capacity building. Concurrently, complex problems most often do not have simple technical solutions. On the other hand, reforms that tackle too many factors at the same time can be too ambitious and inefficient. It should also be noted that there is no general consensus as to whether prioritising key reforms one after the other (the so-called 'sequential' approach) is better than the 'gradualist' approach by which many reforms are implemented simultaneously, but in piecemeal steps (OECD/DAC 2008a: 24).

6.2 Environment and natural resources

The UNEP (2009a) guidance notes, "Integrating Environment in Post-Conflict Needs Assessments", outlines priority areas for environment and natural resources in post-conflict countries along the different post-conflict development phases:

Phase I "Stabilisation": Top policy priorities are those that contribute to peace in the immediate future. These include:

- Preventing the illegal trade of natural resources to finance spoiler groups, if possible by engaging spoilers and providing alternative livelihoods (please refer to the discussion of livelihoods below).
- Considering environment and access to natural resources (especially land) in policies regarding resettlement and repatriation of internally displaced people and refugees.
- Mitigating acute environmental hotspots by clean-up operations to protect public health and restore confidence in the state.

Phase II "Transition and Recovery": As economic recovery picks up, good governance and resource management practices should be more broadly integrated into economic development. Such efforts include:

- Building sustainable livelihoods, especially for vulnerable, marginalised and possible spoiler groups, like ex-combatants and refugees.
- Mitigating chronic environmental problems—such as land degradation and water availability—that may threaten lives and livelihoods.
- Building and empowering governance capacity in national and sub-national government institutions that work on or around the issues of natural resources and environment.
- Supporting economic development by sustainably harnessing natural resources and ecosystem services that can have positive effects on infrastructure development, labour demand, internal and external investment, and government revenues.
- Using shared management of natural resources to foster dialogue, confidence building, cooperation, and reconciliation among divided groups.
- Resolving disputes over ownership, benefits, and access. This should include the establishment of national processes to resolve conflicts over natural resource. Examples include revenue sharing agreements and land tenure reform.



Case study 4 Land conflicts and tenure in post-conflict countries

Land is closely linked to social and cultural identities. It is also an important economic asset and the direct source of income for many people. This often makes land a central object of conflict, especially in the post-conflict period. At the same time, land is critical to achieving economic growth and poverty reduction in particular, and sustainable development in general.

After conflict, new demands for housing and land from internally displaced people, returning refugees, and the international assistance community often increase competition over land. At the same time, the state and its institutions may be weak: land records may have been lost, damaged, or tampered with; technical staff and planners may have died or emigrated. Also, customary and traditional institutions often suffer during conflict and young population groups like ex-combatants do not recognise their legitimacy anymore. New informal institutions might have emerged during the conflict and are still continuing to operate.

In this fluid institutional environment, people try to restore and secure their rights. Illegal allocations and land grabbing take place as former combatants are rewarded for their loyalty during the conflict or reward themselves. Where claims or administrative and ethnic borders overlap, groups sometimes try to expand their borders, secure valuable resources, or consolidate their population.

All these issues cannot be solved in the short-term, but should be included in Post-Conflict Needs Assessments (PCNA) and other needs assessments that are normally conducted in Phase I. These assessments should identify specific urgent issues that can be addressed in Phase II, such as the review of concessions, informal settlements, and land allocation procedures. In addition, Phase II is also the time to set up land dispute resolution systems that include traditional, local, and national institutions for land and resources as well as the judiciary and specialised post-conflict institutions like land commissions. Capacity building can also start in this Phase, while more comprehensive reforms like land reform are better approached in Phase III.

Source: UN Framework Team on Preventive Action 2010a

Phase III “Development”: As the country moves out of its post-conflict phase into more ‘normal’ development, the time horizon becomes more long-term and the attention shifts to longer-term environmental risks, like climate change, long-term ecosystem revitalization, and management capacities.

Thinking outside the box: How to achieve synergies?

Sustainable management of natural resources and environmental protection are important, but the impacts on the livelihoods of the population have to be considered in order to achieve social and economic sustainability (also refer to Chapter 6.4 on livelihoods). A special focus should be put on destructive coping strategies. Building sustainable livelihoods in societies in which a large portion of the population relies on agriculture is closely connected to environmental management. The management and protection of natural resources and ecosystems can also be an employment opportunity. For example, former combatants could be retrained to become park rangers or tour guides (Godnick and Klein 2009). Also, in regard to natural resource management, previous remarks on the role of conflict resources should be taken into account.

6.3 Social service provision

Education and **basic health services** are critically important in post-conflict countries with low human capital. Those sectors should not fall behind infrastructure rehabilitation and improvement. Whether investment should go into health or education is highly context dependent (UNDP 2008: 65):

- Some activities in the education sector show quick results and require only limited resources and knowledge, like primary schooling (UNDP 2008: 60). “The reconstruction of schools and the return of children can be one of the most effective ways to demonstrate a peace dividend to the local population and to help the government rebuild the social contract” (UNDP 2008: 63).
- Secondary and tertiary education require more resources and knowledge, but are also in high demand since secondary and tertiary education levels are normally low in post-conflict countries and the number of young people in need for (re)education is high. Thus, creative solutions are needed. Obvious entry points are reintegration programmes that can include vocational training, formal education, or on-the-job training. Also, so-called ‘alternative basic education’ initiatives, as piloted in Northern Uganda, Somaliland, and Southern Sudan, could be relevant. These include radio programming, vouchers for educational or vocational training, and accelerated learning schemes (UNDP 2008: 60).
- Conflict sensitivity in education and health service provision is indispensable. They can also be used as peace-building instruments, as in Mozambique where education was emphasised as a peace and community-building instrument (UNDP 2008: 63). Education programmes should also not recreate pre-war horizontal and gender inequalities, such as limiting vocational training courses for jobs with higher earning potential for young men (UNDP 2008: 64).
- In many cases, basic health services are deficient long before conflict. Thus, investing in the provision of basic health services can be a good way for the government to prove its effectiveness and realise a peace dividend (UNDP 2008: 64-65).

Thinking outside the box: How to achieve synergies?

Since the benefits of education and health for economic sustainability do not have to be explained, the focus will be put on environmental sustainability. While the foundation for an environmental consciousness can be laid in primary education, secondary and tertiary education provides an opportunity to lay the foundation for ‘green’ economic activities. Vocational training to build skills in the sustainable management of ecosystems, in sustainable farming practices, or energy saving technologies (like improved cooking stoves) might be viable options.

6.4 The Economy: Macroeconomic growth and poverty reduction

Four fields in the economic sector deserve special attention: 1) Macroeconomic growth, 2) employment, 3) livelihoods, and 4) the private sector, trade, and investment.

UNDP's Crisis Prevention and Recovery Report from 2008, 'Post-Conflict Economic Recovery', summarises the logic of priority setting in the economic sector of post-conflict countries:

"Post-conflict economies are analogous to damaged engines, which regain their functioning and increase in power as key pieces are repaired and fuel is provided in greater quantity and better quality. This suggests that there are first-order priorities, such as reducing the risk of conflict, promoting the resumption of investment activity and installing an appropriate institutional framework. Other considerations are probably not at the same level: bringing down inflation to single-digit levels, pursuing competitiveness or raising taxes right after conflict ends. Policy makers should promote recovery that is self-reinforcing, by building on early economic and political dividends to generate goodwill and buy-in for subsequent reforms. Excessively complex reforms, particularly in the domains of financial liberalization and privatization, risk backfiring if a proper regulatory regime is not yet in place." (UNDP 2008: 138)

Macroeconomic growth

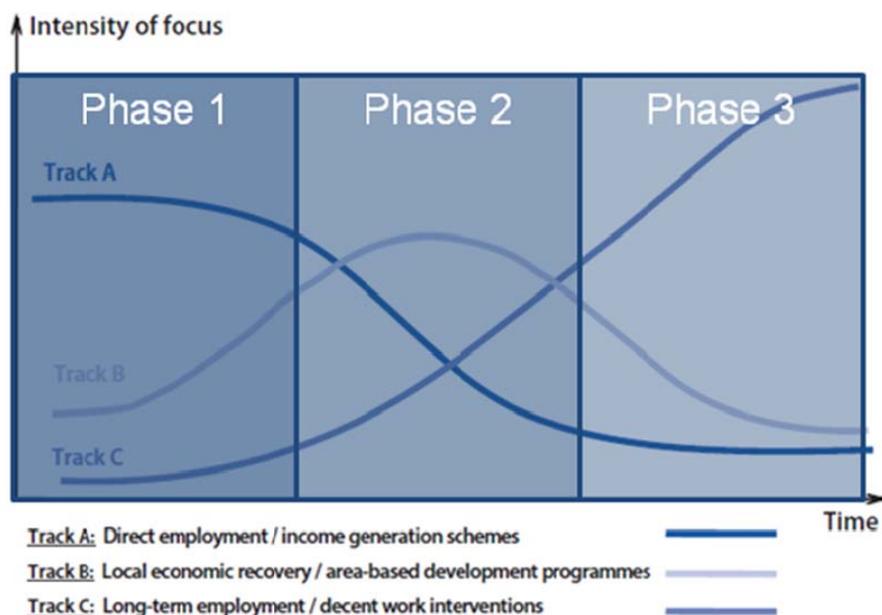
Post-conflict countries normally face huge macroeconomic challenges, including a shrunken economic base, moderate to high inflation, chronic fiscal deficits, high levels of external and domestic government debt, and low domestic government revenues (UNDP 2008: 107-108). But there are positive examples of countries breaking the conflict trap and realising impressive growth (UNDP 2008: 108). Lessons from these countries show:

- "In addition to usual fiscal, monetary and exchange rate policies, the post-conflict policy regime must include employment policy and business environment policy" (UNDP 2008: 108).
- A major challenge is to accomplish inclusiveness and human development, meaning that economic growth benefits all population groups, especially the poor. This is a particular challenge in countries with capital-intensive resource extraction industries, the revenue from which might only benefit a small part of the population (UNDP 2008: 114). It is important to focus on those sectors that employ a majority of the population – in many post-conflict countries this is the agricultural sector (UNDP 2008: 115). In this regard, it is essential to tackle inequitable property relations that underwrite so much of modern agrarian society (also see Case study 4, 'Land conflicts and tenure in post-conflict countries').
- While balancing macroeconomic stability and political stability is important, in the short term, keeping public spending high enough to cover basic needs and offering tangible peace dividends is imperative to prevent a relapse into conflict. "In such settings, macroeconomic orthodoxy is impractical" since it would require reducing the budget deficit to increase price stability (UNDP 2008: 125).

In general, economic growth alone is by no means an indicator for sustainable development, but it is a necessary condition (UNDP 2008: 137).

Employment

“Fostering jobs and livelihoods in the immediate aftermath of war must be an economic and political imperative for public policy and donor interventions” (UNDP 2008: 74). The problem is that economic reforms aimed at macroeconomic stability and fiscal sustainability may create employment in the long term, but in the mid and near-term they might just do the opposite (UNDP 2008: 74). To address this challenge, the United Nations (2009) developed a post-conflict employment policy with three distinct but interlinked tracks of employment policies. These three tracks can be linked to the three phases of post-conflict development--Track A gets more attention in Phase I and increasing attention to Tracks B and C occurs as the country moves through Phases II and III.



Note: 'Intensity of focus' is both qualitative and quantitative, denoting the extent of policy and programme commitment to each avenue for employment creation. It captures the idea that over time emphasis shifts from one track to another as the economy returns to 'normalcy'.

Figure 5 Dimensions of post-conflict employment policy by development phase (adapted from UNDP 2009)

Phase I: Stabilisation. Track A focuses on war-affected and vulnerable individuals and tries to provide temporary jobs, strengthen local skills, and rebuild economic and social infrastructures by high-visibility, labour-intensive public works programmes that go hand in hand with short-cycle training programmes (UNDP 2008: 74-75) “Activities amenable to this approach include irrigation projects with a focus on smallholder farmers, water, sanitation and solid waste management in urban and rural areas, feeder roads and rural access infrastructure, and the reconstruction or rehabilitation of public buildings” (UNDP 2008: 75).

Phase II: Transition and Recovery. As Track A begins to get less attention, Track B starts to build up. It focuses on communities and tries to build labour demand by fostering local economic growth. “This entails investments in socioeconomic

infrastructure and local institutions, restoring the natural resource base and rebuilding local government capacity. It is also an opportunity to assist in the introduction of value-adding, income-generating activities, such as the cultivation of high-value crops, agribusiness and food processing. These community-based or livelihood-based initiatives also seek to find solutions to the serious challenges faced or posed by the economic activities (mostly informal, sometimes criminal) inherited from the conflict era” (UNDP 2008: 75).

Phase III: Development. Track C targets the macro-level and is broader and more long-term in scope. “This includes interventions geared towards changing industrial structures, nurturing the local private sector and labour markets, inducing foreign investment and strengthening intersectoral linkages. It also involves fostering social dialogue to define by consensus the ‘rules of the game’, including addressing sensitive issues like human rights, gender equality and protection for marginalised groups. It can begin immediately after conflict ends and be intensified with increased stability. One of the major aims of the whole process is to encourage a transition from aid-supported employment to unsubsidized private and public sector job growth” (UNDP 2008: 75).

Livelihoods

To help households escape the poverty trap, livelihood interventions have to be particularly innovative. Providing capital goods for agriculture like seeds, pesticides, fertilizer, and tools are obvious starting points. Beyond agriculture, training individuals to expand their income options is a common strategy. These programmes should build upon what is already there instead of embarking on riskier initiatives. This is the basic premise of so-called **community-driven development** and **area-based development** (UNDP 2008: 76). Both approaches are largely donor driven and while both approaches emphasise communities and participation in the development process, area-based approaches deliberately try to engage in conflict prevention, peace-building, and post-conflict reconstruction with the goal to link post-conflict reconstruction and long-term development. With an emphasis on the local and regional level, these approaches are good at engaging local and regional actors and gearing development to their needs, but are limited in their ability to address national or cross-border issues (Vrbensky 2008).

One serious challenge of post-conflict economies is the legacy of war economies, especially those economic activities that involve illegal activities. “Trying to apply ‘orthodox’ reforms to restrict the **informal economy** will not work with those who depend on illegal economic activities out of necessity or greed. Criminal economies will not be abolished by fiat, especially when such activities are an integral aspect of global market dynamics” (UNDP 2008: 78). Trying to tackle these problems, allowing for economic continuity in the short run, and policy reform implementation might sometimes involve unsavoury trade-offs and engaging politically highly controversial actors (UNDP 2008: 78). Instead of trying to abolish informal sector activities, it might be more successful to try to transform these activities. Alternative livelihood programmes which provide options beyond illegal activities must be comprehensive, long-term, and integrated in national development programmes (UNDP 2008: 78).

The private sector, trade, and investment

Foreign direct investment (FDI) and trade – particularly exports – are very important for economic growth. Evidence compiled by UNDP (2008) suggests that FDI favours resource-rich countries. It also shows that policy matters: political and macroeconomic stability, a relatively liberal trade regime, cheap labour, and sound exchange rate management have, for example, played a role in Mozambique's economic growth (UNDP 2008: 118). The private sector can be a force for development, inject needed capital, and be less constrained than donors and governments. But an under-regulated, low-competition, post-conflict environment can give entrepreneurs significant power which they can misuse. It is important that corporate responsibility takes seriously the legacy of conflict and accompanying social divisions, inequities, and fears. A balance has to be achieved between private sector opportunities to maximize economic growth and ensure that regulation is equitable and sustainable (UNDESA n.d.: 36).

Two main lessons can be drawn regarding business-enabling policies:

- Reforms should start early, but be gradual. Reforms were adopted in “a sequential, step-by-step approach, with early, often easier, reforms facilitating and laying the ground for those that follow” (UNDP 2008: 119).
- Privatisation has produced mixed results and needs sufficient preparation and adequate regulatory, financial, and competitive frameworks. Criminal networks in post-conflict countries can undermine this process. Private participation in infrastructure and public service delivery instead of privatizing them can be an alternative (UNDP 2008: 121). Although, with low public sector capacity, public-private partnerships for long-term sustainable development can be premature in early post-conflict stages of development (UNDESA n.d., 15-16).

Thinking outside the box: How to achieve synergies?

While a comprehensive approach to achieving 'green growth' or a 'green economy' might be too ambitious in most post-conflict environments, certain economic policies can be easily designed to achieve social and environmental benefits. The above outlined priorities and policies already emphasise the social dimension of economic development. What is missing is the link to environment. Some of these possibilities were already described in Chapter 2. For example, the possibility to create jobs and livelihoods that help to restore, protect, or manage natural resources in a sustainable way. Especially in the agricultural sector, low-intensity and smarter approaches can help combine economic, social, and environmental goals. Organic agriculture can provide high value crops. This can also be combined with private sector development. For example, provide support for young entrepreneurs who want to build green and social businesses.

Building stable relationships and trust is a cornerstone of peacebuilding and economic development. Treating relationship-building as a central part of economic development by purposefully designing policies and actions, as well as allocating resources and time, might hold benefits for economic development and peacebuilding (International Alert 2009).

A word of caution: Economic sustainability, market distortion and aid

While it is understandable and often necessary that peacebuilding is superseding concerns about economic soundness and sustainability, policy makers and donors should be aware of the possible negative, market-distorting effects of large scale aid, stabilisation, and peacebuilding. Sound market and economic analysis should accompany conflict sensitivity to maximise economic sustainability (International Alert 2009).

7 Entry Points for Sustainable Development in Post-Conflict Countries

Ideally, NSDS serves as an umbrella for all strategic planning: a broad vision of development objectives and directions for the nation over a particular time period. As such, it provides “a framework within which sector policies, plans and supporting legislation, procedures and actions could be developed, reviewed and harmonized” (Dalal-Clayton and Bass 2000: 13). But a new umbrella initiative or process is not a realistic option for most post-conflict countries. As outlined in the beginning, in the face of many existing strategies, plans, and initiatives to tackle sustainable development in post-conflict countries, existing strategies, plans, and initiatives are the best entry point. This not only reduces duplications but also holds the promise of better use of scarce resources and higher policy efficiency through more policy coherence.

This chapter gives an overview of possible entry points for integrating sustainable development in existing strategies. It builds upon the five elements and generic guidance given in Chapters 2 to 6. All the guidance in previous chapters is applicable to the entry points outlined in this chapter. Thus, guidance in this chapter will not duplicate the generic guidance, but focus on customizing generic guidance and adding details where such lessons learned and experiences exist. These guidance notes focus on planning and strategy processes. Thus, the specific guidance focuses on how to integrate sustainable development and peacebuilding into the process of developing strategies and plans. However, there is no guidance on how to implement or integrate these elements at a later stage of the process.

Two types of strategy and planning processes stand out as **main entry points** since most post-conflict countries already have them in place and they have a very broad scope encompassing multiple sectors (UNDESA 2009b, c). International experience shows that these processes can, in the long run, be expanded to full-fledged NSDS (UNDESA 2009d):

- 1. National development plans** are periodical development plans normally covering a period of five years and setting out major development objectives. While many developing countries have a long tradition of developing such plans, not every developing country does. Often economic concerns dominate environmental and social concerns (Clayton and Barry 2002: 38).
- 2. Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers** are a largely donor-driven tool to articulate a vision for growth and poverty reduction, yet often lack a clear environmental dimension. The fact that almost all post-conflict countries already have a PRSP or are in the process of developing one, makes them the most realistic and obvious entry point for sustainable development in post-conflict countries.

National development plans as well as PRSPs normally have a time horizon of around 5 years. As outlined in chapter 4.2, having a long-term vision for development is an essential element of sustainable development. **National Visions**, which normally cover a time span of 20-30 years, can complement other development strategies by providing a set of more general long-term goals.

Comprehensive approaches like PRSPs need a certain level of capacities and stability to be successful. While an Interim PRSP (I-PRSP) will most likely already be developed in Phase II, a full-fledged PRSP or national development plan should not start before a certain level of recovery has been achieved (UNDESA 2009a, 12). Normally, this means that these plans are developed in Phase III.

But there are also possibilities to integrate sustainable development principles that do not require this level of capacity. A number of specific interventions, mostly donor-driven can provide earlier entry points. These are **donor, peacebuilding, and recovery strategies** that are normally prepared in Phase I and implemented in Phase II. But also in Phase III, there are a number of donor strategies that can be used as entry points, like the United Nation's Development Assistance Frameworks.

Environmental and natural resources strategies serve as another possible entry point. Since these strategies already cover the environment, the goal here is to link them with the social and economic dimensions of sustainable development. Although this approach is sectoral, we included it here to show how sectoral strategies can also serve as entry points. Experiences and lessons learned from sectoral approaches can serve as pilot, starting points, or input for more comprehensive approaches that follow later.

The following sub-chapters include examples for all of these entry points and give specific guidance and lessons learned on ways in which to integrate peacebuilding and sustainable development where such experiences exist. Figure 5 provides an overview of the entry points covered in this chapter, structured along the three post-conflict development phases.

Phase I: Stabilisation	Phase II: Transition and Recovery	Phase III: Development
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Post Conflict Needs Assessments and Transitional Results Frameworks • United Nations Peacebuilding Fund (IRF) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interim PRSP • United Nations Peacebuilding Fund (PRF) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PRSP • National Development Plans • National Visions • Common Country Assessment Frameworks (CCA) and UN Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAF) • National Forest Programme • Convention Specific Plans • National Capacity Self-Assessment for Global Environmental Management (NCSA)

Figure 6 Overview of strategies and planning processes

7.1 Main entry points

The following three main entry points are the most common comprehensive strategy and planning processes in post-conflict countries. As outlined before, comprehensive strategy and planning processes need a certain level of recovery. The following box lists some minimum conditions that should be in place for a more comprehensive approach like a PRSP or a national plan to be successful. This list is not meant as a check list, but more as guidance to realistically assess the situation. The indicators are intentionally soft and flexible and only provide examples:

 **In-depth information 6 Minimum conditions for more comprehensive reform processes in post-conflict countries**

- **Basic security:** This means large scale violence has ended. For example, international forces have moved from peace enforcement to peacekeeping.
- **Basic capacity** of the government to start and sustain such a process. For example, Interim PRSP or other national development plans have already been developed.
- A **commitment** of the government to sustainable development and integration of the process into mainstream decision-making systems. For example, the prime

minister and its office play an important part in the process and all important ministries are included – not only the environment ministry.

- **Political space** for non-governmental actors to participate in the process and voice their interests in regard to national development processes. For example, civil society organisations are not oppressed because of opposing views and elections have taken place without widespread violence.

7.1.1 National Development Plans



Many countries develop periodic National Development Plans (NDP), like India's five-year plans. Led by national planning commissions or equivalent bodies, state ministries develop sectoral chapters of an NDP that are then screened for financial and political concerns. Social and environmental impacts often play a lesser role. Many of these plans have moved away from a philosophy of central planning to enable civil society action (Dalal-Clayton and Barry 2002: 38-41). National plans tend to set out broad goals and include concrete projects and activities. The links to the annual budget or the medium-term expenditure framework vary from country to country.

You will find in this section	
	Advantages
	Risks and challenges
	Guidance and lessons learned

The main difference between NDPs and PRSPs is that the latter are less or not donor driven. Nevertheless, NDPs and PRSPs bare a lot of similarities, with PRSPs being a special donor-driven form of national planning.



Advantages:

- Comprehensive national planning and strategy process that can eventually become a full-fledged NSDS.



Sustainable development challenges:

- In general, the economic imperatives are dominant. Often finance ministries are in charge of development planning with the result that the social and environmental dimensions are weak. "At best, the general approach is to screen out potential bad impacts, rather than to screen for the most positive environmental and social outcomes" (Dalal-Clayton and Barry 2002: 38).



Process and organisational challenges:

- Participation of civil society and private sector involvement tends to be weak in strongly governmental-driven processes (Dalal-Clayton and Barry 2002: 38)

 **Guidance and lessons learned:**

There is no specific guidance for NDPs since these plans vary widely and lessons learned are sparse. Refer to the generic guidance in Chapter 2 to 6 for guidance on how to mainstream sustainability principles into NDPs. Also, most of the specific guidance in the next chapter on PRSPs is also applicable to NDPs and vice versa. These chapters should be read together.

7.1.2 Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)



Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP) outline a country’s strategies, policies, and programmes to promote growth and reduce poverty. Although largely donor-driven, they are prepared by governments through a participatory process involving both civil society and donors. The intended outcome is for government to own the formulation process of the Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS) and for donors to subscribe to it. PRSPs that are approved by the IMF and World Bank are the key criterion for assessing debt relief and other forms of assistance. Ideally, they also serve as coordinating strategic documents to prevent duplication and lack of donor coordination. “They have become the key document for multilateral and bilateral aid at large” (Klem 2004: 7). A PRSP integrating environmental, social, and economic concerns can become a full-fledged NSDS (Dalal-Clayton and Barry 2002: 61, OECD et al. 2007).

You will find in this section	
	Advantages
	Risks and challenges
	Guidance and lessons learned
	Check list
	In-depth information
	Tools and resources

While still referred to as *Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers*, this term goes beyond the paper and document itself, which is only one tangible product of the Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS) process. It encompasses a comprehensive national planning and strategy process.

In order to receive concession assistance without delay, Interim PRSPs that have a more limited scope and include a timeline and process for the development of a full PRSP are prepared. This is often the case in Post-Conflict Countries and would normally happen in Phase II. The guidance here pertains to both PRSPs and Interim PRSPs.

 **Advantages:**

- Comprehensive national planning and strategy process that can eventually become a full-fledged NSDS.
- Key document for multilateral and bilateral aid.

Sustainable development challenges:

- Too much focus on the economy while not taking the social and political aspects of poverty into account (Klem 2004: 10).
- Relative lack of environmental sustainability, especially in regard to environment-poverty links.
- Attention on short-term needs in a way that undermines long-term recovery.
- Avoidance of hard choices and prioritisation in order to maintain support from divided constituencies (World Bank 2005a: 17).

Process and organisational challenges:

- Lack of inclusion and participation.
- Lack of willingness of donors to subordinate and adapt.
- Lack of ownership by the government.
- Lack of national capacity to conduct comprehensive poverty diagnostics (World Bank 2005a: 10).
- Weak contextual analysis of conflict factors and their link to poverty (World Bank 2005a: 12).

Guidance and lessons learned for national governments:

PRSP in general:

- Be realistic. The goal of PRSPs is poverty reduction not conflict prevention or sustainable development. Thus, it is important to understand that sustainable development and conflict prevention will be dealt as part of poverty reduction and growth action programmes and not as separate objectives. (World Bank 2005a: 36)
- PRSPs are likely to need many iterations before the adequately address medium-term challenges in a well-prioritised manner (Dudwick and Nelsson 2008: 3).
- While technical solutions are a good start and sometimes the most realistic action, complex problems often need more comprehensive approaches. For example, the criminalisation of the economy cannot be just tackled by improving the tax administration or increasing the number of customs officers (World Bank 2005a: 12). Looking at linkages between the different dimensions of sustainable development as well as sustainable development and peacebuilding opportunities can help to develop more comprehensive, multi-dimensional approaches.

Participation:

- Strengthen parliaments in order to represent their constituencies more efficiently and better oversee the PRSP process (World Bank 2005a: 10).

Comprehensive analysis and scope:

- Systematically integrate conflict analysis and discussion of conflict-induced poverty unless this undermines the peacebuilding effort, for example by destroying the little trust built up among conflict groups. This includes a strong analysis of all conflict drivers and risk multipliers and their linkages (World Bank 2005a: 11-13).

- Do a thorough impact assessment of planned actions, programmes, and policies in regard to sustainable development and peacebuilding to understand long-term consequences and indirect impacts.
- Environment: Make sure to address the links between conflict and environment, as well as poverty and environment (for entry points and actions please refer to the In-depth information 5, “Greening PRSPs”).
- Economy: Target poverty-dominated growth sectors, like agriculture. Take trade-offs between short-term macro-economic stabilisation and long-term development into account since substantial adjustment costs should be avoided (Obwona and Guloba 2009).
- Draw from expertise of humanitarian agencies, NGOs and donors to develop proxy indicators for conflict-related poverty (World Bank 2005a: 11).
- Combine quantitative and qualitative approaches, like needs assessments and PPAs (see below) to cover the non-income dimensions of poverty (World Bank 2005a: 11).

 **Guidance and lessons learned for donors:**

- Be realistic about the quality and scope of PRSPs in post-conflict countries to not set unattainable goals (World Bank 2005a: 15-16)
- Support the process, but do not drive it. Instead, make a concerted effort to prioritise country ownership rather than promote your own vision or priorities (World Bank 2005a: 15-16)
- Align your support with the priorities identified in the PRSPs (World Bank 2005a: 16)⁶
- “Differentiate between legitimate reasons for omissions of conflict issues and exclusionary policies that do not justify ignoring conflict” (World Bank 2005a: 16)
- Harmonise actions and establish formal coordination mechanisms.

 **In-depth information 7 Greening PRSPs** (adapted from UNDP and UNEP 2009, undg 2010)

This table gives you some entry points as well as recommended actions to mainstream environment into the PRSP process:

Entry Points	Possible Actions
Discussions between the government and development partners	The government and development partners discuss the preparation or revision of a PRSP and the funding of the process. Having a seat at this table is a good opportunity to introduce the importance of poverty-environment and environment-conflict issues within the PRSP. It might be also possible to have a specific donor to fund work on

⁶ If PRSPs do not address conflict issues, this might be hard to accept for donors, since they understandably believe that aid will not be effective if conflict issues are ignored (World Bank 2005a: 16).

	poverty-environment or environment-conflict issues within the process.
Establishment of committees and outline	The lead ministry establishes a core drafting committee and other advisory committees, and prepares a basic outline for the PRSP. This entry point is an important opportunity to influence both the structure of the PRSP and the way in which it is drafted. In particular, it is the point at which environment is often categorised as a cross-cutting issue and/or a goal on its own right. It is important that members of the environmental committee also participate as members of other sectoral committees.
PRSP launch workshop	This is an opportunity to publicise poverty-environment and environment-conflict issues and achieve both buy-in from government bodies and publicity via the media in attendance. It is also a good event at which to identify and support the effective engagement of civil society organisations. This would include ensuring financial and technical support for preparation and engagement.
Sectors and other government institutions prepare their contributions	It is important to work with sectors and other government institutions to determine their priorities and develop contributions to the process. At this point there is a need of continuous engagement with all relevant if not all sectors, so that previous acknowledgements of the importance of poverty-environment and environment-conflict issues are translated into specific targets and implementation strategies as part of the sector contributions. This process can be facilitated through a specific working group addressing environment as a cross-cutting issue or similar arrangement, possibly in cooperation with other cross-cutting issues.
Public consultations at district level	It is important to keep raising public awareness of the poverty-environment and environment-conflict linkages and to help communities identify those linkages relevant to their livelihoods and well-being. This could be done through rapid surveys and opinion polls to provide qualitative and quantitative data and information. Partnerships with local civil society organisations can be instrumental in this.
Drafting of the PRSP	This is a critical activity, and it is important to engage directly with the drafting team to ensure that poverty-environment and environment-conflict issues are understood, correctly represented and properly integrated into the paper. This can be done, for example, through:

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing a 10-page summary of key environmental issues relating to each priority area of the PRSP and highlighting poverty-environment and conflict-environment linkages for consideration by advisory/sectoral committees; • The environment committee engaging with all other advisory/sectoral committees to ensure that they take note of the Summary and include the issues in their drafts; • Reviewing and giving comments on drafts. <p>Direct engagement is needed in addition to official communications from the group representing environmental issues.</p>
<p>Public consultations and review workshops on the draft PRSP</p>	<p>Public consultations and review workshops represent another opportunity to make the case for poverty-environment and environment-conflict links and to reinforce the buy-in from government bodies. Partnerships with civil society organisations and publicity via media can be helpful at this stage.</p>
<p>Final revision of the draft PRSP</p>	<p>The final revision is a critical last opportunity to engage with the drafting team to make late revisions that correctly represent poverty-environment and environment-conflict issues, especially if they have been removed or misrepresented in previous revisions.</p>
<p>The PRSP publication event or workshop</p>	<p>This is an opportunity for the promotion of future action on the basis of poverty-environment and environment-conflict issues highlighted in the PRSP. Sustained outreach on the PRSP, in local languages and using mass media channels is particularly important at this stage.</p>
<p>Implementation of PRSP</p>	<p>Successful mainstreaming of poverty-environment and environment-conflict linkages into the PRSP paves the way for implementation through policy interventions and programmes, budgets, and development plans at decentralised levels. The work is not over — engagement with all key actors needs to continue to make sure that the momentum gained through the PRSP process is not lost.</p>

☑ **Check list 3 Greening PRSPs**

Does the PRSP cover the following categories?

- Issues: A description of the major environmental concerns and opportunities.
- Causal Links: Poverty-Environment Link Analysis, Environment-Conflict Link Analysis (also see Chapter 3)
- Responses (to environmental challenges): Environmental Management measures, monitoring, and evaluation; and
- Process: Participation and inclusion of environmental stakeholders

(Bojö and Reddy 2001)



Tools and resources

- **PRSP Sourcebook (World Bank):** This comprehensive sourcebook on developing PRSPs includes chapters on all aspects of developing a PRSP: <http://go.worldbank.org/JFUR0KRGD0>
- Different **donor reviews of PRSPs** provide important lessons learned especially the World Bank's review "Toward a Conflict-Sensitive Poverty Reduction Strategy" (2005a) is instructive, but also see Klem 2004, UNHCR 2004.

7.1.3 National Vision



National visions are useful in providing a long-term frame of reference for national development plans or PRSPs. While national plans normally focus on 5-year periods, visions go beyond that and provide a developmental vision for the next 20-30 years (UNDESA 2009d: 5). Sometimes the distinction between national visions and national plans can be blurry, but, in general, national visions are more long-term – providing an inter-generational perspective – and not as specific as national plans.

You will find in this section	
	Advantages
	Risks and challenges
	Guidance and lessons learned
	Tools and resources

National visions have a ‘cascading effect’. They effectively act as guidelines, and the progressively lower-level plans and strategies provide details for implementation (see Figure 2). They normally move from general objectives to increasingly more specialised planning and implementation statements (UNESCAP 2003). For post-conflict countries, the development of a long-term vision can be a confidence-building process (World Bank 2007: A35).

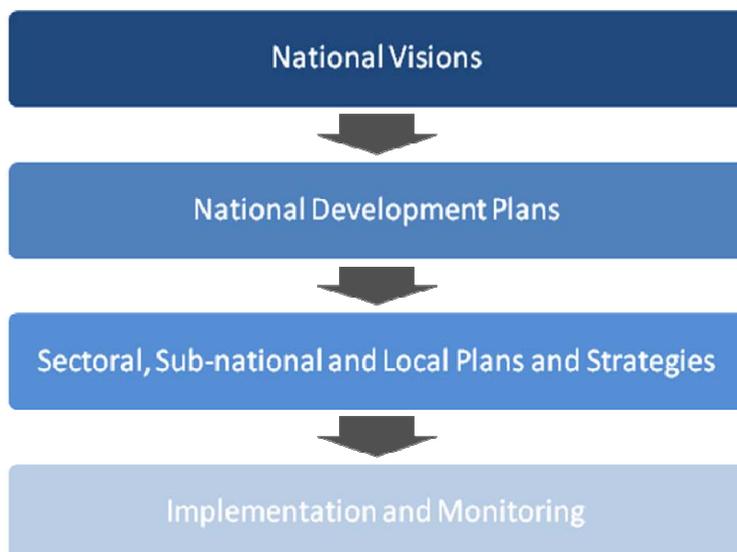


Figure 7 Cascading effect of national visions (adapted from UNESCAP 2003)

Supported by UNDP’s Capacity 21 programme, a number of countries have already developed national visions for sustainable development (Dalal-Clayton and Barry 2002: 53).

National visions can be developed in different forms:

1. **Top-down:** The simplest form of a national vision is a high-level political statement. This expression of political commitment can be used to foster the sustainable development agenda in the government and ministries. National visions can also be

developed as long-term national plans by planning offices or government ministries and then implemented as government policy.

2. **Bottom-up:** This kind of national vision is developed at the lower level of hierarchy in the government, local government, communities, and/or civil society organisations, like NGOs. Normally, they combine the vision with some kind of action.

Often national visions are a mixture of both approaches.



Advantages:

- Can support national planning processes by providing long-term development goals.
- Top-down national visions can provide political commitment that can be used to foster sustainable development strategies at other levels.
- Bottom-up national visions can provide legitimacy and open participation channels.



Guidance and lessons learned for governments:

- Make sure to link the national vision to other planning and strategy processes. Too often national visions are isolated from other development processes (World Bank 2007: xi)
- “It is not enough to agree on the main goals for the country; the priorities and methods for advancing towards the shared Vision must also be identified.” (IDEA, World Bank and ECLAC 2004: 2).
- Sequence reforms. The how and when of the vision has to reflect this fact and not try to achieve everything at the same time (IDEA, World Bank and ECLAC 2004: 2).
- Establish a formal parliamentary body that contributes to the development of the vision. This can greatly assist the process (IDEA, World Bank and ECLAC 2004: 6).



Guidance and lessons learned for donors:

- The development of national visions is a good opportunity to support the development of capacities for political leadership through seminars, for example (World Bank 2007: A35).



Tools and Resources:

- **Virtual Conference on Integrating Environmental Considerations into Economic Policy Making Processes** (UNESCAP): A good introduction and some lessons learned from Asia and the Pacific with regard to national visions: http://www.unescap.org/drrpad/vc/orientation/awareness/M1_3_clarity_of_vision.htm
- **National Visions Matter: Lessons of Success** (IDEA, World Bank and ECLAC 2004): This conference report provides important lessons learned provided by practitioners from the developing world.

7.2 Donor, Peacebuilding, and Recovery Strategies

This chapter introduces a selection of donor-driven strategies and outlines ways of integrating sustainable development and peacebuilding. The strategies are ordered by phases in which they normally are developed, moving from Phase I to Phase III.

In general, sustainable development strategies are most effective if they are based on a shared understanding of both the conflict and the development priorities between the donors and the government. Strategic donor coordination frameworks and fora, such as Common Country Assessment Frameworks (CCA) and UN Development Assistance Frameworks (UNDAF), can help develop these shared understandings. While the information in this chapter is important for governments and donors, *guidance is primarily geared toward donors*. This is also due to the general lack of specific guidance for national governments how to manage different donor-lead strategy and planning processes (for general guidance please refer to Chapter 5.4).

7.2.1 Post Conflict Needs Assessment/Transitional Results Frameworks/Matrix



Post Conflict Needs Assessments have been designed by the UN and WB as an entry point for developing post-conflict recovery strategies. As such they map key needs and priorities of a country emerging from conflict. PCNAs focus on a relatively short time horizon of 12-24 months, but are usually guided by a medium (24-60 months) to long-term (5-10 years) perspective.

The process is led by national authorities and carried out by the UN and the WB with support from other donors (Maier 2010: 27). The objective is to overcome the consequences of conflict, to prevent a relapse into conflict, and to set short-term and mid-term recovery priorities. The assessment results are then organized in a Transitional Results Framework/Matrix, which highlights priority actions, key milestones, and outcomes as well as their financial implications.

PCNAs summarise strategic priorities for recovery since it is impractical to wait for a traditional government implemented plan, like a PRSP (OECD/DAC 2008c: 3). As such, they can be seen as a precursor for a more nationally owned and comprehensive planning process.

You will find in this section

	Advantages
	Risks and challenges
	Guidance and lessons learned
	Tools and resources

Advantages:

- Can be seen as a precursor to other donor-led national development processes.
- The PCNA methodology includes a conflict analysis framework, as well as an analytical model to set priorities.



Sustainable development challenges:

- Lack of an overall vision or storyline setting the strategic direction for conflict transformation and peace consolidation (OECD/DAC 2008c: 4)
- While the focus is primarily short-term, PCNAs are development oriented and have a medium- to long-term perspective, but time constraints often make the incorporation of long-term analysis difficult.
- Like other cross-cutting issues, the links between environment and conflict are sometimes neglected and lost in final reports (Kievelitz et al. 2004: 8).



Guidance and lessons learned for donors:

- Conflict analysis in a PCNA should not be treated as a cross-cutting issue but as a tool to prioritise needs and order the response actions. As such, it should be integrated in the PCNA from the beginning, forming the backbone of “post-conflict transition planning underpinned by sufficient agency ‘political will’” (UN and World Bank 2007b: 4).
- Place special emphasis on links between the environment and conflict in the PCNA, especially during the conflict analysis (UN and World Bank 2007a). This can be done by developing a clear strategy on how to integrate environment into sectoral approaches (Kievelitz et al. 2004: 8). Three UNEP (2009a, c, unpublished) documents are especially helpful in this regard: the “Note on Addressing Environmental Issues” of the PCNA-TRF Tool Kit, the Guidance Note on “Integrating Environment in Post-Conflict Needs Assessments”, and the Conflict Analysis Framework.
- Ensure the PCNA process, structure, and goals can accommodate a changing and dynamic environment. This can be done by incorporating best- and worst-case scenarios that can support contingency planning and setting assumptions (UN and World Bank 2007b). For more information on scenario planning see Chapter 4.2.
- Integrate more long-term thinking. A PCNA “is a promising opportunity to make at least a ‘strategic peacebuilding storyline’ explicit” (UN and World Bank 2007b: 17). This 5-7 year ‘storyline’, particularly when it is truly strategic, is not simply the technical ‘coming together’ of a number of sectoral building blocks but an integrated peacebuilding strategy “weaving political reforms, growth-friendly economic policy, aid and military assistance into a coherent roadmap (UN and World Bank 2007b: 17).”
- Maximise national ownership by keeping the process transparent so actors know when and how they can get involved. “This holds particularly true for the conflict parties, who should gain a clear idea of what kind of contributions are expected. Moreover, clear entry points within the PCNA process should be defined for governmental and non-governmental actors” (Kievelitz et al. 2004: 10).

**Tools and resources:**

- **PCNA website (UNDG):** This website provides tools, lessons learned, and case studies to support and guide the development of PCNAs, including a “Conflict Analysis for Prioritisation Tool” and “An Operational Note on Transitional Results Matrices”: <http://www.undg.org/index.cfm?P=147>
- **PCNA guidance on integrating environment and natural resources (UNEP):** Two documents were specifically developed to support the integration of environment and natural resources in PCNA processes. First, the Guidance Note on “Integrating Environment in Post-Conflict Needs Assessments” (UNEP 2009a) and, second, the “Note on Addressing Environmental Issues - PCNA-TRF Tool Kit” (UNEP 2009c).

7.2.2 United Nations Peacebuilding Fund

The United Nations Peacebuilding Fund (UNPF) was established in October 2006 and is a multi-donor trust fund. It provides funding for peacebuilding activities that directly contribute to post-conflict stabilisation in the early stages of recovery, especially before donor conferences or other multi-donor trust funds have been organised and set up. As such, it tries to address critical peacebuilding gaps.

You will find in this section**Advantages****Tools and resources**

The fund includes two funding windows: An Immediate Response Facility (IRF) that provides short-term project funding for immediate peacebuilding and recovery needs and the Peacebuilding and Recovery Facility (PRF) that provides longer-term program funding within a Priority Plan. The Priority Plan has to be submitted with government and UN system-wide consultations and consensus on prioritisation (PBF 2009).

**Advantages:**

- Quick funding mechanism for peacebuilding activities.

**Tools and resources:**

- Currently, there is no specific guidance on how to integrate sustainable development activities, but an external evaluation (Ball and Van Beijnum 2009) outlines general challenges and recommendations on how to improve the PBF.
- The UNPF website provides guidance on how to apply for IRF and PRF funds: <http://www.unpbf.org/index.shtml>

7.2.3 Common Country Assessment/UN Development Assistance Framework



A Common Country Assessment (CCA) is the joint UN assessment and analysis of a country. Based on the CCA, a UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) is created, and serves as a strategic framework for UN programming, in most cases for a five-year period. Normally, CCA and UNDAF follow the PCNA and go hand-in-hand with the development of a PRSP. UNDG regards PCNAs as a special kind of CCA (UNDG, UNDP and World Bank 2004: 12).

The UNDAF should emerge from a consensus between the UN and the government while taking into account the views of other societal actors. The UNDAF has to be formally signed off by the government.

You will find in this section	
	Advantages
	Risks and challenges
	Guidance and lessons learned
	Case study
	Tools and resources



Advantages:

- Main donor coordination mechanism of the UN.



Sustainable development challenges:

- These documents often heavily rely on pre-existing analyses and data, and the production is limited by deadlines and available resources. But “in-depth analysis of the root causes of conflict and the identification of mitigating measures require a wide consultative process with all relevant stakeholders, as well as consensus on common approaches to achieving sustainable peace and development. Such a time- and labour-intensive process can overwhelm the CCA/UNDAF preparation process” (UNSSC 2005: 7).
- “UNDAF drafters – nearly always from the in-country UN System - tend to be torn between discreet language in order to ensure government buy-in, and robust language to ensure ‘quality’ vis-à-vis the donor community” (Rose 2005: 3).



Guidance and lessons learned for donors:

- In order to integrate sustainable development principles, as well as peacebuilding, into the CCA/UNDAF, consensus inside the UN Country Team has to be assured. This requires strong leadership, especially by the Resident Coordinator (UNSSC 2005: 8).
- Do not take conflict sensitivity for granted. Familiarity with conflict analysis frameworks, tools, and methodologies cannot be assumed (UNSSC 2005: 9). Strengthening the capacities for conflict analysis, for example, through training sessions, as well as setting aside adequate resources and time is decisive.

- Be realistic about expectations in terms of frankness and 'quality', if you really want national ownership. Since national politics, especially in post-conflict countries, sometimes necessitate compromising and not approaching certain issues. Only if the major national actors, especially the government, want to use the 'UNDAF opportunity' to do so, then donors should pro-actively approach sensitive conflict issues. If this is not possible, other more indirect approaches like training, sensitisation, and discussion can be employed (Rose 2005: 11).
- Facilitate the transfer from short-term recovery to medium- and long-term planning (World Bank 2007: A35)
- Strengthen the environmental dimension of CCA and UNDAF.



Tools and resources:

- **Guidance Note on Mainstreaming Environmental Sustainability In Country Analysis and the UNDAF (UNDG):** This guidance note explains step-by-step how to mainstream environmental sustainability in CCAs and UNDAFs providing entry points, tools and check lists:

http://www.undg.org/docs/10662/ES_GuidanceNote_FINAL.pdf



Case study 5 UNDAF Nepal 2008-2010

This is an excerpt of the UNDAF Nepal 2008-2010 showing environmental results and indicators linked to environment and conflict.

Area of Cooperation: Conflict Prevention UNDAF: Nepal, 2008-2010

National goal: New and decent employment and income opportunities Infrastructure, especially rural infrastructures

UNDAF outcome C: By 2010, sustainable livelihood opportunities expanded, especially for socially excluded groups in conflict-affected areas.

Indicator:

- Proportion of population below national poverty line (Baseline: 31% (2004).
- Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption.

Other agency outcomes concern:

C1. Policies, programmes and institutions for poverty reduction, and protection of workers; and
C2. Improved household food security for enhanced resilience to shocks.

Agency outcome C3: Environment and energy mainstreamed into national and local development planning with a focus on gender, social inclusion, and post-conflict environmental rehabilitation.

Indicator:

- Infrastructure development plan of the government integrates environmental concerns (y/n)
- Mechanism for budget allocation to support energy and environment-friendly interventions at local and national level in place (y/n)

Output: Capacity of national and local government for biodiversity conservation enhanced.

Indicator:

- Biodiversity conservation policy in place (y/n)
- Framework for setting priority for energy and environment-friendly interventions (y/n)

Output: Equitable access to environment and energy services expanded for women, the poor and socially excluded groups.

Indicator:

- % of people relying on wood as their main fuel. Baseline: 69.1% (NLSS 2004)
- % of women and excluded households in the selected programme areas benefited from energy and environmental services (Baseline: TBD)

Output: National capacity enhanced to introduce green accounting, access global funds to implement MEAs and benefit from carbon trade to support climate change adaptation.

Indicator:

- Framework for green accounting in place
- Capacity gap analysis to implement MEAs
- National adaptation programme of action (NAPA) for climate change in place

Agency outcome C4: Risks of natural hazards to rural and urban livelihoods and infrastructure reduced.

Indicator:

- Key sectoral plans and policies incorporate management of natural hazard risks

Output: Planning capacities of selected government bodies and municipalities enhanced to integrate disaster risk management into plans.

Indicator:

- An early recovery preparedness framework developed for municipalities
- # of districts with emergency response plans for health sector

Output: Implementation capacities of national and local government, civil society and CBOs enhanced for disaster mitigation, preparedness, emergency response and early recovery.

Indicator:

- # of hazard resistant community-based disaster risk reduction models demonstrated in selected districts
- # of households benefiting from targeted interventions of disaster mitigation, preparedness, emergency response and early recovery

Source: UNDG 2010: 64

7.3 Environmental and Natural Resource Strategies

The following environmental strategies can serve as an entry point for integrating sustainable development and peacebuilding. They can be used to pilot new approaches and initiatives. These experiences and lessons learned can then be used as a starting point or input for more comprehensive approaches.

Countries normally have a number of different sectoral strategies pertaining to environment and natural resources. This chapter will only look at some key environmental strategies that are linked to international processes, especially the Rio Conventions. Since these strategies are already focused on the environment, **the challenge here is to understand and develop the links with the economic and social dimension of sustainable development, as well as the links to peacebuilding.** The guidance of this chapter will focus on identifying these links. Because the guidance in this chapter is different from the one provided before it will not be marked by the guidance symbol (🔗), but by this symbol for links (↔).

The list of links in each of the sub-chapters is not comprehensive but points toward the most common links. It is important to understand that these links are complex and highly context specific, especially the links between the environment and conflict. Thus the exact interaction between the links has to be analysed case by case.

7.3.1 National Forest Programme



The term National Forest Programme (NFP) covers a wide range of approaches toward forest policy formulation, planning, and implementation at the sub-national and national level. It is the outcome of the international forest policy dialogue that is applicable to all countries and all types of forests. It serves as a framework to implement international agreements on sustainable forest management (FAO 2010a). As a country-specific process, it encompasses country-driven forest sector development, implementation of international agreements, and a common frame for forest-related international assistance and cooperation.

An NFP should not be an additional or parallel exercise to existing approaches but used as an entry point for all forest-related activities. NFPs can, for example, be “based on a problem such as a punctual crisis (e.g. in sector finances), imminent threats (e.g. effects of deforestation), long-pending problems (e.g. sector performance gaps), or on a potential (e.g. increased contribution to national economic development and poverty alleviation, wood and energy supply, or ecological stabilization)” (FAO 2010b).

You will find in this section	
👍	Advantages
↔	Links
📖	Tools and resources



Advantages

- NFPs can be used as entry points for all forest-related activities.

- NFPs can provide important lessons learned since they are not one document but have the same process character as NSDS; they are an iterative and participatory process with defined outputs (FAO 2010b).

Environment and conflict links:

- Direct impacts of the conflict, like armed groups using forests as safe havens.
- Destructive coping strategies of the population to sustain livelihoods during and after conflict.
- Refugee or displaced populations encroaching on forests.
- Suspended conservation activities due to lacking government capacities or violence.
- Illegal exploitation and trade of forest resources leading to corruption and/or the strengthening of spoiler groups.
- Unclear and/or competing land rights.
- Forest management can lead to conflicts between different stakeholders and population groups. For example, 'gazetting' - the conversion of unrestricted public forests to restricted conservation areas – can lead to conflicts with the local population being excluded from access to the forest.

Economic and social links:

- Forests provide livelihoods for many poor. This includes income-generating activities but also food, clean water, shelter, and medical treatment. Furthermore, cultural, religious, and social aspects related to lifestyle and religion are often closely connected to forests. While timber is easily priced and marketed, many of these important ecosystem services are not included in economic policy making.
- Timber plays an important role in the economies of many developing countries. Especially in post-conflict countries, timber exports can provide an important source of foreign currency and investment. This can lead to unsustainable exploitation of forest resources in order to boost the national economy.
- Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD) is a new concept in which developed countries pay for global climate regulation services in the form of carbon storage, which developing countries' forests provide. There are still many open questions in terms of how REDD integrates into national development processes, whether it leads to inclusive and equitable economic development, and whether it can avoid aggravating and creating new problems. But it also promises significant financial flows from North to South.



Tools and resources:

Forest and conflict links:

- **Forest and Conflict Toolkit (USAID):** More a background document than a toolkit, this publication points out the main forest and conflict links, possibilities to address them and includes a useful questionnaire: http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADE290.pdf

Forest and poverty links:

- **Poverty-Forests Linkages Toolkit (PROFOR):** Compiled by the Program on Forests (PROFOR), this toolkit provides methods to assess poverty-forest links, guidance on how to feed the results into strategy and planning processes, in particular PRSPs, as well as a field manual to support training and capacity building: <http://www.profor.info/profor/knowledge/poverty-forests-linkages-toolkit>

REDD:

- The **United Nations Collaborative Programme on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing Countries (UN REDD)** provides a good entry point for understanding climate-related forest issues. Online resource for REDD are available here: <http://www.un-redd.org/>

7.3.2 Convention-specific Plans



The Rio Conventions have led to a number of environmental strategies and reports that are normally developed by national environment ministries and include the state of the research, data, problems as well as actions plans and lessons learned. Two conventions will be described in this sub-chapter.

You will find in this section	
	Advantages
	Links
	Tools and resources



Advantages:

- Entry points for environment related activities.
- Can help identify environmental priority areas and actions, as well as lessons learned.

The following guidance identifying the different links is sorted by convention and thematic area:

A. Biological Diversity:

Signatory countries of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) have to prepare National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plans (NBSAP). These plans normally include analysis of issues and problems with regard to biodiversity, as well as an agreement between private and public institutions on how to implement different provisions of the CBD. Together, the analysis and the public-private agreement serve as the foundation for more detailed programmes to manage biodiversity. (Dalal-Clayton and Bass 2002: 42). Ultimately, countries have to report their progress on biodiversity in periodic national reports.

Since forests are major biodiversity hotspots⁷, the links already noted in Chapter 7.5.1 mimic those found with respect to biodiversity:

Biodiversity and conflict links:

- Direct impacts caused by the physical destruction of ecosystems and wildlife—for example, through the release of hazardous substances.
- Indirect impacts caused by destructive coping strategies of local or displaced populations to sustain livelihoods during and after conflict (including refugee and IDP populations).
- Disruption of state institutions leading to poor management and illegal activities.
- Illegal exploitation and trade of natural resources leading to corruption and/or the strengthening of spoiler groups.
- Unclear and/or competing land rights.
- Stakeholder conflicts resulting from the management of ecosystems—for example, if certain groups are restricted in their access to natural resources.

Economic and social links:

- Ecosystem services provide livelihoods for many poor people. (For more information see In-depth Information 2: Ecosystem services and human well-being)
- Natural resources play an important role in the economies of many post-conflict countries. Efforts to boost a country's revenue can lead to unsustainable exploitation of natural resources.
- Agriculture plays an important economic role in many post-conflict countries and often relies on important ecosystem services like water provision.

Tools and resources:

Biodiversity-conflict links:

- See environment-conflict links in Chapter 3.3.

Economic and social links:

- See environment-poverty links in Chapter 3.3

B. Climate Change:

The UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) itself does not set mandatory limits on greenhouse gas emissions for individual countries. These are set by treaty updates--so-called protocols. Parties to the UNFCCC are classified as:

- Annex I countries: Industrialised countries and economies in transition;
- Annex II countries: Developed countries which pay for costs of developing countries; and

⁷ A biodiversity hotspot is an area that contains a high degree of biological diversity.

- Developing countries that are not required to reduce emissions unless developed countries provide funding and technology.

All signatories of the UNFCCC have to submit national reports—so-called national communications—to the Conference of the Parties (CoP). The core elements of the national communications include information on emissions and removal of greenhouse gases, as well as details of the activities a country has undertaken to implement the convention protocol. National communications usually contain information on national circumstances, vulnerability, financial resources and transfer of technology, and education, training and public awareness.

In addition, National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs) provide a process for Least Developed Countries to identify priority activities and projects that address urgent and immediate needs to adapt to climate change.

⇄ **Climate and conflict links** (Brown and Crawford 2009: 2, Carius 2009, Smith and Vivikanda 2009):

- Decreasing water availability and growing demand could lead to increasing competition among different sectors, social groups, and countries. Such competition can trigger violence.
- Jeopardized food security due to declining crop yields and unpredictable weather patterns. These issues may lead to reductions in food supply, triggering higher prices and greater competition over productive agricultural land which, in turn, could cause conflict.
- Changes in sea level, increased natural disasters, and reduced viability of farm land could contribute to population movements.
- The cumulative pressure of climate change impacts could be a factor in tipping weak and fragile states toward socio-economic and political collapse.
- Adaption measures, if not designed and implemented in a conflict sensitive way, have the potential to fuel conflict.

⇄ **Economic and social links:**

- Decreasing food security caused by declining crop yields.
- Variability of precipitation and changes in water availability, negatively affecting the energy and agricultural sectors.
- Declining biodiversity and increasing vulnerability of ecosystems leading to declining ecosystem services.
- Increased number and intensity of extreme weather events.

📖 **Tools and resources:**

Two good introductory publications on the links between climate change and conflict are:

- Brown, Oli, and Alec Crawford (2009): “Climate Change and Security in Africa. A Study for the Nordic-African Foreign Ministers Meeting”

- German Advisory Council on Global Change (2007): "World in Transition – Climate Change as a Security Risk," http://www.wbgu.de/wbgu_ig2007_engl.pdf

7.3.3 National Capacity Self-Assessment for Global Environmental Management (NCSA)



Driven by the Global Environment Facility, a National Capacity Self-Assessment for Global Environmental Management (NCSA) is a thorough, country-led, self-assessment and analysis of national capacity needs, priorities, and constraints with respect to its efforts at meeting global environmental management commitments arising from the three global conventions on biodiversity, climate change, and desertification/land degradation.

You will find in this section	
	Advantages
	Links
	Tools and resources

NCSAs normally include (GEF 2001: 1):

- Priority issues for action within the thematic areas of biodiversity, climate change, and desertification/land degradation, respectively;
- Related capacity needs within and across the three thematic areas;
- A targeted and coordinated action plan and requests for future external funding and assistance; and
- Recommendations on ways to link country action to the broader national environmental management and sustainable development framework.



Advantages:

- Entry point for environmental capacity building.
- Identification of environmental priority areas, related capacity gaps, and action plans.
- Identification of key stakeholders in the environment field.



Conflict links:

Please refer to the different conventions discussed above.



Economic and social links:

Please refer to the different conventions discussed above.



Tools and resources:

- The **NCSA website** provides all necessary background documents on the subject: <http://ncsa.undp.org/>

8 Annex

8.1 Past plans and strategies

The following plans and strategies have become more or less obsolete and are not used anymore. Nevertheless, they can provide information and lessons learned that might be useful.

You will find in this section	
	Advantages



National Agenda 21

Besides the above mentioned National Visions, there are also other experiences, structures, and institutions from developing and implementing Agenda 21⁸ at the country level. These lessons can provide important input and support to sustainable development processes. These strategies have often been developed by multi-stakeholder bodies called National Councils for Sustainable Development (NCSA). While these bodies can play a facilitating role in sustainable development processes, they would have to broaden their initial environmental focus to encompass social and economic stakeholders. They would also have to strengthen their links with stakeholders at the local level. (Dalal-Clayton and Barry 2002: 53).



Advantages:

- Experiences, pilot projects, and lessons learned can be a starting point for sustainable development strategies.
- NCSA can be a starting point for participation.

National Environmental Action Plans:

NEAPs were promoted by the World Bank to as a way to help integrate environmental considerations into overall economic and social development strategies. These plans served as both comprehensive national environmental policies and programmes to implement those policies. While NEAPs were initially required for a country to receive soft loans, this policy was later relaxed to encourage borrowing countries to prepare and implement an appropriate environmental action plan (Dalal-Clayton and Barry 2002: 50-51).

The first NEAP with World Bank assistance was developed in 1988 by Madagascar. A number of countries followed suit, and some also developed second-generation plans and some subsequently adopted National Environment Policies. Many NEAPs have not been updated (IEG World Bank 2008: 20). Although NEAPs recommended specific actions including policies, legislation, and institutional arrangements, outcomes were

⁸ Agenda 21 is the global action plan for sustainable development that was agreed upon during the UN Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992.

not limited to institutional change but also included passage of environmental projects, many intended for donor assistance (Dalal-Clayton and Barry 2002: 52).

NEAPs can “be seen as an eclipsed planning tool” (Dalal-Clayton and Barry 2002: 50-52).



Advantages:

- NEAPs helped to identify priority environmental problems and their causes and specified different measures (policies, institutional, and investment) to address them (IEG World Bank 2008: 20).

8.2 Dili Declaration – A new vision for peacebuilding and statebuilding

A promising initiative on the international level is the **Dili Declaration – A New Vision for Peacebuilding and Statebuilding**. This document outlines a collective vision to prevent and end conflict and to contribute to the development of capable, accountable states that respond to the expectations and needs of their population, especially excluded groups, women, youth, and children. It describes goals, challenges, and actions. In the attached statement of the G7+, the participating countries emphasise the need for a strong, long-term vision that should be reflected in their national plans (International Dialogue on Peacebuilding and Statebuilding 2010).

9 Acknowledgements

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