Evaluation

Finnish Partnership Agreement Scheme

Evaluation report 2008:1

Country Annexes: Bolivia, India, Uganda

MINISTRY FOR FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF FINLAND
DEPARTMENT FOR DEVELOPMENT POLICY

REPORT 2008:1 Finnish Partnership Agreement Scheme
ISBN: 978-951-724-672-9 (printed), ISBN: 978-951-724-673-6 (pdf), ISSN: 1235-7618

SPECIAL EDITION 2008:1 (SWE) FAO: Utmaning till förnyelse. Sammanfattning
ISBN: 978-951-724-670-5 (print), ISBN: 978-951-724-671-2 (pdf), ISSN: 1235-7618

SPECIAL EDITION 2008:1 (FI) FAO: Haasteena uudistuminen. Lyhennelmä
ISBN: 978-951-724-655-2 (painettu), ISBN: 978-951-724-659-0 (pdf), ISSN: 1235-7618

SPECIAL EDITION 2008:1 (ENG) FAO: The Challenge of Renewal. Summary
ISBN: 978-951-724-657-6 (printed), ISBN: 978-951-724-661-3 (pdf), ISSN: 1235-7618

REPORT 2007:3 Implementation of the Paris Declaration – Finland
ISBN: 978-951-724-663-7 (printed), ISBN: 978-951-724-664-4 (pdf), ISSN: 1235-7618

REPORT 2007:2 Meta-Analysis of Development Evaluations in 2006
ISBN: 978-951-724-632-3 (printed), ISBN: 978-951-724-633-1 (pdf), ISSN: 1235-7618

REPORT 2007:1 Finnish Aid to Afghanistan
ISBN: 978-951-724-634-7 (printed), ISBN: 978-951-724-635-4 (pdf), ISSN: 1235-7618

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ISBN: 951-724-569-6 (printed), ISBN: 951-724-570-X (pdf), ISSN: 1235-7618

REPORT 2006:2 Evaluation of CIMO North-South Higher Education Network Programme
ISBN: 951-724-549-1, ISSN: 1235-7618

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ISBN: 951-724-546-7, ISSN: 1235-7618

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ISBN: 951-724-531-9, ISSN: 1235-7618

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ISBN: 951-724-523-8, ISSN: 1235-7618

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ISBN: 951-724-521-1, ISSN: 1235-7618

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ISBN: 951-724-493-2, ISSN: 1235-7618

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ISBN: 955-742-478-9, ISSN: 1235-7618

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ISBN: 955-724-477-0, ISSN: 1235-7618

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ISBN: 951-724-449-5, ISSN: 1235-7618

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ISBN: 951-724-446-0, ISSN: 1235-7618

REPORT 2004:1 Evaluation of Finnish Education Sector Development Cooperation
ISBN: 951-724-440-1, ISSN: 1235-7618

Evaluation

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The following annexes are the country case study reports of the
Evaluation of Finnish Partnership Agreement Scheme,
published as Evaluation report 2008:1

Mimeographic hard copies of the country annexes 1-3 can be requested from KEO-08@formin.fi; the full evaluation report and the country annexes can be accessed at http://formin.finland.fi and the country annexes have been appended to the CD-version of the full evaluation report.

ACRONYMS

ABC	Activity-Based Costing
ADP	Area Development Programme
AfDB	African Development Bank
ART	Anti-retroviral treatment
ARV	Anti-retroviral
BELC	Bolivian Evangelic Lutheran Church
BOND	British Overseas NGOs for Development
BWI	Building and Wood Workers' International
CBO	Community-Based Organisation
CCDP	Coastal Community Development Programme (India)
CDP	Community Development Project
CERP	Community Environment Rehabilitation Programme (India)
CFA	Co-Financing Agency
CHE	Community Health Education
CIVICUS	World Alliance for Citizen Participation
CO_2	Carbon dioxide
COFCAWE	Concern for Children and Women Empowerment (Uganda)
CORDAID	Dutch Catholic organisation working in development cooperation
CRB	*Cruz Roja Boliviana*
CSDP	Child Survival and Development Project (India)
CSI	Civil Society Index
CSO	Civil Society Organization
CWEP	Child Worker Education Programme (India)
DAC	Development Assistance Committee of OECD
Danida	Danish International Development Agency
DENIVA	Development Network of Indigenous Voluntary Associations (Uganda)
DFID	Department for International Development, the UK
DKK	Danish krone
EC	European Commission
EIMI	*Educación Inicial: Modalidad Indirecta* (Bolivia)
EPRC	Economic Policy Research Centre (Uganda)
EU	European Union
FBO	Faith-Based Organisation
FCA	FinnChurchAid *(Kirkon Ulkomaanapu)*
FCGI	Full Gospel Churches of India
FCRA	Foreign Contribution (Regulation) Act (India)
FELM	Finnish Evangelical Lutheran Mission *(Suomen Lähetysseura)*
FES	*Fundación para la Educación y el Desarrollo* (Bolivia)
Fida	Fida International, Mission and Development Co-operation Services of Pentecostal Churches of Finland (*Fida International ry*)
FIDIDA	Finnish Disabled people's International Development Association
FNV	FNV Mondiaal, the Netherlands
FOCA	Friends of Children Association (Uganda)
FPAS	Finnish Partnership Agreement Scheme
FRC	Finnish Red Cross *(Suomen Punainen Risti)*
FS	The Free Church Federation of Finland *(Frikyrklig Samverkan)*
FUP	Family Upliftment Project (India)
GA	Good News Assemblies of God church (India)
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNI	Gross National IncomeHDI Human Development Index

HIVOS	*Humanistisch Instituut voor Ontwikkelingssamenwerking* (the Netherlands)
HQ	Headquarters
ICCO	Protestant Interchurch Organisation for Development Co-operation (the Netherlands)
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
ICT	Information & Communications Technology
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
ILO	International Labour Organisation
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
INR	Indian rupiah
ISF	International Solidarity Foundation *(Kansainvälinen Solidaarisuussäätiö)*
KEO-33	Unit for Non-Governmental Organisations (the MFA)
KEPA	Service Centre for Development Cooperation (Finland)
LDC	Least Developed Country
LO/FTF	The Danish Trade Union Council for International Development Cooperation
LO-TCO	Swedish Trade Union Confederation - Swedish Confederation of Professional Employees
LWF	Lutheran World Federation
MAN	*Municipios Amigos de la Niñez* (Bolivia)
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MFA	Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland
MFPED	Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development (Uganda)
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MS	*Mellemfolkeligt Samvirke* (Denmark)
MSCDP	Mumbai Slum Community Development Project (India)
Mt	Million tons
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NOVIB	*Nederlandse Organisatie voor Internationale Ontwikkelingssamenwerking*
NPA	National Planning Authority (Uganda)
NPO	Non-Profit Organisation
NRM	National Resistance Movement (Uganda)
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan (Uganda)
Plan Finland	Plan National Organisation in Finland *(Plan Suomi Säätiö)*
PLWHA	Persons Living with HIV/AIDS
PMO	Project Monitoring Office
PO	Partnership Organisation
PPA	Partnership Programme Agreement (the UK)
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PRI	Panchayati Raj Institutions (India)
PRS	Poverty Reduction Strategy
PS	Partnership Scheme
RCSDW	Right of Children to Safe Drinking Water
RDPI	Regional Development Programme in India
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SASK	Trade Union Solidarity Centre of Finland *(Suomen Ammattiliittojen Solidaarisuuskeskus)*
SCF	Save the Children Finland *(Pelastakaa Lapset)*
SHG	Self-Help Group
Sida	Swedish International Development Authority
SWAp	Sector-wide approach
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats
TB	Tuberculosis
ToR	Terms of Reference
TTT	*Taloudellinen, Teollinen ja Teknologinen yhteistyö*
UBV	*Utbildning för biståndsverksamhetet* (Sweden)

UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UCOBAC	Uganda Community Based Association for Child Welfare
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	The United Nations Joint Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP	United Nations Development Cooperation Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UYAAS	Uganda Youth Anti AIDS Association
VDC	Village Development Committee
VSO	Voluntary Service Overseas (the UK)
WFP	World Food Programme
WVF	World Vision Finland *(Suomen World Vision)*
WV	World Vision

ANNEX 1 COUNTRY REPORT OF BOLIVIA

Markku Siltanen and *Saul Mendoza*

1 DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT

1.1 Country Background

Bolivia is a poor landlocked country in South America, surrounded by Peru in the north-west, Brazil in the north-east, Paraguay in the south-east, Argentina in the south and Chile in the west. The total area is 1,098,580 km^2, consisting of three main geographical regions, i.e. the Andean highlands, valleys and lowlands and the Amazonian rainforest (60% of the territory). Current population is estimated at 9.4 million inhabitants, including 36 indigenous groups. The population density is very low, only 8.5 persons per km^2. The annual population growth rate is 2.2%, and approximately two thirds of the population are urban (UNDP 2005). Major cities include Santa Cruz (1.3 million inhabitants), Cochabamba (900,000), El Alto (830,000) and La Paz (810,000).

The Bolivian republic is a democracy characterised by elevated presidential powers. The executive, legislative and judicial powers are separate and independent. The current Constitution dates from the year 1967, but it has been revised in 1994 and 2004, and at present a new revision by the Constitutional Assembly is under way. The constitutional capital of Bolivia is Sucre with 250.000 inhabitants, but the Government and legislative organs are located in La Paz, where also most of the development, political and diplomatic organisations are located.

Bolivia is divided administratively into nine departments, 112 provinces, 327 municipalities and 1,384 cantons, which were granted larger autonomy by the Law on Administrative Decentralisation passed in 1995. At present the prefect of each department is elected democratically, but according to different rules than in national and municipal elections. The candidate who obtains the majority of votes (either simple or absolute) is chosen as prefect. However, according to some observers, Bolivian decentralisation remains incomplete because the Constitutional Assembly defines the rights and duties of the prefects. The municipalities are governed by mayors and municipal councils elected directly by the population. The municipal governments receive resources from the state in different forms, the most important being funds allocated according to the number of inhabitants. They enjoy autonomy in the administration of their resources and prepare development plans according to local needs and allocated budgets.

After a severe economic crisis following 18 years of military rule (1964-1982), the Bolivian economy underwent a very strict economic stabilisation package. While the market reform policies implemented under various political leaderships managed to end the economic downfall, they also increased the country's already high levels of poverty. In the period 1990-2003 the annual growth rate was 1.3%, a distinct advance over previous negative growth rates, but still relatively low (UNDP 2005). In the last few years, however, the country has experienced strong economic growth driven by exports.

As a result of continuing economic hardship, new social movements founded on regionalism and ethnic identity have emerged as a major political force in Bolivia in the late 1990s. The social movements distinguish themselves from political parties by using direct action, including forms of civil disobedience such as road blockades and occupation of government premises as signs of political protest. In the national elections held in 2005, Evo Morales was elected president, becoming the first president of indigenous origin as well as the first elected by majority vote since the revolution of 1952 (Molina 2005). The Morales regime is supported by indigenous groups and social movements, which are expecting concrete improvements in their living conditions – according to the promises given before the elections. At the national level, the governing party dominates, but at the department level, the prefects and civil committees of the resource-rich eastern and southern regions are controlled by the opposition (Jong & al

2006). The Government is thus in a difficult situation, as it tries to promote equity and development of historically marginalised sectors and is therefore opposed by those who prefer to maintain the old structure of society.

The educational system of Bolivia covers approximately 85% of the population. Some 92% of the relevant age classes are enrolled in primary education and 65% in secondary education. The attendance of girls is lower than that of boys, the main reason of drop-outs being the need to work. In rural areas also the lack of schools and teachers limit attendance, especially after primary school. In 2005 the literacy rate was 88%, reflecting an increase in recent years due to the Government's increased efforts for alphabetisation (Source ?).

The ethnic and tribal composition of Bolivian population is highly diverse, consisting of the following main groups:

- Amerindians of pre-Inca and Inca origin, who speak mainly aymara (approximately 19% of total population) and quechua (28%), as well as other indigenous communities in the north and the east, principally Guaranis and Mojeños. Aymaras and Quechuas habit the western part of the country in the departments of La Paz, Potosi, Oruro, Chuquisaca and Cochabamba. The second group lives mainly in the departments of Santa Cruz, Beni, Pando and Tarija. Due to internal migration in the recent decades, important pockets of Aymaras and Quechuas are also found in

rural and urban areas in Amazonian and Chaquian departments. The majority of the Amerindians in Bolivia have adopted mestizo culture, which combines aspects of Hispanic and American cultures;

- Another important group of the Bolivian population are the mestizos (30%), who are a mixture of Amerindians and Europeans, being present all over the country;
- A minority of European origin (12%) live mainly in the big cities, such as Santa Cruz, Tarija, Cochabamba and Sucre, but European immigrants and their descendants can be found scattered throughout the national territory;
- There is a small number (approximately 22,000) of Afro-americans, called Afrobolivians. They are descendants of slaves brought from Africa during the colonial time, and reside mainly in the department of La Paz.

The Constitution recognises the Roman Catholic religion, but also the right to exercise any other religion. According to the National Statistical Institute of Bolivia (year ?), 78% of the population were Roman Catholics while 16-19% were protestants in 2001. The share of Roman Catholics is higher in the cities while protestant churches have more supporters in rural areas, up to 20% of population. Only 2,5% of the population did not have a religious commitment and 0,2% represented other religions. However, it should be noted that Christian beliefs are often intermingled with elements of traditional Amerindian culture. There are some 200 registered Roman Catholic groups and 280 non-catholic religious organisations. Several evangelic groups, such as Mennonites, Lutherans, Adventists, Baptists, Pentecostals and Methodists have active representation of foreign missionaries.

1.2 Social Security System

Based on its UNDP Human Development Index (HDI) value of 0.687, Bolivia was ranked 113th out of 177 countries in 2003 (UNDP 2005). There is considerable regional variation in the level of human welfare: in 2001, the HDI of the Department of Santa Cruz was 0,61 while the HDI of Potosi was only 0,34. Overall, human development was rated very low in close to one half of the municipalities, while approximately two thirds of the population were living under the national poverty line in 2003. According to the poverty headcount index of 1999, poverty was more prevalent in rural areas where 82% of the population was poor, compared with 47% in the cities (Republic of Bolivia 2001).

According to official statistics, there are only 25 HIV/AIDS positive persons per one million inhabitants, the lowest percentage in South America (Republic of Bolivia 2001). However, there appears to be considerable sub-registration of positive cases. Even so, the HIV/AIDS epidemic is classified to be of low level as no sub-group of the population has passed the 5% threshold of positive individuals.

In Bolivia, the development of a formal social security system began in the early 20th century when legislation created pension funds for teachers, the military, bank employees, and civil servants. In the early 1950s laws covering such benefits as disability insurance, maternity care, medical care, pensions, and funeral benefits were passed. The Social Security Code of 1956 provided assistance for sickness, maternity, occupational risks, long- and short-term disability, pensions, and survivors' benefits. However, in the late 1980s, social security programmes covered only approximately 20% of the population, including families of insured workers. Agricultural workers and the self-employed, i.e. the majority of the population were excluded. The percentage of the population covered was highest in the mining department of Oruro (43%) and lowest in the departments of eastern Bolivia. Since the mid-1960s, retired workers in many industries have established complementary pension funds to help protect their retirement benefits from the effects of inflation. A new pension law passed in 1996 privatised social security, obliging all the formal-sector workers to deposit 10% of their salary into a private social insurance programme. Employers contribute an additional 2% of the regular salary. The system also gives other persons the option to join if they so wish. The pension is paid after the worker has in his individual account the amount which permits financing of a pension higher or equal to 70% of his/her basic salary. From 65 years onwards the worker can solicit his/her pension in minimal amounts until the accumulated funds have been used. At the moment there are over 0.5 million persons affiliated to the system (SSA 2005).

Given the limited coverage of formal social protection in Bolivia, informal social protection plays a critical role in people's well being. Households and individuals have adopted various types of self-insurance by accumulating assets in good times and drawing on them in bad. This strategy, however, is only effective if sufficient assets are accumulated, are safe and have a positive return. In this respect, there are big differences not only between rural and urban areas, but also between different rural eco-zones as well as between and within households. On household level, life cycle factors play a crucial role in informal risk management strategies. In many respects, the most important differences are those between rural and urban strategies (Moser and Antezana 2001).

In rural areas households adopt interrelated strategies to ensure less risky production, mitigate against risks and maintain physical capital assets. These include diversification of income sources by e.g. combining agricultural production and livestock, diversifying crops, distributing plots to different eco-zones, sharecropping and combining agriculture with non-agricultural activities, including migration. The last strategy is particularly important for the poorest rural households, which receive on the average 73% of total income from non-farm activities, compared with only 20% for the non-poor households. Urban households similarly adopt interrelated strategies based on diversification of income sources and building financial, physical and human assets. In urban areas cash savings, physical assets, informal loans and access to micro-finance have a more crucial role in dealing with emergencies than in rural areas (Moser and Antezana 2001).

Migration comprises a critical component in the risk management strategies of poor households especially in rural areas, but it is also associated with urban households. It has been estimated that about 70% of subsistence-oriented farmers are engaged in either temporary or permanent migration. Temporary migration appears to be more common among the indigenous population, while the majority of the mestizo migrants are permanent (Moser and Antezana 2001).

Reciprocal networks of support and solidarity provide an important mechanism of informal social protection. While many traditional types of reciprocity pre-date formal social protection systems, others have developed as a response to current risks. Institutional reciprocities exist between members of a community or extended household, within ethnic groups, among members of the same occupation, and between migrants and their household of origin. Forms of exchange comprise food, cash and labour. Women tend to take particular responsibilities for in-kind assistance such as food, childcare and housing. In rural areas informal reciprocal labour exchange is frequent, while in urban areas exchanges involve food and informal credit, but also activities like childcare. The role of traditional communal organisations remain important, even though it seems to have eroded somewhat outside of the sphere of cultural traditions and communication. To some extent they have been replaced with new organisations such as producer committees and school boards. In urban areas the informal rotating savings and credit associations known as *pasanakus*, which have evolved out of traditional systems of pooling labour, have an important role (Moser and Antezana 2001).

1.3 National Poverty Reduction Strategy

To comply with Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) regulations, the Bolivian Government launched its Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), known as the *Estrategia Boliviana de la Reducción de la Pobreza* in 2001 (Republic of Bolivia 2001). The document suggests an integrated and multidimensional strategy to struggle against poverty, inequality and social exclusion. It contains the following four strategic objectives:

- Improve the opportunities for the poor;
- Develop the capabilities of the poor;
- Increase the security and protection of the poor;
- Strengthen integration and social participation.

The third objective focuses directly on social security, and under it strategic actions focus on increasing the social protection of programmes particularly with respect to food security, minors and adolescents and

the elderly; on integrated activities for children, especially those below six years of age; implementation of emergency programmes in cases of natural disasters; and protection of property rights, notably land rights and water resources. Other components of the strategy emphasise opportunities for employment and income. In addition, the document emphasises cross-cutting issues connected to livelihood related risks, gender, ethnic groups, environment and institution building (Moser and Antezana 2001).

The PRS process, however, was not able to survive the political and social instability nor to reach the objectives set out. The PRSP was gradually abandoned by key stakeholders, and recently also by the donor community. A revised draft PRSP that was circulated in 2005 was never adopted by the government, even though many of the policies developed during the process are still in place and being implemented. One feature of the process was the requirement to organise dialogue processes, which lead to the creation of the National Social Control Mechanism, a civil society body tasked to monitor the implementation of the PRSP. While CSOs were active in the PRSP preparation process, their actual participation was arguably limited and ineffective for a number of reasons, including confused legal framework, lack of organisational capacity and funding, inadequate access to information, lack of indicators and weak coordination among CSOs. On the other hand, the dialogue which took place in the PRS process has influenced the content of subsequent government plans, which have not included a similar consultation process with civil society. It also provided opportunities to make public decision making more transparent, even if it did not have any direct or sustainable effect on downward accountability systems (Jong & al 2007; Surkin 2005).

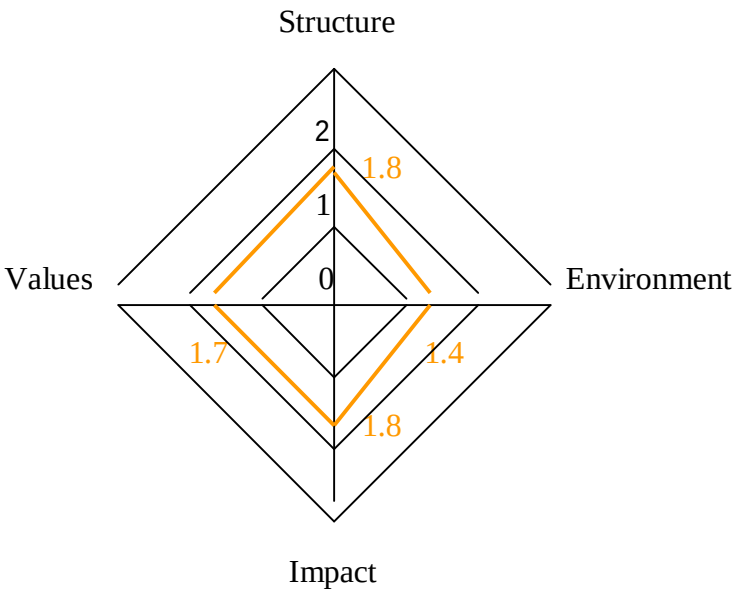
Instead of a revised PRSP, the new Government presented a new National Development Plan in 2006. The plan promotes increasing participation of the state in the economy, recovering strategic sectors and changing the distribution of economic benefits. It proposes to centralise planning power with the objective of channelling the economic benefits accruing from the exploitation of natural resources (notably gas and petroleum) to employment-generating productive sectors. The plan also emphasises targeting poverty reduction efforts to the poorest communities and municipalities, using public resources to build infrastructure and support production in those areas. However, while the new plan encompasses broader and more ambitious targets than the MDGs on which the PRSP process was based, many observers have noted that more efficient public management will be needed at all levels of government to achieve the goals. The strengthening of management capacities should thus be a priority of the Government (Jong & al 2007).

2 CIVIL SOCIETY IN BOLIVIA

2.1 The Civil Society Index

In this sub-section the state of civil society in Bolivia is examined by using the Civil Society Index (CSI) developed by CIVICUS, which incorporates considerations on four analytical dimensions: (i) the organisational and participative *structure*; (ii) the *values* which are practiced and promoted; (iii) the social and political *impact* which they reach with their activities; and (iv) the socio-economic and political *environment,* taking as the articulative axel the dynamics and relations between the state and civil society. Figure 2.1 below summarises the strengths and weaknesses of Ugandan civil society according to these four dimensions. The scoring is based on an analysis which triangulated information from various primary and secondary sources. The original research used 76 indicators to make an assessment on the state of civil society in Bolivia. The process included direct consultation with key stakeholders and general public, a review of the literature and media reports on civil society, case studies and a national panel to discuss findings and the score on each dimension. This chapter is based on the CIVICUS civil society index report for Bolivia (Orellana 2005).

Figure 2.1 CIVICUS Civil Society Diamond: Bolivia



With a score of 1.79, the *structure dimension* is shown to be relatively strong. Many Bolivians participate actively in the socio-political arena, especially when issues reach an acute stage of social conflict. They also donate actively to charity work, including voluntary work. People belong to many religious organisations, neighbourhood committees and peasant/indigenous community groups. Especially the Catholic church, but also mass media and neighbourhood committees enjoy relatively high levels of confidence of the general public, followed by labour unions and NGOs. The credibility of political parties was found to be considerably lower. More than 70% of those interviewed for the assessment indicated that they belong to at least one social group, and more than 76% had presented individual applications or participated in protest marches, interviews or meetings. Approximately 50% belonged to more than one CSO, typically of local or regional scope. National level organisations are urban-based, even though many also have local representatives in rural areas. In general, CSOs in Bolivia suffer more from lack of financial resources than from weak human capacity or infrastructure. Collaborative relations between CSOs are not very strongly developed, even though some alliances have been formed to reach common goals. These, however, are not very common and cooperation tends to be *ad hoc*, intensifying during periods of acute political struggle.

The score of the *environment dimension* is 1.40. The low figure reflects the high prevalence of poverty, but also problems in the institutionalisation of the state, which suffers from relatively underdeveloped normative basis. The latter, however, is currently under revision. While the citizens formally enjoy substantive political rights, including multi-party democracy and freedom of association which have been strengthened by recent legal reforms aiming at stronger popular participation, the use of political power is inadequately regulated and political practice is often not oriented towards achieving the common good. An estimated 7-10% of the population are not properly registered and are thus unable to exercise their political and social rights. Political and military repression of social movements have also been reported in various occasions. In this context, the legal recognition of the liberties and basic rights of individuals and their enforcement has an important role. Over the last few years, increasingly widespread struggle over civil rights has strengthened the role of the civil society vis-à-vis the state, increasing also the level of confidence between different elements of civil society. The latter phenomenon is particularly evident in rural areas and with respect to religious and ethnic differences.

In terms of the *value dimension,* Bolivia receives a score of 1.74. This reflects relatively high prevalence of corruption, including within CSOs, and low credibility of civil society interventions to improve transparency of public authorities. While protests and campaigns of civil disobedience have been visible in recent years, they have in most cases been pacific. This approach is also supported by most CSOs, many of which

campaign for non-violence. Tolerance for persons of different race, foreigners and those coming from a different region is relatively high, but low tolerance was observed towards HIV/AIDS infected persons and those belonging to sexual minorities. Campaigning for gender equity is relatively common, and the position of women in Bolivian society has improved, partly due to strong support from INGOs. The majority of CSOs consider widespread poverty a major challenge and are in some way involved in activities aiming at poverty reduction. Environmental sustainability, on the other hand, seems to be largely ignored both by the state and the CSOs. A conception of corporate and environmental responsibility is lacking, which is reflected in the absence of systematic control of environmental impacts.

The score for *impact dimension* is the highest at 1.81, reflecting activity and relative success in empowerment of citizens in terms of influencing public policy formulation, albeit not so effectively in terms of public policy execution and accountability of either public authorities or the private sector. This results from the weakness of the institutional environment, which lacks the intermediaries that are needed in an organised democratic society. In some cases the canals of mediation used lack legitimacy, generating thus movements that threaten to release social unrest. Especially in the case of oversight by CSOs over annual budget allocations and their implementation, lack of technical capacity to assess the documents has often become a major problem. On the other hand, the recent decentralisation process has strengthened the impact of civil society in local level governance processes. Information distribution and civic education are other key areas of operation. In terms of service delivery, the CSOs are relatively active especially in supporting the provision of water and electricity, which are considered priority areas by most of the population, but the results remain less than satisfactory. Targeting the poorest and socially marginalised groups was given a similar assessment, i.e. especially NGOs are active but the results remain meagre due to structural causes that are not addressed. Even so, NGOs were rated as better service providers than public authorities or CBOs.

2.2 Legal Framework

The CSO community in Bolivia has had an important role in the creation of a new opening for dialogue on public policy. With the passing of new statutes such as the Law on Social Participation, the Law on Administrative Decentralisation, and the Law on Educative Reform in the 1990s, the role of civil society has become stronger, especially in relation to social control. Despite various problems with implementation, social control by local population seems to have improved particularly on the municipal level, where it is based on specific forms of social organisation such as agrarian unions, indigenous peoples associations and so forth. The Law on National Dialogue (2001) regulates the allocation of resources coming from the release of the debts under the HIPC initiative, where it is stipulated that the distribution of resources is based on the priorities defined in the Bolivian PRSP. As noted above, the PRSP process involved the participation of a large number of the CSOs and municipalities of the country.

In Bolivia, CSOs must register in the departmental prefectures as civil associations and foundations. The organisations complain that the process is complicated, slow and expensive. Even though the procedures are stipulated in the respective law, the process appears to be plagued with favouritism. As such, the legislation is not perceived to restrict the operation of CSOs, but some basic rights such as access to information are not always observed by public authorities (Orellana 2005). In October 2007 a new law was passed, which establishes a 1% tax for funds arriving from abroad. In addition, there is a plan to oblige cooperating organisations to provide information, defining the objective of the use of the funds and how they comply with the National Development Plan. The Government is also collecting information about development CSOs, their budgets and activity areas.

2.3 The Challenge of Responsibility

International development cooperation has played a significant role in Bolivia. The financing provided by foreign donors has filled an important gap in public investment, especially when no other type of foreign resources were coming into the country. These resources have contributed to improvement of social

conditions in Bolivia, maintaining macroeconomic stability, institutional strengthening and internalisation of such concepts as poverty reduction and gender equity.

There are different ideological reasons and interests behind the support to the improvement of the living conditions of the poor, and each development agency has its own policy related to the conditions required. While some emphasise reinforcement of local capacities, others consider it a responsibility of the Government. Giving priority to working with the central Government or with the municipalities, or working directly with communities is another element that depends on the approach of the cooperation partners. In a similar vein, one can support social development or give priority to economic development. External assistance comes with diverse concrete demands and is seldom well harmonised according to a global development strategy.

In the state apparatus there are structural factors such as corruption, lack of clear strategy, weak project administration capacity and too frequent change of the political authorities and technical staff, which create obstacles for the realisation of development programmes.

At the level of communities and local government, the lack of financial transparency, the difference in development concepts and the way some representatives of development organisations relate with local authorities have contributed to an ambivalent relationship towards international development cooperation. On one hand certain scepticism, lack of confidence and will to condemn the donor community can be observed, but on the other hand the need for external financing and poor institutional capacity (in many cases) place local governments in an unequal position in relation to donor agencies which are willing to work in their territory (De Grave 2007).

3 FINNISH PARTNERSHIP ORGANISATIONS IN BOLIVIA

3.1 POs in Context

Six of the ten Finnish Partnership Organisations (POs) operate in Bolivia. However, only Plan Finland, Fida International, Frikyrklig Samverkan (FS) and the Finnish Evangelical Lutheran Mission (FELM) support national projects in Bolivia, whereas the Finnish Red Cross (FRC) and Trade Union Solidarity Centre of Finland (SASK) support regional projects, which operate also in Bolivia. Projects supported with funding from the scheme are described in Annex 1. The country programmes include many common elements, including institutional development and capacity building, health, education and rights of vulnerable groups, (e.g. indigenous people, rural communities, women, children and teenagers).

Three of the organizations are faith-based (Fida International, FS and FELM) while the other three are secular (Plan Finland, FRC and SASK). The religious basis does not appear to be a problem in Bolivia, especially as the religious organisations work mainly with beneficiaries that have economic resources below the average in the country. However, evangelisation work seems to be part of all their counterpart churches and other collaborating organisations. Plan Bolivia, which is Plan Finland's national counterpart, bases its work on the rights-based approach, whereas the other POs in Bolivia do not use this expression even though the concern is reflected in their work. SASK, which supports two regional projects with coverage in Bolivia, was not visited during this fieldwork phase, while the Fida representative was interviewed mainly in the context of the FS project which he also supervises.

Two of the organisations visited work exclusively through national members of the respective international networks (Plan Bolivia and the Bolivian Red Cross), whereas FELM supports the Bolivian Evangelic Lutheran Church (BELC) through the Lutheran World Federation (LWF). Fida and FS both work through Fida´s regional representation office in Cochabamba, which supports one of the national Pentecostal Churches, but they are still in the process of identifying established counterpart organisations to serve as long-term partners. In each case the national partner organisations of the POs receive funding

from various, mainly foreign sources and the activities supported by the POs constitute only one, usually non-dominant source of funding.

3.2 Plan Finland

Plan Finland's partner in the country is Plan Bolivia, which is part of the Plan International network based in the UK. Plan has also a Latin American regional office, which is located in Panama. Plan's vision is a world in which all children can realise their full potential in societies which respect the citizen's rights and dignity. The main focus is on the child's first years of life, which are believed to have a lasting influence in the person's later development. Currently Plan works in 45 countries, and it has been present in Bolivia since 1969. In addition to a country office in La Paz, it has regional offices in Santa Cruz, Altiplano, Sucre and Tarija. It operates in 1,080 communities in 51 municipalities, which are located in six departments (La Paz, Cochabamba, Tarija, Santa Cruz, Chuquisaca and Potosi). Plan Bolivia's budget has increased from 10 million Euro in 2005 to 13 million Euro in 2007, and it receives funding from 26 donors.

Plan´s five-year country strategy is based on the MDGs, Bolivia's National Development Plan and basic national principles for poverty reduction. The strategy is consistent with Plan Finland's strategic plan, and the key objectives fall inside Plan Finland's priority areas (child protection, children's rights and good governance). The country strategy is implemented through the following country programme outlines:

(i) Social governance in favour of children and adolescents;
(ii) Healthy and happy children and mothers;
(iii) Learning for life;
(iv) Deciding our lives; and
(v) Managing a healthy environment.

The next planning level under the country strategy consists of project outlines, annual operational plans and five-year community strategic development plans. They are based on the country strategy and are prepared in consultation with municipal and community planning authorities. At the moment Plan Bolivia implements 315 projects, through which it reaches approximately 160,000 families. It has also an extensive network of volunteers, altogether around 5,000 persons all over the country.

Through its 22 local decentralised offices Plan Bolivia aims to support local authorities in the implementation of national development priorities, while at the same time influencing public policies in favour of children and teenagers. It uses a three-pronged strategy to influence municipal policies, consisting of awareness raising, coordination and participation. The specific objectives are to reinforce municipalities (together with other institutions) as duty-bearers in rights-based approaches and to empower children, their families and communities to exercise their status as rights-holders. Plan Bolivia has also formed strategic alliances with both the Government and several international organisations, such as UNDP, Save the Children and World Vision. In this context the main child-centred organisations (Plan, Save the Children and World Vision) have agreed on geographical coordination on the selection of foster-children in order to avoid overlap.

Plan Bolivia´s monitoring and evaluation system is based on the logical framework approach, using Plan's own corporate planning, monitoring and evaluation system for follow up of programmes and projects. It uses the same common indicators shared by the entire Plan global network. Plan International has also developed common guidelines for project management. The corporate instruments used are both qualitative and quantitative, including secondary data review, family surveys, health surveys and literacy tests, children's consultations and a school quality index. The school quality index is presented in a national round table for education, in which Plan's country office participates. Country specific indices in Bolivia include community governance index, municipal governance index, students' performance tests and Nelson's infant development scale. These are complemented with interviews with municipal stakeholders, focus group discussions and in-depth interviews with beneficiaries. The system also makes use of financial tracking and output delivery monitoring.

The programme and project module used permits the assignment and consolidation of financial resources on project/programme level. The system also permits provision of information for each donor according to their specific needs. Plan Bolivia considers this important, even though in the case of some donors (e.g. the EU), this requires considerable efforts. Plan's evaluation reports are based on analytical surveys, secondary data, monitoring reports and qualitative studies. Country level evaluations are done regularly, for example a mid-term evaluation of Bolivia's five-year strategic plan is scheduled for April 2008. Additional evaluations are made according to each donor's requirements.

Evaluation period 2004-2006

During the evaluation period, two projects were supported by Plan Finland, namely the Child Friendly Municipalities (*Municipios Amigos de la Niñez,* MAN) and Initial Education: Indirect Modality (*Educación Inicial: Modalidad Indirecta*, EIMI).

In the period 2005-2006 the MAN project aimed at showing the important role of children and teenagers in the society, and it has strengthened the capacity of municipal administrations to develop programmes and projects with the youth and their families. It pretends to influence municipal policies in favour of children and adolescents by strengthening the capacity of municipal governments in participatory planning methods. The most important result of the project is that some municipalities have involved members of these age groups in planning. For example, in the municipality of Pucarani the needs of children and teenagers have been taken into account in the preparation of the five-year municipal development plan. Young people met by the evaluation team (some of them only around ten years of age) had been trained in citizen's rights and duties, and due to the training even the younger ones were able to describe municipal planning procedures.

The objective of the EIMI Project during the evaluation period was to develop capabilities of volunteers and parents for integral caretaking of children below the age of four, applying early childhood stimulating techniques, preparation of diets and work materials. The project has trained both men and women, who have taken up the approach and methods, and have established playrooms in their communities.

3.3 Finnish Red Cross

The International Movement of the Red Cross and the Red Crescent, founded in 1863, consists of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), the International Federation of the Red Cross and the Red Crescent Societies and 181 national societies of the Red Cross and the Red Crescent. The fundamental principles of the movement are humanity, impartiality, neutrality, independence, voluntary service, unity and universality. Bolivian Red Cross (*Cruz Roja Boliviana,* CRB) was founded in 1917, and is recognised by the Government as an autonomous private society for volunteer service delivery, which also provides assistance in public services. CRB has regional offices in Oruro, Potosi, Cochabamba, Santa Cruz and La Paz.

Finnish Red Cross (FRC) supports its Bolivian counterpart CRB through a regional programme coordinated by the South American regional delegation based in Lima, Peru. The programme focuses on developing community-based operational models. The objective is to improve the capacity of the region's ten national Red Cross societies to respond to the needs of the vulnerable communities in their countries. In this context, it organises training and provides technical support for project planning and implementation. Responsibility for the projects, however, remains with the national societies and by 2008 also responsibility for planning will lay with them. In 2006, FRC supported community-based programmes in South America with 130,000 Euro, of which 87,500 Euro came from MFA through the Partnership Scheme. In addition to the International Federation, CRB receives funding from the Government and some international and local donors, lately also from the private sector.

The Strategic development plan of CRB for the period 2004-2008 was elaborated in a participatory process, where different stakeholders at department and municipality level were included. The plan has three strategic lines, including project and programme work based on local development plans, internal

strengthening of the CRB organisation, and development & strengthening of the national network. A mid-term evaluation of the plan is currently under way. The results are expected to guide the adjustment of the current plan as well as possible reorientation of the next phase.

Under the strategic plan, CRB has two work programmes, the organisational development programme and the communal development programme. The first aims at organisational strengthening and development of human and financial resources. Its strategic activities include planning interventions and projects, communication and diffusion work, training of volunteers and development of financial resources. The second programme aims at improving the living conditions in local communities, reducing their vulnerability and strengthening their capacities. Its strategic activity areas include health, disaster aid, and youth programmes. Both programmes participate in South American regional networks.

The purpose of combining capacity building of national societies with humanitarian work lies in their mutual supportiveness, as supporting the Red Cross networks is believed to decrease the vulnerability of the poorest communities. One objective is also to strengthen the capability of national societies to create networks with local authorities, the private sector and CSOs. A key strength of CRB is believed to lie in voluntary work (approximately 500 volunteers in Bolivia), which is used in all the projects implemented in local communities where the living conditions are vulnerable. Currently CRB is implementing 15 projects. Monitoring and evaluation is based in La Paz, where also management and administration functions are concentrated. However, only three people have a permanent work contract with CRB while the other staff members are contracted on temporary, normally project basis. While this is intended to strengthen local ownership, efficient project management seems to suffer from the lack of continuity brought by the system.

Evaluation period 2004-2006

During 2004-2006, FRC has supported CRB only through the regional programme of the Red Cross in South America. In the case of regional programmes and projects, CRB was not aware of the source of their funding, including Finnish funding in this case. It was, however, aware that a latrine project was supported by Finland prior to the evaluation period, in 2002-2003.

In an effort to reduce the vulnerability of the poorest communities to natural disasters in Bolivia, the regional programme focuses on improving the capacities of CRB and its branches to better design, implement and evaluate community-based disaster risk reduction activities and to work with local organisations in a close and coordinated way. In this context, FRC support has contributed to the capacity building of organisations and re-positioning of CRB in the changing political and institutional scene. It has also contributed to the development of concrete tools for work at local level, such as procedures for defining homogenous areas (e.g. watersheds) to serve as the basis of the planning work. The development of a new internet learning instrument was also mentioned. It has since been accepted for exchange of experiences and learning by more than 30 organisations in the Andean region. The FRC Narrative report for 2006 notes that the development of integral community work has permitted the creation of a solid link between national societies and the International Secretariat so that today this strategy developed with FRC forms part of the general strategy of the International Federation and is included in projects and integrated activities with communities.

In 2006, FRC contributed to disaster preparedness through the community integrated programmes initiative and also in the context of community-based disaster preparedness actions. According to the project narrative report (FRC 2006), the contributions from FRC were spent largely as planned. The main objective of the programme was to reduce disaster vulnerability in local communities, and for this purpose, determination of risk zones was done and protective walls against flooding were constructed. The community authorities in the places visited had changed since then, so it was not possible to interview them. However, observations made during the field visit indicate that the risk for new disasters still exists.

3.4 Frikyrklig Samverkan

FS does not have a specific strategy for Latin America, where the organisation has projects in Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador and Guyana. It has currently only one project in Bolivia, which is the project visited by the evaluation team in the community of Ivirgarzama, Department of Cochabamba. The project has until now been managed by the local Pentecostal church.

Through the project, FS has supported the construction of the Even Ezer College in Ivirgarzama since 1996. The college has from its beginning worked in two turns, one private (responsibility of the Pentecostal church) and another municipal (administrated by the District Directorate for Education and the municipality). This has caused some distortion in the resource use of the college, as only 149 pupils participate in the private classes held in the morning while 566 attend the municipal classes held in the afternoon. Investments by the municipality are not possible in the current situation as the plot belongs to a private entity – the church.

The local Pentecostal churches struggle with sustainability problems, which has prompted Nordic Pentecostal churches to look for a more institutionalised local counterpart organisation. For this reason, a new organisation called the Foundation for Education and Development (*Fundación para la Educación y el Desarrollo,* FES) was established by several Bolivian Pentecostal churches and the Bolivian Evangelic University in 2004. At the moment FES manages ten local projects in Cochabamba and one international project. According to its strategic plan, FES has three action lines: education, training and social action, and theological education. The work plan for development activities does not include evangelisation as such.

It should be noted that the institutional capacity of FES is still incipient, as there are only two people working in the institution. However, Fida International is planning to establish a more permanent relationship with FES in 2008, and has already signed a cooperation contract with FES. According to the Executive Director of FES, FS has also proposed a cooperation agreement. This would solve at least partly the problematic situation FS in encountering in Bolivia, where it does not have an official representative or counterpart institution which would operate in the same language. Until recently, the Fida Coordinator for Latin America has acted as translator for the reports and correspondence between the Directorate of the Even Ezer College and FS, but the arrangement is not perceived as sustainable.

Evaluation period 2004-2006

As noted above, FS has provided funds in 2004-2005 for the construction of new classrooms and provision of equipment for hairdressing and computer classes at Even Ezer College in Ivirgarzama through the Bolivian Pentecostal Church. However, at the moment the future of the college is unclear. There is no official government approval for the vocational training given at the college, which means that the graduates leave without an official certificate. During the visit to the college, the team observed that there were two separate fully equipped computer classrooms, which had received funding from different sources ostensibly for the same purpose. This seems to indicate that the Pentecostal Church, which is responsible for the private college is not able to coordinate the curriculum and construction activities with the local municipality. On the other hand, big infrastructure and investment work is being done in a municipal college nearby, which has a much larger number of students.

In terms of financial administration, it was not quite clear to the evaluation team how the funds have been transferred earlier, but in the evaluation period the funds arrived to the private account of the chairman of the church. This was justified by the fact that the church was not able to open a bank account on its own name in any of the local banks. Even so, this is clearly an irregular arrangement.

3.5 Finnish Evangelical Lutheran Mission

Finnish Evangelical Lutheran Mission (FELM) supports the Bolivian Evangelic Lutheran Church (BELC) through the Lutheran World Foundation (LWF). This type of multilateral support is not the typical way for FELM to implement its development cooperation, as approximately 80% of FELM's support is channelled as bilateral cooperation with local and/or national counterpart churches.

BELC was established in 1927, and has currently approximately 20,000 members in the country. It is, therefore, quite a small church in the local context. Most of the affiliated congregations are in the department of La Paz. BELC is organised in three secretariats working on social development, mission and education, respectively. In Bolivia, FELM supports two projects, which are managed by the social development secretariat of BELC, and are supported by several donors, LWF being the most important one. Currently the church is also coordinating some activities with the municipalities, and sees the importance of this type of collaboration. In BELC, the mission secretariat in charge of pastoral and evangelical work suffers from lack of resources because most of the cooperating partners do not fund evangelical work. The dilemma of the church, therefore, appears to lie in combining evangelical and project work, as most donors are willing to finance only project support to vulnerable people, but the church has also its evangelical mission to follow. In this context, the church is looking rather desperately for institutional support.

BELC is currently undergoing an institutional strengthening process, and most of its personnel were changed in February 2007. An external consultant has prepared a re-organisation plan for the financial administration and accounting systems, and LWF, together with some other donors, has agreed to support the process until March 2008. One component of the process is preparing a new financial management system for project management and monitoring, as no manual for financial management is currently available. Preparation of a strategic organisational management plan is scheduled for 2008. There is also plan to revise the by-laws of the organisation in a participative way during 2008.

According to the consultant met by the evaluation team, BELC has three main institutional problems: lack of project administration capacity, inadequate financial management systems and lack of systematic documentation. The brief observations made by the team tend to confirm these findings, particularly as only 40% of the personnel from 2006 continue in their work. An example of the problems with the flow of information from the earlier administration is the case of the Project Documents for the Finnish funded projects, which could not be located at the BELC office during the visit. According to the chairman of the church, a fire at the office premises in 2006 destroyed part of the church archives, while some others are in the custody of former office holders.

Evaluation period 2004-2006

Three projects implemented by BELC were supported by FELM during the evaluation period, namely the Alternative agricultural production and water pumps project, the Drinking water and latrines project and the Education project for the Aymara indians. A recent evaluation of the two first mentioned projects, which included visits to 11 rural communities, concluded that sustainability was a key problem of the projects. The projects included some good initiatives, but the geographical area of intervention was too big for the scarce resources of the church, while the management of the information and follow-up were found to be insufficient (Cuentas 2007). According to an evaluation carried out earlier in 2007, savings are made in the technical part of the extension work, which is then reflected in lack of results. With limited resources available, monitoring concentrates on a few regions at a time, leaving others unattended for considerable periods.

The same problems were observed during the evaluation team's field visit to local communities. Due to lack of monitoring of the irrigation project, several broken water pumps were recorded during the visit. The families interviewed confirmed that vegetables promoted by the project had improved their nutrition status in some cases, and some families were even selling their products in market-places, increasing thus the family income. However, it was also noted that some of the families were not using the vegetables

cultivated in the greenhouses. The reason for this could not be verified, but it appears that lack of technical assistance and follow-up is at least one factor as the technicians of BELC were concentrating in other regions.

4 CONCLUSION

The current political situation in Bolivia is characterised by high level of civil society activity in a context where CSOs have in some occasions even taken the place traditionally reserved for political parties. President Morales' political programme, which seeks to change radically the political, economic and social structures of the country has received active support from a number of indigenous groups and social movements, thus shifting political power from traditional elite groups and established political parties towards representatives of the poor.

However, it appears that the local CSOs supported by the Finnish POs in Bolivia have not taken an active role in this process. While advocacy work has a prominent role at least in the programmes of Plan Bolivia and CRB, their focus is essentially thematic, building on collaborative engagement with local, and to a lesser extent national sectoral authorities. Both organisations are also active in capacity building and service delivery. FS and FELM, on the other hand, work closely with the partner churches, even though at least FS is seeking to establish a relationship with a new Bolivian umbrella organisation of the Pentecostal movement. In both cases the emphasis is more on capacity building and service delivery than advocacy work, but effectiveness is hampered by weak technical support and administrative problems. Due to the transitional stage of the political system in Bolivia, it is not possible to assess the role external aid to civil society through NGOs will have in the future.

Personas entrevistadas

Plan Internacional

Lunes, noviembre 13 de 2007 Reunión en Oficina de Plan Internacional Bolivia	
Nombre	Cargo
Juan Felipe Sánchez	Director de País.
Silvia Nole	Gerente Nacional de Programas.
Patricia Arancibia	Coordinadora Nacional de Municipios
Daniel Rojas	Coordinador Nacional EIMI
Gustavo Tapia	Encargado de Monitoreo y Evaluación
Tapani Haapala	Departamento para la política de desarrollo. Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores de Finlandia
Markku Siltanen	Impact Consulting Oy Ltd.
Saúl Mendoza	Econova S.R.L.
Jueves, noviembre 22 de 2007 Visita de campo a la comunidad de Laja (Gobierno municipal)	
Nombre	Cargo
Jorge Coria	Presidente Comité de Vigilancia Municipio de Laja
Quintin Chura Choque	Presidente Consejo Municipal Laja
Petronila Carhuani Maquina	Concejal Secretaria Municipio de Laja
Néstor Mamani	Vice Presidente Consejo Municipal Laja
José Luis Chana	Facilitador Desarrollo Comunitario Plan Altiplano
Norma Ávila	Facilitador Desarrollo Comunitario Plan Altiplano
Ramiro López	Técnico de Salud Plan Altiplano
Pedro Azuga	Facilitador Proyecto MAN Plan Altiplano
Rubén Quispe	Facilitador Proyecto EIMI
Adriana Ayala	Facilitador Proyecto EIMI
Comunidad de Laja. Beneficiarios Proyecto MAN	15 jóvenes (10 hombres y 5 mujeres)
Jueves, noviembre 22 de 2007 Visita de campo a la comunidad de Pucarani (Gobierno municipal)	
Nombre	Cargo
Alejandro Mamani Quispe	Alcalde Municipio de Pucarani
Alejandro Sandoval	Facilitador Proyecto MAN Plan Altiplano
Comunidad de Pucarani Beneficiarios Proyecto MAN	4 jóvenes (1 hombre y 3 mujeres)

Cruz Roja Boliviana

Martes, noviembre 14 de 2007 Reunión en Oficina de Cruz Roja Boliviana	
Nombre	Cargo
Rubén Gonzales Z.	Unidad Nacional de Socorro y Desastres.
Carlos Tamayo	Director Nacional Desarrollo Organizacional.
Rodolfo Chambi	Contador.
Vicente Aguirre	Técnico Unidad Planificación y Monitoreo.
Tutty Leppakoski	Jefe de la Misión Cruz Roja Finlandesa.

Adriana Delgado H.	Oficial Regional de Reducción de Riesgos Comunitarios Perú.
Harri Hickkanen	Cruz Roja Finlandesa. Representante para América Latina y el Caribe.
Gustavo Rivera	Departamento de Planificación y Monitoreo.
Feddy Alvarez	Pasante Cruz Roja Boliviana.
Susan Martínez	Unidad Juventudes. CRB.
Ronald Clavijo	Unidad de Socorro y Desastres. CRB.
José Michel	Unidad de Socorro y Desastres. CRB.
Rodrigo Riberos	Unidad de Planificación y Proyectos
Ivan Copa	Unidad Nacional de Socorro y Desastres CRB.
Kimmo Juvas	Delegado del Proyecto DIPECHO
Ana Rosa Ollanta	Jefe Nacional de Comunicación
Elsa Zuna Orlandini	Tesorera Directorio Nacional Cruz Roja Boliviana
Tapani Haapala	Departamento para la política de desarrollo. Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores de Finlandia
Markku Siltanen	Impact Consulting Oy Ltd.
Saúl Mendoza	Econova S.R.L.
Martes, noviembre 14 de 2007 Visita de campo.	
Nombre	Cargo
Edgar Tórrez	Sub Alcalde Distrito 1. Cotahuma.
Lucrecia Cruz	Coordinadora Local Proyecto Cotahuma.
Ronald Clavijo	Unidad de Socorro y Desastres.
Martes, noviembre 21 de 2007 Visita de campo y Oficina Central.	
Nombre	Cargo
Lucrecia Cruz	Coordinadora Local Proyecto Cotahuma.
Rubén Gonzales Z.	Unidad Nacional de Socorro y Desastres.
Carlos Tamayo	Director Nacional Desarrollo Organizacional.
Amparo Maldonado	Coordinadora Proyecto AIEPI
Dolly Iturry	SEDES trabajadora Social
Alvaro Cuéllar	Coordinador Proyecto de Nutrición
Aleida Prieto	Facilitadora Proyecto de Nutrición
Humberto Moscoso	Facilitador Proyecto Nutrición
Paola Morgoya	Agente de capacitación
Nelly	Agente de capacitación
Angélica	Agente de capacitación
Andrea	Agente de capacitación
Ramiro	Agente de capacitación
Rodolfo Chambi	Contador.

Iglesia Evangélica Pentecostal Boliviana

Jueves, noviembre 15 de 2007 Casa de Ari Joensuu	
Nombre	Cargo
Guido Castro	Presidente Nacional Iglesia Pentecostal Boliviana.
Rigoberto Condori	Presidente Saliente Directorio de Administración Colegio Even Ezer.
Jueves, noviembre 15 de 2007 Visita de Campo. Comunidad Ivirgarzama. Chapare - Cochabamba.	
Nombre	Cargo
Hiberth Rojas	Director Nacional de Misión Sueca - Coordinador Colegios.
Fernando Mercado	Director Colegio Buenas Nuevas - Consultor.
Alfredo Cruz	Tesorero Directorio Colegio Even Ezer.
Viernes, noviembre 16 de 2007 Oficina de Fundación para la Educación y Servicio (FES).	
Nombre	Cargo
Munir Chiquie N.	Director Ejecutivo FES.
Viernes, noviembre 16 de 2007 Reunión en Cochabamba.	
Nombre	Cargo
Esteban Peralta	Pastor Comunidad Ivirgarzama.
Cornelio Ugarte	Comunidad Ivirgarzama. Presidente Entrante Directorio de Administración Colegio Even Ezer.
Cipriana Rodríguez	Comunidad Ivirgarzama.

FIDA

Viernes, noviembre 16 de 2007 Oficina de FIDA	
Nombre	Cargo
Ari Joensuu	Coordinador General Sud América
Sonia Patiño	Coordinadora Nacional Multiplicación y Capacitación género.
María Sotamar	Psicóloga
Pamela Nicolas	Socióloga
Zaida Orco	Asistente Administrativa

Iglesia Evangélica Luterana Boliviana

Lunes, noviembre 19 de 2007 Visita de campo. Comunidades de Copajira, Pallarette y Santiago de Pacharía.	
Nombre	Cargo
Herminia Poma Quispe	Facilitadora Proyecto Producción agrícola alternativa y bombas de agua
Javier Gutiérrez F.	Director Secretaría Desarrollo Social
Mario Chipana	Director Secretaría Educación
Comunidad de Copajira	15 mujeres – 5 hombres

Comunidad de Santiago de Pacharía	23 mujeres – 21 hombres – 3 profesores
Comunidad de Pallerete	30 mujeres – 14 hombres – 1 profesor
Martes, noviembre 20 de 2007 Oficina de la Iglesia Evangélica Luterana Boliviana	
Cristóbal A. Fernández	Presidente IELB
Javier Gutiérrez F.	Director Secretaría Desarrollo Social
Mario Chipana	Director Secretaría Educación
Francisco Choque	Director Secretaría Misión
Samuel Maita	Director Secretaría Desarrollo Social (1999-2007)
Vladimir Retamozo	Consultor Retamoso & asociados.
Delfín Cuentas, Walter Gutiérrez	Consultora Evaluación proyectos Producción agrícola alternativa y bombas de agua, y Aguas potables y letrinas.
Ubaldo Osco	Contador
Gaby Calle	Asistente contabilidad
Hilarión Rocha	Tesorero Directorio

ANNEX 2 COUNTRY REPORT OF INDIA

Kristiina Mikkola and *Rita Dey*

1 DEVELOPMENT/NATIONAL CONTEXT

1.1 Country Background

India is a country with diverse geography. Its landscape ranges from Himalayan mountain ranges to deserts, plains, rainforests, hills and plateaus. India comprises most of the Indian subcontinent. The country has a coastline of over 7,000 km and it is surrounded by Arabian Sea in the west and Bay of Bengal in the east. It is the seventh largest country of the world with the land area of 3.28 million km^2. The fertile Indo-Gangetic plain occupies most of the northern, central and eastern parts of India while the Deccan plateau occupies most of southern India. Thar Desert is found in the western part and the eastern and northeastern border consist of the high Himalayas (highest peak Kanchenjunga 8,598 m). Climate ranges from tropical in the far south to alpine (oroarctic) in the Himalayas. Pakistan, Afghanistan, China, Nepal, Bhutan, Myanmar, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Maldives are India's neighbouring countries. Politically, India is divided into 28 states and seven federally administered union territories (Figure 1). The political divisions generally follow linguistic and ethnic boundaries (Wikipedia 2007).

Figure 1 Political Map of India (National Portal of India 2007)

The population of India is over 1.1 billion of which 71% is rural (World Bank 2007). It is now the world's fourth largest economy in terms of purchasing power. It has emerged as a global player in information

technology, business process outsourcing, telecommunication and pharmaceutical industries. Key country statistics vis-à-vis economic growth and human development are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Key Country Statistics during 2000-2006 (WB 2007, UNDP 2007)

Population (million, 2006)	1,109.8
Population (% of world total, 2004)	17.4
HDI (2007)	0,619
HDI rank (among 177 countries ranked, 2007)	128
Average annual growth, %:	
• Population	1.5
• Labour force	1.9
Poverty (% of population below national poverty line)	29
Urban population (% of total population)	29
Life expectancy at birth (years)	64
Infant mortality (per 1000 live births)	56
Children underweight for age (% ages 0-5, in 2004)	47
Access to an improved water source (% of population)	86
Literacy (% of population age 15+)	61
Combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio (%)	63.8
GDP per capita (PPP US$)	3,452
Gross primary enrolment (% of school-age population)	
• Male, %	123
• Female, %	116
Average annual growth, % (2006)	
• GDP	9.2
• GDP per capita	7.7
• Exports of goods and services	8.6
Carbon dioxide emissions (2004)	
• Total emissions ($MtCO_2$)	1,342.1
• CO_2 emissions annual change (%)	6.9
• CO_2 emissions share of world total (%)	4.6
• CO_2 emissions per capita (tCO_2)	1.2

India has enjoyed a high GDP growth rate over the past decades (in the 1980s average annual GDP growth 5.7%, in the 1990s 6.1%). With GDP growth rate exceeding 7% during the 10th Plan period, Indian economy is among the ten fastest growing in the world (ADB 2001, IMF 2007). Despite impressive economic growth, India's progress in achieving MDGs is uneven. It is on track in terms of several goals while slow progress or even regression is recorded in some target indicators (UNDP 2005). Attaining the MDGs will be difficult for India without significant improvements in poorer states that will account for an even larger share of population in 2015 (World Bank 2004).

Regarding MDG 1, Eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, India is well on track in halving the proportion of people living below poverty line (target 18.75% – year 2000 value 26.1%). However, due to population growth, the reduction in number of people living in poverty will be more challenging. Between 1993 and 1999 the total number of poor fell from 381 million to 354 million. Same challenge is felt with reducing the proportion of people who suffer from hunger: while statistics showed reduction in percentage, the absolute number of hungry people rose. Progress towards achieving universal primary education and promoting gender empowerment (MDGs 2 and 3) is on track, while progress towards MDG 4 (reduce child mortality) has been slow. In terms of maternal health (MDG 5), India is one of the Asian countries with highest number of maternal deaths and has been regressing (UNDP 2005, Government of India 2005).

India has made excellent progress towards combating malaria, tuberculosis and other diseases (MDG 6), but HIV/AIDS prevalence has increased. Environmental sustainability principles have been integrated into country and state policies (MDG 7). India has already exceeded the target for urban population with access to an improved water source and will probably achieve the same for rural population. Progress towards sanitation targets, however, is far from equal (UNDP 2005, Government of India 2005). Another worrisome indicator is the carbon dioxide emissions - per capita rate is low but increases almost 7% per year (UNDP 2007).

With respect to MDG 8, the Government of India has been an active advocate regarding the role of the developed countries in forging global partnerships, e.g. on GNI 0.7 target and HIPC Initiative. India itself has made substantial progress in terms of cooperation with the private sector and making available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communication technology. This is indicated by increases in teledensity (overall increase from 0.7% in 1991 to 9.4 % in June 2005). Use of personal computers has nearly tripled from 2001 to 2005 (14.5 million computers). In March 2005 there were 5.3 million internet subscribers and 2.3 internet users per 100 persons (Government of India 2005).

Human development remains a formidable challenge for India. Challenges include improving the delivery of public services, making the growth more inclusive and sustaining growth. With faster economic growth, regional, inter-state and rural - urban disparities have increased. India's higher-income states have successfully reduced poverty to levels comparable with richer Latin American countries, but its poorer states - Assam, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, and Uttar Pradesh - have not kept pace and are lagging behind their more prosperous counterparts. Persistent gender and social inequalities constrain the extent to which certain sections of population are able to participate in and benefit from the process of economic growth. An illiterate rural woman, a member of a scheduled tribe or cast, a person living in a landless household or dependent on wage earnings, all face a significantly higher than average risk of poverty. In several states urban inequality has increased too (World Bank 2004, Planning Commission 2002a, UNDP 2005).

India demonstrates a significant decentralization of power between the central government and the state Governments. A wide range of important functions falls under the authority of state governments. This constitutional set-up together with historical, geographical and socio-cultural factors has resulted in wide disparities in the quality of governance (Court 2003). Tax structure and collection, and expenditure management would benefit from improvement. According to World Bank (2000) effective decentralization would improve governance, outcomes and inclusion of the poor. To achieve this, state and local institutional capacity needs to be improved and those institutions provided with greater "voice". Efficient sharing of the tax base across different levels of government needs to be developed and closer links of costs, revenues and service delivery established. Effective decentralization and greater deregulation would also help to reduce corruption, which is a concern of both central and state governments.

Local government consists of so-called Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRI). PRI is a three-tier system for all states with population more than 2 million. It consists of a Panchayat at village-level (232,278), intermediate level (6,022) and district level (535). Elections are held regularly every five years. The Panchayats have a minimum one-third provision (combined) for seats of representatives from Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and women. Powers and responsibilities are delegated to appropriate level Panchayats to prepare plans for economic development and social justice, to implement those plans and to levy appropriate taxes and fees (Ministry of Rural Development 2003).

1.2 The Tenth Five Year Plan

The 10th Five Year Plan (2002-2007) formed India's Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS). During the 10th Plan period some of the most prominent challenges for the government included improving the delivery of public services, making the growth more inclusive and sustaining growth. The essence of the plan was

to change the role and improve the effectiveness of the government and support effective private investment that would improve overall well being of the people (Planning Commission 2002b).

To improve governance and service delivery, greater reliance was placed on the private sector and on public sector reforms to deliver accountability, to reduce opportunities for corruption and to improve the speed and effectiveness of government at all levels. Second main strategy was poverty reduction in the lagging states through implementation of policies that would induce growth, generate employment and increase access to elementary education (specifically among girls) and primary health care (specifically for women). The plan had a goal of an average 8% rate of growth per year, largely through greater public investment. This also required fiscal adjustments (at central and state levels), reforms in financial system and trade liberalization. Improved infrastructure and productive base was another core component of the plan (Planning Commission 2002b).

Acknowledging that economic growth cannot be the only objective of national planning, the government set the following human development targets for the Tenth Plan and beyond (Planning Commission 2002b):

- Reduction of poverty ratio by 5 percentage points by 2007 and by 15 percentage points by 2012;
- Providing gainful and high-quality employment in excess of the addition to the labour force over the Tenth Plan period;
- All children in school by 2003; all children to complete 5 years of schooling by 2007;
- Reduction in gender gaps in literacy and wage rates by at least 50 per cent by 2007;
- Reduction in the decadal rate of population growth between 2001 and 2011 to 16.2 per cent;
- Increase in literacy rates to 75 per cent within the plan period;
- Reduction of infant mortality rate to 45 per 1000 live births by 2007 and to 28 by 2012;
- Reduction of maternal mortality ratio to 2 per 1000 live births by 2007 and to 1 by 2012;
- Increase in forest and tree cover to 25 per cent by 2007 and 33 per cent by 2012;
- All villages to have sustained access to potable drinking water within the plan period;
- Cleaning of all major polluted rivers by 2007 and other notified coastal stretches by 2012.

Reflecting the vastness of the country and diversity of the challenges, the plan proposed multiple reforms, programmes and actions. For instance, multiple support initiatives were outlined for poverty reduction, to improve service delivery in health sector and to improve condition of women and children. Scheduled tribes (see chapter 2.5 below) had their own provisions, and appropriate legislation for protection of the aged was proposed. For agricultural sector – a key to sustain development processes – measures included development of perspective plan for rain-fed and degraded areas, rain water harvesting and conservation, efficient use of water, judicious use of ground water, organic farming and crop diversification (Planning Commission 2002b).

The average growth rate of the Indian economy in the Tenth Plan period (2002-07) was about 7%. This was still below the Tenth Plan target of 8%, but it is the highest growth rate achieved in India's history. Inflation remained at moderate level (4.8%) and the country had a comfortable level of foreign exchange reserves (US$ 155 billion). The 11th 5-Year Plan for 2007-2012 was approved in December 2007. It has as its central theme 'Towards Faster and More Inclusive Growth'. It aims at 9% annual growth, seeks to lower poverty by 10 percentage points and to reduce unemployment to less than five percent by e.g. generating 70 million new jobs. The 11th Plan has 27 detailed national targets ranging from enhancing incomes and reducing poverty to education, literacy, health, infant mortality, maternal mortality and child development (National Planning Commission 2006, India eNews 2007).

1.3 Social Security Systems

There are several key differences in the social security systems in India when compared with developed countries. Historically, Indian society has had a built-in social security provision at communal level. The

joint family system took care of needs of all members especially in the rural areas as it involved tilling the common family land. Family members shared responsibility towards one another. With growing urbanization and migration these systems are breaking up. Thus formal systems of social security are becoming important. In the Indian context, "social security is a comprehensive approach designed to prevent deprivation, assure the individual of a basic minimum income for himself and his dependents and to protect the individual from any uncertainties." (Ministry of Labour 2007).

There is no universal social security system as such in place in India. For instance, only 35 million people (approximately 9% of total workforce) have access to old age pension. There is a vast difference between organized and unorganized (informal) sector. According to the latest survey (1999-2000), the total workforce was about 397 million of which the organized sector accounted only 28 million. The organized sector consists of workers who are protected under the law against loss of income on account of illness, disability, maternity, old age and death. These workers have secure jobs and obtain price-adjusted salaries. It has been estimated that at least 370 million workers, a vast majority of the Indian workforce, do not have access to any formal social security coverage and are not systematically covered by any of the labour laws. This informal sector consists of workers in sectors such as agriculture, contract services, construction, trade, commerce, transport, storage and communication. These are occupations that are seasonal and temporary in nature, have high mobility and dispersed functioning of operations. The workers do not receive any organizational support and have low bargaining power. They are estimated to contribute to over 60% of the national income but do not have access to either promotional / protective social security (food, housing, education and health) or preventive social security (protection against contingencies resulting in reduction or stoppage of income) (Ministry of Labour 2007, Rajasekhar 2007).

There are five principal social security laws that provide a minimum standard of social security for the organized sectors. The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948 (ESI Act) covers factories and establishments with ten or more employees and provides for comprehensive medical care to the employees and their families as well as cash benefits during sickness and maternity, and monthly payments in case of death or disablement. The Employees' Provident Funds & Miscellaneous Provisions Act, 1952 (EPF & MP Act) applies to specific scheduled factories and establishments employing twenty or more employees and ensures terminal benefits to provident fund, superannuation pension, and family pension in case of death during service. Separate laws exist for similar benefits for the workers in the coalmines, tea plantations and for sailors. The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923 (WC Act) requires payment of compensation to the workman or his family in cases of employment related injuries resulting in death or disability. The Maternity Benefit Act, 1961 (M.B. Act) provides for 12 weeks wages during maternity as well as paid leave in certain other related contingencies. Finally, the Payment of Gratuity Act, 1972 (P.G. Act) provides fifteen days wages for each year of service to employees who have worked for five years or more in establishments having a minimum of ten workers (Ministry of Labour 2007).

At the national level there are no comprehensive schemes or legislation that would address social security of the unorganized sector. Instead for the past several decades, the government has put in place programmes to meet the basic subsistence and contingency needs of the poor and informal sector workers. These different approaches to provide elements of social security for the poor consist of social assistance programmes, social insurance schemes and welfare funds (Ministry of Labour 2007, Remesh 2007).

Measures, such as food-based transfer programmes, income transfer programmes and cash-transfer programmes are varieties of social assistance programmes. The food based social safety nets consist of programmes such as self-targeted employment programmes for able bodied, welfare programmes for specific vulnerable groups (elderly, disabled, pregnant and lactating mothers) and programmes for basic education and nutrition. The Public Distribution System (PDS) and Community Grain Bank Scheme are examples of different food security initiatives. PDS provides food grains and other essential items at lower prices to the poor. The Community Grain Scheme is set up by a government grant that provides for one time purchase of locally preferred variety of food grains. The member families are entitled to take grain loans at the period of scarcity and pay loan back after a successful harvest. Food bank schemes have been quite successful at local levels in improving food security in remote areas for vulnerable groups. Income

transfer programmes consists of e.g. labour-based public works and infrastructure programmes for urban and rural livelihoods. Food for Work Programme is one famous example. The latest addition to these schemes is the Employment Guarantee Scheme. It mandates that the State government in rural areas would ensure at least 100 days of guaranteed wage employment (unskilled manual work) in a year to at least one adult member of every household (Ministry of Labour 2007, Remesh 2007).

Social insurance schemes are another major category for unorganized sector labour. These are meant to improve ability of the poor individuals and households to resist sudden shocks or losses caused by social and other contingencies. There are two major generic schemes for life insurance and health insurance. A universal social insurance scheme (*Janshree Bima Yojana*) was launched in 2000, along with the Life Insurance Corporation of India. The scheme envisages life insurance protection to persons between 18-60 years old. The Universal Health Insurance Scheme assures hospital care to poor persons and families. It was launched in 2004 by the public sector general insurance companies of the country and aims at providing some reimbursement of medical expenses, life-cum-accident insurance, and compensation on job loss to the families below poverty line. These schemes are relatively recent and their sustainability and ability to provide required cover to all eligible beneficiaries remains to be tested (Ministry of Labour 2007, Remesh 2007).

Welfare funds represent a different mode of providing social security to the workers in specific occupational categories. The examples of working welfare funds are from southern states, particularly from Kerala and Karnataka, where various welfare funds are currently catering to different informal sector occupations and provide different types of welfare amenities to the workers such as healthcare, housing, educational assistance for children, drinking water and so on. The replicability of the welfare fund model at the national level is being assessed (Remesh 2007, Ministry of Labour 2007).

The policy planners in India have started paying attention towards designing more effective social safety nets and revamping the existing measures. Issues like targeting, proper identification and expanding coverage as well as designing efficient delivery mechanisms are being worked at. The central and state governments seek alternatives to devise more cost-effective and targeted interventions as well as to seek enhanced participation of and contributions from other stakeholders, such as the employers as well as the social/community actors and the targeted beneficiaries themselves, e.g. as in the case of Kerala welfare funds. Food security initiatives have gone through several important innovations. One example is the mid-day meal scheme from 1995 that is a major scheme on providing mid-day meals at schools to the children of poorest families. It has acted both as a means of nutritional support to the families of unorganized sector labour and provided an incentive for school enrolment of their children. The Annapurna Scheme and *Antyodaya Anna* Scheme aim at providing some food relief to the elderly in the poor families and to abate hunger among poorest of the poor, respectively. In the social insurance and pension sector the significant new initiatives are the universal social insurance scheme (*Janshree Bima Yojana* 2000) and the Universal Health Insurance System (2004). Some recent legislative social security initiatives of Government of India are rights based. For instance, the National Employment Guarantee Act (NREGA), 2005 is a step towards legal enforcement of the right to work, as aspect of the fundamental right to live with dignity (Ministry of Labour 2007, Rajasekhar 2007, Remesh 2007).

2 CIVIL SOCIETY IN INDIA

2.1 Definition

The definition and classification of civil society (CSO) and non-profit organizations (NPO) in India is varied. Civil society represents a mosaic of initiatives that have been termed as voluntary action, voluntary organization or voluntary association. They capture a wide variety of activities, different purposes, structures and outcomes. Social movements, people's organizations, popular movements and grass roots citizen's initiatives are other ways of describing some part of the array of voluntary initiatives. The term that has gained ascendancy in the past three decades is non-governmental organization, NGO. Different

voluntary grassroots organizations, community based organizations, religious organizations, private consultancy and research groups, academic institutions, parts of media and even some private for profit business sectors can all be coined under 'NGO'. Although definitions for CSO and NGO are not exactly the same, the two terms are used interchangeably in India (PRIA 2000).

The CSOs offer different types of services or functions to the society. Some are involved as public service contractors engaged in service provision and others collaborate with the government to generate desired outcomes. There are CSOs serving as social innovators incubating new ideas, models and practices addressing particular developmental problems. Some CSOs advocate policies and social critique focusing on social, political, environmental and economic issues that are of national and international agencies' interest. Finally, there are organizations building civil society institutions to provide access, voice and representation to hitherto excluded and marginalized communities and citizens. CSOs can also be clustered as field programme based (welfare, empowerment and innovation), support provider (capacity building and information), umbrella or network type (federations and associations), research and advocacy, philanthropic (grant making) or foreign organizations (PRIA 2000, PRIA 2001).

It is common to the civil society organizations in India that they are organized, i.e. they have an institutional identity. They do not have to be legally registered initially. To qualify for benefits from e.g. government programmes or to be able to open bank accounts, a registration becomes necessary. The self help groups formed by poor community sections are an exception as they can open bank accounts with permission from the local Panchayat only. CSOs/NGOs are self-governing and institutionally separate from the government or private (for profit) sectors. They operate on non-profit basis and any generated surplus is ploughed back to the work of the organization. Voluntary participation of the group members remains a backbone of operations (PRIA 2000).

2.2 Legal Context

The Constitution of India explicitly recognizes a freedom to form associations and unions. Stemming from that, some ten different acts provide for legal establishment and registration for a civil society organization. For instance, an NGO can be formed under three legal identities, either as a society, a trust or a limited company. A society is the most common form of NGOs in India. A society should generally not get involved with profit making activities. Charitable assistance is one of the three common purposes for which a society can be established nationwide. In addition, various state governments have provided additional and expanding objectives for society formation (PRIA 2001).

A charitable trust can be set up by anyone who has decided to set aside some of their assets or income for charitable causes. Trusts are completely independent of government or any external control. The main obligation is to work within the charitable purposes and the powers set out in the trust deed. Charity is a matter for state control, so different states of India have their own legislation to govern and regulate public charitable trusts/NGOs (PRIA 2001).

Non-profit company is identical to an ordinary company in all respects except that it is not established for profit or commercial gain. It is also called a Section 25 Company. The statutory disclosure requirements provide a non-profit company an advantage of operational transparency and ability to invoke and maintain public faith. Objectives of a Section 25 Company can include promotion of commerce, art, science, religion, charity or any other useful object. Profits are applied for promoting only the objectives of the company and no dividend is paid to its members. A non-profit company is eligible for certain exemptions from provisions of law and concessions on fee rates, etc. The law providing for this is an All India Act. Thus the states have no authority over it (PRIA 2001).

There are a number of additional opportunities for establishing and registering a civil society organization in India. These include for instance cooperative societies, trade unions and religious endowments / trusts. Each have their provisions for registration and operation specified in respective laws and acts (PRIA 2001).

2.3 Salient Features of Civil Society Organizations in India

It is estimated that there are nearly 1.2 million CSOs in India. They are predominantly based in rural areas. More than half of them are registered. Some 20 million persons work in not-for- profit organizations, on voluntary or paid basis. Nearly three out of four CSOs operate on volunteer basis or have just one paid staff member. During the fiscal year 1999-2000, CSOs mobilized nearly INR 180 billion (INR 17,922 crore, approx. EUR 3.2 billion). More than half of this is self-generated (through fees, charges for services, etc.) while grants and donations taken together constitute 42% of total CSO receipts in India. Nation wide, 7.4% of the total receipts was foreign funds (PRIA 2002).

The 11th 5-year Plan Approach (Planning Commission 2006) acknowledges the importance of CSOs/NGOs. They have gained strength and are trying new experiments to reach the poor, often in partnership with Panchayati Raj Institutions. Women are participating in PRIs and leading group action for a better life. In addition to capacity building, many CSOs have a proven track record of creating awareness, mobilising social capital and implementing programmes at the grass roots level. Results in this area are quoted as being "impressive". Recognising this experience, the 11th Plan was advised to aim at encouraging partnerships, even joint implementation, particularly between CSOs and PRIs. Measures to bring about effective devolution to PRIs will help improve local involvement and accountability. This is an area where civil society organizations can play a major role. Education and curative health services are the other two areas where the central government sees scope for partnership with non-profit and civil society organizations.

2.4 CSOs and Foreign Funding

The Foreign Contribution (Regulation) Act, 1976 (FCRA) requires all Indian CSOs/NGOs that receive foreign contributions to receive clearance from the Ministry of Home Affairs, in the form of either permanent FCRA registration or prior permission on a case-by-case basis. This applies to any Indian association that intends to accept foreign contributions. The provisions in this Act debar political parties, trade unions and their affiliated mass organizations, elected representatives in state and national legislators, judges of various courts, etc. from receiving any foreign contribution. FCRA also places strict standards of financial accounting and audit for organizations receiving foreign contribution (PRIA 2001, Financial Management Service Foundation 2007, Liaison India 2007, Ministry for Overseas Foreign Affairs 2007).

If a foreign donor agency or I/NGO opens a branch office in India, the Indian office needs FCRA registration or prior permission. The foreign funds remain 'foreign' in the hands of the NGO at all time. The foreign origin does not change with transfer of funds from one subsequent receiver to another. Only when the funds are spent or given to individual beneficiaries, they become Indian. Any international organization planning to promote philanthropy in India and intending to establish legal presence there needs to seek permission from the central office of Reserve Bank of India. They have to register themselves also with the Department of Economic Affairs, Ministry of Finance, in case they intend to provide direct grants in India (Financial Management Service Foundation 2007, Liaison India 2007, Ministry for Overseas Foreign Affairs 2007, PRIA 2001).

The foreign funding into India has risen over the years. In fiscal year 2004-2005 the total contribution received was 62.5 billion INR (INR 6,256.68 crore, approx EUR 1.1 billion). Total number of organizations with FCRA registration was 30,321. The Ministry of Home Affairs maintains statistics on the receipt of foreign contribution per state (and union territories), per donor country and per recipient NGO. For instance, during the fiscal year 2004-2005, the largest recipient of foreign contribution was World Vision India, followed by Rural Development Trust (Andhra Pradesh) and Sri Sathya Sai Central Trust (Andhra Pradesh). Among the purposes, the largest amount was received for establishment expenses followed by relief/rehabilitation of victims of natural calamities, and rural development (Financial Management Service Foundation 2007).

2.5 Religion and Caste in India

India is the birthplace of Hinduism and Buddhism. The dominant religion in India today is Hinduism (82%) followed by Islam (12%). 2.5% of population are Christian, 2% Sikh, 0.7% Buddhist and 0.5% Jainist. Zoroastrian faith and Judaism also have followers in India (Daniel 2005).

The caste system in India is part and parcel of Hinduism. The caste system began with the arrival of the Aryans in India around 1500 BC. The Aryans disregarded the local cultures, conquered and took control over regions in north India and pushed the local people southwards or towards the jungles and mountains in north India. The Aryans organized among themselves in three groups (or *Varna*), the warriors (Rajayana, later changed the name to Kshatria), the priests (Brahman) and the farmers and craftsmen (Vaisia). The Brahmans became the leaders of the Aryan society, the priestly class, eligible for learning, teaching and performing sacrifices. The Kshatrias became the warrior class with a duty to provide protection against enemies. The Vaisias were the trading class, trading and providing for the above two classes. The fourth class consisted of locals subdued by the Aryans. They became the servants, Sudras, who would do all menial works for the above three classes, and were not entitled to learn anything. Most of the communities that lived in India before the arrival of the Aryans were integrated in the Sudra class (non-polluting profession) or were made outcast (polluting profession) depending on the professions of these communities (Daniel 2005).

During the British era, lists of Indian communities were made. The British used two terms to describe Indian communities - castes and tribes. Tribes were communities living deep in jungles, forests and mountains away from the main population and also communities who were difficult to define as caste (e.g. thieve communities). All others were in the caste category. The Indian government used these British-made lists to define communities entitled for positive discrimination. The leaders decided that independent India would be a democratic, socialist and secular country. Practicing untouchability or discriminating a person based on his caste is legally forbidden in India (Daniel 2005).

The lower classes consist of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes (OBC). The Scheduled Castes category includes communities who were untouchables. The untouchables call themselves Dalit, meaning depressed. The Scheduled Tribes category includes those communities who did not accept the caste system and preferred to reside in remote forest and jungle regions. They are also known as Adivasi, meaning aboriginals. The third category, Other Backward Classes, includes castes that belong to Sudras and also former untouchables who converted from Hinduism to other religions. These three categories are entitled for positive discrimination, e.g. seats are reserved in universities and jobs provided for them. Percentage reserved varies from state to state. Today, the caste identity has become a subject of political, social and legal interpretation. Communities initially listed as entitled for positive discrimination do not get out of this list even if their social and political conditions improve. Despite positive discrimination, lower castes tend to remain in the lower social order even today (Daniel 2005, Wikipedia 2007).

Hindus from the higher Varnas have remained at the higher levels of Indian society. Hindus from the lower levels of the hierarchy have thought that by converting to Islam or to Christianity they would come out from the Hindu hierarchy system. In many cases they have remained in the same hierarchy level even after they converted. There are 200 million people who belong to the Scheduled Castes, i.e. 20% of Indian population. Among the 25 million Christians in India, 20 million are Dalits who have embraced Christianity in their transition to a new identity. This hope has been realised to some extent. The roots of casteism are deep, and in practice, the Dalits have remained 'Dalits' regardless of religion (Indian Christianity 2007).

3 FINNISH PARTNERSHIP ORGANIZATIONS IN INDIA

3.1 POs in Context

Seven of the ten Finnish Partnership Organizations (POs) channelled Finnish Partnership Agreement Scheme (FPAS) resources to India during 2004-2006. Those seven consist of Fida International (Fida), FinnChurchAid (FCA), the Free Church Federation in Finland (FS), Plan Finland, Save the Children Finland (SCF), Trade Union Solidarity Centre of Finland (SASK) and World Vision Finland (WVF). Table 2 provides a summary of the projects (total 29) they worked with. Full list is attached as Appendix 1.

The projects and programmes fall under the following key themes: child rights, basic education, HIV/AIDS, labour policy and labour management, rural development, community development, environmental conservation, social services, water supply and sanitation, reconstruction and rehabilitation (post disaster). Institutional development and capacity building are shared by most of the PO projects. Women and/or children constitute important target groups for all seven.

Table 2 Summary of projects supported by POs during 2004-2006 in India

Partnership Organization	No of projects	No of partners	Budget range, min-max / project / year, EUR	Programme States
Fida International	6	5	25,000 – 360,000	Andhra Pradesh, Maharastra, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal
FinnChurchAid	1	1	194,000 - 276,000	Orissa, West Bengal
The Free Church Federation of Finland	3	2	6,600 - 51,500	Andhra Pradesh
Plan Finland	5	1	8,196 - 345,346	Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Delhi, Karnataka, Koraput, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttaranchal, Uttar Pradesh
Save the Children	3	9	132,370 - 299,788	Rajasthan
Trade Union Solidarity Centre of Finland	5	8	8,700 – 56,000	Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Delhi, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharastra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal
World Vision Finland	6	1	57,034 – 453,000	Andhra Pradesh, Chattisgarh, Maharastra,

SCF, Plan Finland, WVF and SASK apply a rights-based approach in planning and implementation. Four of the POs are faith-based (Fida, FCA, FS and World Vision) and three are secular (Plan, SCF and SASK). FCA, Plan Finland, SASK and WV Finland operate exclusively through the national subsidiaries or members of the respective international networks. Save the Children implements its country programme in partnership with local NGOs. Fida International and FS work with Faith-Based Organizations (FBO). The number of national NGO or FBO partners varied from two (FS) to nine (SCF) during the period. In this context, a partner is defined as an NGO or FBO that has a contract with the Finnish PO to implement a project or a portion of the project.

For the India country visit activities of Fida International, Save the Children Finland, World Vision Finland and Trade Union Solidarity Centre of Finland were selected for a closer case study and field visit.

These activities and projects reflect some of the pressing development challenges in the Indian context. In chapters below the discussion focuses on these four POs, their partners and projects that the evaluation team visited. The India Country Visit took place during 18 November – 4 December 2007. The team visited six locations in four states, namely Delhi, Rajasthan (Jaipur), Maharastra (Mumbai, Ambegaon) and Andhra Pradesh (Guntur, Machilipatnam). Persons Met and Documents Reviewed are included in Annexes 5 and 6 of the main report.

3.2 Save the Children Finland

Save the Children Finland is part of the international Save the Children Alliance. It has been working in India since 1979, initially sponsoring children, since 1994 with community development projects. SCF established the Country Office in 2004. Up until present time SCF staff has directly managed the activities in India. Save the Children *Bal Raksha Bharat* was registered as a society in 2004 and is expected to receive the FCRA registration soon. Once the registration has been obtained, *Bal Raksha Bharat* will begin implementing and coordinating the activities of SCF and other Save the Children Alliance members in India. The role for SCF's country office in Delhi will change. Besides working as the regional South Asia coordination office, it will provide monitoring inputs to projects with focus on impacts, lessons learned and regional level (South Asia) programme implementation. A special focus is placed on child rights based approach on programming and water. The regional office will also support and provide technical and capacity building support to *Bal Raksha Bharat* and the other Save the Children offices in the countries where SC Finland works.

At present, SCF works in two states, in Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu. In Tamil Nadu SCF implements a humanitarian assistance project (child-centered post-tsunami rehabilitation project) and has recently started an EC-funded child rights project. In Rajasthan, SCF started in 2004 with a Family Upliftment Project (FUP) in one district (Tonk). Simultaneously SCF developed a country strategy (March 2005) that outlines the role and scope of SCF in India in general, and in Rajasthan especially. As part of the strategy formulation process, several planning analyses, such as policy, duty bearer and SWOT analysis were completed. The overall objective of SCF's activities (2006-2007) is "to facilitate an enabling environment for protecting and ensuring rights of girls and boys and promoting overall child development within the community, so that children evolve as confident individuals and mature citizens". The areas of interventions are based on the United Nations Convention of Child and contribute towards achieving the MDG goals of universal education, improving survival and nutrition status of children, empowering women and girls and environmental protection. The interventions support national schemes and programmes, such as Integrated Child Protection Scheme and *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* (Education for All).

During 2006-2007 SCF had three ongoing projects in Rajasthan (Child Survival and Development Project, CSDP, Making Child Rights a Reality for Mining Areas, Mining, and Right of Children to Safe Drinking Water project RCSDW). All were supported by FPAS and developed on the basis of the country strategy. SCF implements projects through nine Rajasthan-based locally registered not for profit organizations. With the exception of one partner, all had previous experience of working with international agencies/organizations and from implementing projects. Through these three projects SCF and its partners are present in 11 districts, 235 villages and worked with over 100,000 children (48,000 girls, 59 000 boys) in Rajasthan.

The project the evaluation team visited, Child Survival and Development Project, builds on FUP, but had expanded geographically to include two more districts. CSDP operates in 145 villages working with approximately 50,000 children. The goal of the project is to promote an environment within the community where children evolve as confident individuals and better citizens. The duty bearers include partner organizations, parents, service providers, community members and government representatives. The main beneficiaries for whom impact should be made, however, are right holders, i.e. the children. SCF works on child rights issues, education and health, which are all very relevant in Rajasthan. CSDP strives to "facilitate an enabling environment" emphasizing an approach where the project's and partner's role is more to advocate for change and support capacity building, and less to deliver services.

Advocacy is an integral part of the programme, consisting of activities such as workshops and seminars, partnership building (with e.g. UNICEF, UNFPA, OXFAM, Catholic Relief Services, World Vision), completing and using the results of research, studies and reviews (e.g. vulnerability analysis, Child Rights Situation Analysis, Causality Analysis, Duty Bearers' Analysis). SCF is also leading the process Convention on the Rights of Child reporting in the state of Rajasthan along with the local partner Prayatn. Setting up school facilities, maternity schools and health centres are examples of service delivery. Those activities will be taken up only if they can be transferred to the government. SCF has placed a prominent emphasis for capacity building of partner organizations and community level stakeholders.

3.3 World Vision Finland

In India, World Vision Finland (WVF) works exclusively with World Vision India (WV India), a partnership office of World Vision International, which began its work in 1962 in Kolkata. World Vision is a Christian humanitarian organization working across India "through development that is community based, sustainable and transformational, emergency response and disaster mitigation, and advocacy initiatives that are grassroots based". It carries out development work in twenty four states, employs around 1,300 staff and works with over 5,000 communities supported by its nine programme monitoring offices. WV India is registered as a society under the Tamil Nadu Societies Act. Its National Office is based in Chennai.

World Vision India's operations are guided by a strategic framework consisting of a country strategy, gender strategy and HIV/AIDS strategy. Its strategic priorities emphasize poverty alleviation and capture all eight MDGs. WV India employs a national level gender coordinator to integrate the gender and development concept into all programmes and projects. Similarly, a national HIV/AIDS coordinator backstops thematic projects and supports mainstreaming of HIV/AIDS into projects. There is a Programme Sector under Advocacy that works on issues such as child protection and gender. WV India works together with government departments for poverty alleviation and it is a member of multiple NGO networks. Community based performance monitoring is rolled out in all the projects and programmes. It is a reflection of the rights based approach. It is perceived as a tool for advocacy and for community empowerment by making the service providers (the government) accountable to the service users (the people).

WVI has some 150 projects under implementation every year. They consist of Area Development Programmes (ADPs), thematic projects (e.g. on HIV/AIDS), disaster relief work and advocacy efforts. Area Development Programme concept is WW India's primary approach to poverty alleviation. ADPs are holistic and multisectoral. They work on providing access to water for drinking and agriculture, access to education and health services, building food security, and household resilience through income generation and access to credit. Each ADP focuses on one geographical area and covers a population of 20,000 to 100,000 people. It is a long-term involvement of 12-15 years in partnership with the civil society and the government. The aim of the ADP is to empower the population so that they can eventually manage their development process themselves, thereby directly impacting the well being of children. Among thematic projects, HIV/AIDS is a key theme. WV Finland is the sole financier of the programmes it supports.

In financial management, WV International provides the IT-software for fund commitments, transfers and financial reporting. LEAP system (Learning through Evaluation with Accountability and Planning) – the system that the projects apply in design, monitoring and reporting - is developed by the World Vision partnership and is coordinated by WV International. World Vision International, however, does not have any role in project planning or management.

The team visited two World Vision projects, the Ambegaon Area Development Programme in Manchar, Pune (Maharastra) and the HIV/AIDS Prevention Programme in Guntur (Andhra Pradesh). The ADP in Ambegaon was initiated in 1995. Despite ample rainfall, the Ambegaon block is an area that suffers from water shortage, both for drinking and irrigation. Rainfed farming is the predominant farming practice, allowing only one crop per year. Over the years the project approach and emphasis has changed from the

welfare to the current development approach. At present, focus is on food security issues (a watershed component was added in 2003), supporting education of children, improving the situation of girls and improving the health status of the villagers through preventive and curative health care. The ADP works in 23 villages, benefiting some 26,000 persons (50.5% female, 49.5% male). Nearly 72% of the villagers belong to the Scheduled Tribes. Agriculture and animal husbandry are the main sources of livelihood. The project has become a sort of a model ADP for the WVF – WV India partnership. Building on lessons learned from Ambegaon, WV India has commenced formulation of four new ADPs with FPAS funding.

The HIV/AIDS Prevention Programme in Guntur started in 2006. The growing number of HIV cases is a major challenge to India. The most productive age group (16-43 years) is also most vulnerable. Andhra Pradesh is one of the states with the highest prevalence rates. The project is implemented in 15 blocks of Guntur district with a total population of 1.1 million people. The programme is designed to combat HIV/AIDS through community participation and to help younger generation to "dream towards a society that can combat HIV/AIDS". The programme aims to mobilize community care and support for people living with HIV/AIDS and reinforce on HIV prevention among vulnerable population through community based interventions and direct services. The activities strategically cover the scope of the prevention to care continuum. Existing government and NGO partnerships and networks will be strengthened to meet the aims and objectives.

3.4 Fida International

Fida International has continuously worked with development projects in India from 1998 onwards. Fida's evangelical activities in India started several decades ago. Projects of Fida are holistic community development programmes, either in rural or urban (slum) setting. They aim to help people by enabling sustainable development and improving living conditions in a comprehensive way. Strengthening the capacity of local partners and empowering them is a stated core approach. The projects are based on training and capacity building of poor rural communities or vulnerable sub-groups in cities. Comprehensive welfare of children, women and youth is emphasized. Integrated community development programmes address issues such as education, HIV/AIDS, gender equality, water, health and sanitation, disabilities, care for orphans and the aged, and the environment.

Fida is in the process of officially registering a liaison office in India. It has had a working arrangement through a Mumbai based NGO (Good News Seva Sangh Trust), also to provide legitimacy for staff. Among the POs visited, Fida is the only one with expatriate staff coordinating projects or providing technical assistance in India. Currently Fida's salaried international staff consists of four expatriate workers: a regional coordinator, project coordinator, gender advisor and project assistant. In addition, three international experts (a micro enterprise advisor and two HIV/AIDS advisors) are available through voluntary or different partnership arrangements. Fida has also hired one national microenteprise adviser. Posting of the regional coordinator to Mumbai in 2002 was a milestone that preceded the identification of the present programme. The Indian Ocean tsunami (in 2004) has also contributed to the geographic expansion.

Fida partners in five states with six FBOs, which are all Pentecostal churches. In the project identification process, availability of interested local partners has been an important criterion. Fida is the main international partner for the Full Gospel Church of India in Andhra Pradesh. The other five churches have other international partnerships too, but in social and development work Fida is possibly the most important one. Fida's vision is to strengthen the partner churches so that they could become legitimate and self-sufficient service providers in social and community development in their localities.

Mumbai Slum Community Development Project (MSCDP, Maharashtra) is part of the Regional Development Programme in India (RDPI). RDPI comprises of four community health education projects that aim at improving living standards of the target communities. The overall objective is to empower partners for effective and result oriented, impact targeted sustainable community development work, which will also contribute for individual partners' vision and goal. Initiated in 2002, MSCDP addresses health, sanitation, education, livelihood, and good living habits of people living in recognized slum

communities with the aim of improving their quality of life. It is run by the Good News Assemblies of God (GA) that is an integral part of South India Assembly of God church. In Mumbai alone GA has around 150 churches, 13 of which participate in the project. MSCDP focuses primarily on women, youth and children. Women and adolescents benefit from training that helps them to learn new income generating and life improving skills. Nursery schools and sponsorship programmes for the children are run, and health checks and medical camps conducted. Hygienic habits for waste disposal and water storage have been promoted. The project has facilitated the formation of Community Health Education (CHE) committees. Each community has a committee, with a total of 70 committee members in 13 communities. Some 150 Community Health Educators have been trained to conduct house visits and interact with the community to spread awareness in health, sanitation and education.

Full Gospel Churches of India (FGCI) in Machilipatnam (Andhra Pradesh) is a registered society. FGCI implements two projects with Fida's support. The Coastal Community Development Programme (CCDP) is an integrated community development programme working with coastal villages (ongoing since 1998). It aims at poverty reduction and improved quality of life by supporting economic activities, healthcare practices, establishment of community organizations and women empowerment programmes. Currently, the CCDP works in 22 villages (fishing, lower caste and tribal). CCDP has succeeded in mobilizing communities to identify their needs and problems and organized them into Community Health Education committees. Trained Community Health Educators (volunteers) conduct house visits to impart training on health and other aspects of community improvement. All school age children go to school, and women have organized themselves into self-help groups. Co-operative labour organizations are promoted and leadership training, income generating and adult functional literacy programmes also take place. Villagers have been encouraged to convert non-productive shrimp ponds into paddy culture to increase food security. Previously CCDP worked in mangrove re-establishment as well. Project closure is planned at the end of current phase in 2009.

Coastal Environment Rehabilitation Programme (CERP, started in 2005) is a spin-off from the CCDP. It was inspired by the protective and life saving function mangrove forests provided to the coastal fishing communities during the 2004 tsunami. CERP started in 2005, and works with three fishing communities (1,920 families), two of which were earlier involved with CCDP. It aims at regenerating mangrove forests and mobilising the villagers to protect the forests. The project organizes the communities into Mangrove Management Committees. These committees are further federated under a Mangrove Protection Federation (a registered entity) to provide sustainability.

The projects have achieved results in service delivery and in strengthening the capacities of community level organizations. It was observed that advocacy and networking with other civil society actors have a minor role in comparison to service delivery. As a new feature for 2007, Fida has developed specific capacity building projects for training the partners and their staff in programme management, gender, micro enterprise development and HIV/AIDS.

3.5 Trade Union Solidarity Centre of Finland (SASK)

The Trade Union Solidarity Centre of Finland, SASK, supports five trade union partners in India. Each partner works with different labour management and labour policy issues. One of them, the Building and Wood Workers International (BWI) is a Global Union Federation grouping free and democratic unions with members in the building, building materials, wood, forestry and allied sectors. BWI works in 130 countries with 350 trade unions and has more than 12 million paid members. In India it has 28 affiliated trade unions with presence in all major states.

The BWI liaison office in New Delhi is responsible for coordinating activities and programmes in India, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh and Pakistan. The office with staff of nine runs currently four projects (child labour, occupational safety and health, gender, trade union education programme) in India and one in Nepal. BWI is moving towards integration of the projects with the ultimate aim of strengthening the unions. BWI's projects apply rights-based approach. They are based on MDGs and core UN Conventions, on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and on various ILO Conventions and Standards.

The Global Coordinator of the SASK partnership is based at the BWI office in Geneva. Oversight to project implementation and management is provided by the Delhi-based Project Director and Project Coordinators. The participating unions in five states implement the activities. There are union coordinators (one in Bihar, one in Uttar Pradesh and one in Punjab) to backstop the unions and/or field organizers who implement the local activities. At the child labour schools, schoolteachers are employed by the unions under the project support to effectively manage the schools.

The mission of BWI is to promote the development of trade unions in the respective sectors throughout the world and to promote and enforce workers rights in the context of sustainable development. Arising from the BWI Strategic Plan for 2006-2009, priority activities include negotiating for sustainable industrial development, organizing a global trade union movement, and campaigning for international solidarity. The SASK-supported Child Worker Education Programme (CWEP) operates within this strategy. Schooling is included as a key pillar included as an instrument for organizing. The project is an important contributor to BWI's agenda on child labour and trade union organizing in India.

The CWEP -project began in 1995 in Punjab and Uttar Pradesh, initially with ILO support. Over the years the project has incorporated more union partners and expanded into other states. Unlike the other projects and partners visited in India, CWEP is funded by several international trade unions. SASK joined the donor pool in 2006 with an annual allocation of EUR 28,000. Dutch organizations FNV and Child-Learn are the other main donors, providing EUR 66,000 and EUR 20,000 respectively in 2007. In addition, Canadian, German and Australian trade union partners fund some activities.

CWEP began on experimental basis with child labour schooling but has now developed into an effective strategy to reach for the workers including the key components of organizing, campaigning, gender awareness, self-help groups and adult literacy. The project has contributed to mitigation of the problem of child labour and has strengthened the unions through better access to their target groups, which has increased their membership. It has also helped the unions to develop better rapport with both the education and labour departments. Some of the unions are represented in committees/boards constituted by the labour/education departments at district or state level, even national levels. The success achieved with the initial three unions implementing the project in Punjab, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar has motivated to replicate the project in Orissa and Tamil Nadu too. From 2007 onwards this concept is replicated in Nepal. BWI has developed a project replication strategy. The strategy provides for criteria and replication process when the project expands to a new area.

3.6 Development Approach

The country programmes of the POs were found to be well in line with the objectives of Finnish development policy and with the government of India's 10th Five-Year Plan. In the following we shall look briefly at some project management and process issues, poverty alleviation, local participation, cooperation with other stakeholders, advocacy, capacity building, monitoring & evaluation and sustainability.

Among the four POs, SASK and SCF are thematically most focused. The portfolio of World Vision India consists of different kinds of interventions of which WV Finland supports Area Development Programmes and HIV/AIDS projects. Conceptually the community development projects of Fida International resemble World Vision's Area Development Programmes, both of them being holistic and multisectoral.

The projects target the poorest sections of the population or most disadvantaged groups. For instance, SCF is working with disadvantaged children in Rajasthan, especially girls who are subject to early marriages, inequality and abuse. Similarly, WV India works directly with rural poor and disadvantaged groups in Ambegaon and with HIV positive persons in Guntur. FIDA's partner in Mumbai targets poor slum residents who are the most vulnerable and living under dismal environmental conditions. Similarly

Fida's projects in Machilipatnam support rural and coastal poor. Also BWI is addressing poverty directly through introduction of self-help groups for income generation.

SCF, WVI and BWI apply rights based approach. Gender issues and gender mainstreaming is implemented differently by the POs. WVI, SCF and the SASK partner BWI have clear cut gender policies with observed positive impact on both programme content and staffing. All four POs collect and use gender disaggregated information. Similar to gender, environment is also reflected in plans and reports. Despite being written into the documents, some of the other themes mentioned as cross-cutting or mainstreamed (e.g. ethnic minorities, culture) did not appear to manifest themselves equally well in the field. This may indicate that the field staff has not fully comprehended them.

The POs and projects support achievement of Millennium Development Goals. Country and programme strategies (e.g. SCF, BWI, WVI) have internalized Millennium Development Goals and they are discussed in project plans and reports. For instance, WVI tracks achievements systematically against MDGs in the regular progress reports.

Advocacy is a key aspect of the Finnish Partnership Agreement Scheme. SASK/BWI and SCF activities have included advocacy activities that go beyond the immediate target community or locality, for SCF Rajasthan wide, and for SASK nationwide. For instance, BWI has been able to meet with the President of India, the Minister of Labour and members of the Planning Commission to advocate for the cause of child labourers.

Partnership building, networking and dialogue take place at different degrees with other CSOs/NGOs and local governments. For example, WV India has established good rapport with district level authorities in Guntur. SCF supports the Rajasthan state government with the mandatory UN Convention of Rights of Child reports. FGCI, Fida's partner in Andhra Pradesh, has developed a good relationship with key local authorities, such as the Block Development Officer and Forest Department staff.

In Fida-supported programmes the majority of resources and inputs are channelled to service delivery and building local community capacities. Different approaches were observed in WV India projects. The Area Development Programme in Ambegaon functions as a service provider and capacity building agent with advocacy efforts taking place only within the immediate project area (block level), whereas the HIV/AIDS project in Guntur also includes a prominent district- and state-level advocacy function. Programmes supported by SCF and SASK were observed to have a balanced approach between service provision, capacity building and advocacy.

Capacity building takes place at two levels: with project stakeholders/beneficiaries and with project partners. PO programmes share a common emphasis on community capacity building. All recognize that a sustainable community organization is a key to a successful and sustainable community development programme. Good examples are WV India's work in Ambegaon and BWI's efforts in organizing Labourers' Education Centres (*Sharmik Shiksha Sansthan*) for child workers in Uttar Pradesh. Without empowered and fully capacitated partner, community level efforts are not effective. SCF partners in Rajasthan specifically mentioned the effective partner capacity building activities. Their newly acquired knowledge and improved skills in e.g. applying rights based approach, together with strengthened project management processes, has helped them to negotiate more projects from the government. One SCF partner was able to attract Oxfam funds thanks to the demonstrated strengths in accounting and enhanced management capacity.
Programmatic approach, both thematic and geographic, was especially well reflected with SCF in Rajasthan. The existing three projects there will be merged into one programme in 2008. Thematically WVF demonstrates the same by concentrating its support on ADPs and HIV/AIDS programmes only. Geographically WV projects are spread out but that does not seem to pose a problem. For technical backstopping and quality assurance, each WV India project has access to both their Chennai-based headquarter advisors and to the respective Programme Monitoring Office staff. Fida International has merged their portfolio of community development programmes (both rural and urban / slum) under a regional concept. Synergies are yet to demonstrate themselves fully, perhaps because the projects are

geographically scattered across India and because each partner still implements their respective projects independently.

The significance of FPAS scheme to Indian partners' overall resources and activities differs a lot. For World Vision India, the number of Finnish-funded projects represents some 4-5% of their annual activities. In 2007, SASK funding for BWI, for two partnership projects, one in India and one in Nepal, constituted 14% of the annual budget. BWI's total contributions in India amounted to INR 2,2 million (approx. EUR 394,000). The team learned that between 25% to 80% of the financial resources of SCF partners in Rajasthan were from FPAS. Fida is possibly the only international organization supporting its Indian partner churches in social and development issues. However, with the exception of FCGI, the churches have other international partnerships for evangelical work. To implement the projects, designated teams that work only for the project were put in place, with staff expenses covered from the project budgets.

Fida's partners and BWI's local union affiliates reported that they mobilize some local co-funding. So far amounts are nominal. For instance, in Fida's Mumbai project approximately INR 51,000 (equals EUR 912) was mobilised last year through church collections and facility use fees. BWI's local affiliates contribute around 25% to 40% for the schooling component of the child labour project. In other instances, in-kind inputs are provided (e.g. by the pastors in Fida's partner churches and the staff of BWI's local affiliate unions). So far the POs do not report these monetary or in-kind inputs as part of their self-financing requirement. SCF predicts a change in their approach once the Save the Children *Bal Raksha Bharat* becomes responsible for implementing the projects. Fida has already put in place a 10% target for local funding during 2007-2010 in India. Increased mobilization of local resources would be a significant indicator of ownership and could enhance chances of sustainability in the long run.

With the exception of BWI, all programmes visited receive funding only from a single source, the Finnish PO. At the moment, it is probable that none of the projects as such would continue if resources from FPAS would not be forthcoming. The national partners of POs are a diverse group. Some partners, but not all, access funding from various domestic schemes, mostly government. Local NGO partners are poised towards attracting an external funding agency for their programmes and activities.

It was observed that projects of all POs have been designed locally, thus meeting local needs. Although each PO applies their own process, the planning has been participatory and the processes have included consultations, local needs assessments and discussions with intended beneficiaries and other stakeholders. All POs apply logical framework approach and have developed comprehensive planning, monitoring and evaluation systems, which are also used. The planning and baseline/monitoring data collection systems of SCF and WVI were perhaps the most elaborate, structured and systematic. In terms of replication, the approach of BWI with criteria and guidelines for replication offers scope for learning to others. Mid-term and final evaluations of projects took place regularly. Evaluation findings and recommendations were also used, for instance when drafting plans for new phases.

Fida and WVF both organize regular coordination and monitoring meetings for the staff of their projects. Fida's project managers meet once a quarter together with the regional coordinator. WVF's meetings take place annually. For example, in 2007 WVF organized a meeting involving Programme Manager and 1-2 staff members from every WVF supported project in India.

Each PO and their partners seem to work without keeping in contact with the other PO partners in India. Thematic networking and partnership building could take place among the circle of Indian partners to learn from each other and possibly increase the impact of the programmes (e.g. Plan, SCF and BWI – education in Rajasthan, WVI and Fida – health in Mumbai, Fida and FinnChurchAid – slum development).

Administratively the FPAS has saved local partners a lot of time and efforts because there is no longer need to produce plans and progress reports in multiple formats. However, because of different financial years the local partners need to produce multiple sets of annual accounts to match with the different fiscal years. Efforts to streamline financial reporting would be welcome. This is in the spirit of the Paris Declaration which both India and Finland have signed.

The Finnish NGO policy provides three aims for NGO cooperation in general. The aims are to achieve the Millennium Development Goals, to strengthen civil society in developing countries and the opportunities for local people to have an impact. All PO programmes contribute towards the achievement of MDGs. The capacity building and advocacy efforts have contributed to strengthening civil society in India at the level of local NGO and FBO partners. However, in terms of strengthening the civil society in its widest form the activities would need rethinking. The civil society movement for development at grass roots is still very weak and the sustainability is doubtful. The POs and their partners have been able to provide benefits for the local people. Forming and strengthening of the grassroots CSOs, such as Village Development Committees, self-help groups, adolescent girls groups, HIV+ groups, women groups, Community Health Education committees and youth clubs, has been a major vehicle for this.

The FPAS modality serves the local/grassroot level stakeholder needs particularly well, because NGOs seem to have 'staying power', i.e. POs do not appear to be in a rush to prematurely close down activities. The FPAS modality allows for evolution of project scope and focus over the years as and when new community needs emerge. It is a flexible instrument.

Appendix: India Country Visit Schedule

Evaluators: Ms Kristiina Mikkola (KM) and Ms Rita Dey (RD)

Day	Date	Location	Activity
1 Sat	17-Nov-07	Kangasala-Helsinki	Travel (KM)
2 Sun	18-Nov-07	Helsinki-Delhi, Kolkata-Delhi	Travel (KM + RD)
3 Mon	19-Nov-07	Delhi, Delhi-Jaipur (Rajasthan)	Meeting with Embassy of Finland Internal team work and planning Travel
4 Tue	20-Nov-07	Delhi-Jaipur	Save the Children Finland (SCF), Child Survival and Development Project: Introduction to the project; familiarisation with goals, strategy and institutional capacity of SCF Visit to Jebabiya village, Piplu Block, Tonk district and discussions with beneficiaries (children, parents, VDC members)
5 Wed	21-Nov-07	Jaipur	Project partner's meeting: familiarisation with their goals, strategy and institutional capacity of SCF partners (URMUL Marusthali Bunkar Vikas Samiti, Gramodaya Samajik Sanstha, Prayatn Sanstha, Gram Vikas Navyuvak Mandal Laporiya, Shiv Shiksha Samiti)
6 Thu	22-Nov-07	Jaipur-Mumbai – Pune-Ambegaon (Maharastra)	Travel International team work, reflection and analysis
7 Fri	23-Nov-07	Ambegaon-Pune	World Vision Finland (WVF), Ambegaon Integrated Food Security Project; familiarisation with goals, strategy and institutional capacity of World Vision India and project team Travel to Pune
8 Sat	24-Nov-07	Pune-Mumbai	Travel to Mumbai Evaluation team internal reflection and analysis; report drafting
9 Sun	25-Nov-07	Mumbai	Fida Intl, Regional Development Programme, Meeting with Fida International staff; familiarisation with goals, strategy and institutional capacity of Fida International in India
10 Mon	26-Nov-07	Mumbai	Fida Intl, Regional Development Programme, Mumbai Slum Community Development Project Slum visits Meeting with Mumbai Slum Community Development Project team and Good News Assembly of God representatives (partner); familiarisation with goals, strategy and institutional capacity of the project partner
11 Tue	27-Nov-07	Mumbai-Hyderabad-Vijayawada – Guntur (Andra Pradesh)	Travel to Guntur

Day	Date	Location	Activity
12 Wed	28-Nov-07	Guntur, GHAP / WVI / Office	WVF, HIV/Aids prevention, treatment and support to aids orphans: Presentation on salient features of project; Interview Checklist and Interview with Core team Brief visit to Drop in Centre in Guntur
13 Thu	29-Nov-07	Sathenapally, Guntur - Machilipatnam	WVF, HIV/Aids prevention, treatment and support to aids orphans Field visit to the project Drop in Centre in Sathenapally,, meeting with beneficiaries – People Living with HIV/AIDS and & Orphan & Vulnerable Children Travel and evaluation team internal reflection and analysis, report drafting
14 Fri	30-Nov-07	Machilipatnam	Fida Intl, Coastal Community Development Programme (CCDP) in Krishna District and Coastal Environment Rehabilitation Programme (CERP): introduction to Full Gospel Church of India and to the projects; familiarisation with goals, strategy and institutional capacity of FGCI Field visit to CCDP project sites
15 Sat	1-Dec-07	Machilipatnam - Vijayawada	Fida Intl, Coastal Community Development programme in Krishna District and Coastal Environment Rehabilitation Programme: Field visit to CERP mangrove nursery and rehabilitation sites, meeting with villagers from Malakayalanka, Polathithippa, PT Palem and KPT Palem and government representatives Travel; Evaluation team internal reflection and analysis, report drafting
16 Sun	2-Dec-07	Vijayawada-Hyderabad-Delhi	Evaluation team internal reflection and analysis, report drafting Travel
17 Mon	3-Dec-07	Delhi	BWI Regional Office, Child Worker Education programme supported by Trade Union Solidarity Centre (SASK) Introduction to the projects; familiarisation with goals, strategy and institutional capacity of BWI (with Regional Coordinator and Child Labour Project Coordinators) Meeting with leader of Uttar Pradesh Gramin Shramik Shiksha Sansthan (one of the union's involved in the implementation of the project), the field perspective
18 Tue	4-Dec-07	Delhi-Helsinki-Kangasala, Delhi-Kolkata	Travel (KM & RD)

ANNEX 3 COUNTRY REPORT OF UGANDA

Pekka Virtanen and *Alice Nankya Ndidde*

1 DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT

1.1 Country Background

Uganda is located astride the Equator between 4° North and 1° South, and stretching from 30° to 35° West. It borders Kenya in the east, Tanzania and Rwanda in the south, the Democratic Republic of Congo in the west and Sudan in the north. It covers a surface area of about 241,500 km^2, of which approximately 15% is open water, 3% permanent wetlands and 9% seasonal wetlands. Uganda's annual population growth rate of 3.4% is higher than the average for sub-Saharan Africa (2.1%), and the population grew from 16.7 million in 1991 to 24.7 million in 2002 (UNDP 2005). Current population is estimated at 29 million, with a population density of 120 persons per km^2 (UBOS 2006). About 88% of the population is rural, and children below 15 years of age account for over 49% of the total. There are 56 recognised ethnic groups and the majority of the population are Christian (Roman Catholic 42%, Protestant 36%, Pentecostal 5%), while Muslims make up 12% of the population (De Coninck 2006).

Administratively Uganda is (since July 2005) divided into 80 districts, which constitute the basic unit of a decentralised government system. Below district there are three administrative units (county, parish and village) and one local government unit (sub-county). Local government councils at district and sub-county levels consist of directly elected representatives and special representatives for persons with disabilities, the youth and women councillors. The latter form one third of the council. The local government councils are corporate bodies with both legislative and executive powers, while administrative unit councils serve as political units to advise on planning and implementation of services. Based on the Local Government Act of 1997, local governments have powers to make policy, regulate delivery of services, formulate development plans based on locally determined priorities, and receive, raise, manage and allocate revenues through approval and execution of own budgets (UNDP 2005).

Since 1986, when the National Resistance Movement (NRM) led by Yoweri Museveni seized power, Uganda has enjoyed relative political stability and has achieved significant social development. In 2006 Uganda held the first multi-party elections for 25 years, in which incumbent President Museveni was re-elected with 59% of the vote (De Coninck 2006).

On the economic front the NRM Government has generally followed the neo-liberal policies prescribed by the Bretton Woods institutions, including macroeconomic stabilisation, market liberalisation, floating exchange rates, removal of trade barriers and the privatisation of public enterprises. The policies have contributed to relatively strong economic growth (6% per annum on average in the 1990s), but also to substantial structural shifts in the economy. Agriculture, which accounted for 68% of the GDP in 1985 now accounts for only 32%, while the share of industry and services have steadily risen. The strong growth helped to reduce the proportion of Ugandans living in absolute poverty from 56% in 1992 to 35% in 2000, even though the proportion rose again to 38% in 2004. However, despite the reduction in the headcount poverty, Uganda remains one of the poorest countries in the world. It is also one of the countries whose ranking on HDI is lower than GDP per capita, suggesting relative failure in translating economic growth into equal gains in welfare (UNDP 2005).

1.2 Social Security Systems

In Uganda, different informal and semi-formal institutions provide the main response to the rising risks and vulnerabilities posed by poverty, unemployment, emergencies and inevitable life-cycle factors as the state does not provide credible social security at the community level. During the last two decades, especially AIDS has created a dramatic new need for social security, especially for orphaned children. The main social security systems include: (i) formal social security schemes targeting the employed; (ii) community groups that serve only group members; (iii) kinship-based solidarity groups encompassing the extended family; and (iv) village residents mutual assistance groups. Most people, including those benefiting from formal social security systems, depend on semi-formal and informal arrangements for their social protection (Kasente et al. 2002).

Uganda's National Social Security Fund, which covers those employers in the formal sector with at least five employees, requires the employer to deduct 5% from the worker's gross wage and add his own contribution of 10% monthly. Large companies such as banks considered capable of making their own social security schemes for their workers are exempted from participation in the fund, while the public sector has its own

pension scheme for government workers. Existing formal social security systems cover only a few percent of mainly urban population and they are said to be plagued with poor management (Kasente et al. 2002).

There are a number of informal social security institutions. The extended family system used to be the most important, but its strength in providing social security has been undermined by modern life styles that are spreading to rural areas, introducing individualistic and market-centred behaviour. Kinship based solidarity groups are, therefore, declining in effectiveness and increasingly limited to specific contingencies, particularly life cycle occasions such as celebrations and deaths. The kinship-based social protection has also been criticised for exploiting women to the benefit of other family members without guaranteeing their own social protection. In some villages there are also residents' mutual assistance groups encompassing all households and based on risk sharing through pooling resources (Kasente et al. 2002).

Following the gradual loosening of the kinship-based systems and given the lack of access to formal social security systems, the poor have developed semi-formal schemes to meet their needs. These usually take the form of mutual aid groups such as burial societies, saving clubs and credit schemes. Such schemes are not recognised by the central government, but they are recognised by local authorities where they operate and are governed by rules agreed upon by their members. There is a high sense of ownership because most members participate in decision making and monitoring of the scheme, but they suffer from weak management capacity and inadequate financial basis. Some INGOs, however, support such community initiatives, especially in capacity building (Kasente et al. 2002).

One of the impacts of the HIV/AIDS epidemic is that, in addition to the immediate impact on those affected, the disease has left an increasing number of orphan children. Traditionally, the care of orphans is taken up by family members such as grandparents. Today these long-established customs are threatened, complicated by the massive number of orphans, psychosocial stress and external factors such as poverty and droughts. There is a large negative impact of receiving foster children not only on households' consumption but also on their capital accumulation in the long-term. Often families are stretched so thin that they can barely care for themselves, let alone care for their orphaned relatives. In many cases communities are organising themselves to try to help meet the needs of families who are caring for orphans in a home environment instead of moving them into an institution (Beard 2007; Deininger et al. 2002).

1.3 The National Poverty Reduction Strategy

Uganda's PRS is called the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP). It constitutes the national planning framework guiding medium-term sector plans and district plans. In 2004 the Government completed a revision of the PEAP for the period 2004/05 through 2007/08. The revised PEAP has five pillars: (i) economic management; (ii) production, competitiveness and incomes; (iii) security, conflict resolution and disaster management; (iv) governance; and (v) human development. It also addresses cross-cutting issues such as gender and fight against HIV/AIDS. The development targets set are broadly in line with the MDGs, some being even more ambitious than the MDGs, while the plan also identifies a results-based approach for their achievement (MFPED 2004).

Uganda has made substantial progress towards achieving some of the MDGs, notably those of primary education and health care. Primary enrolment rates have risen remarkably since 1996, when the Government eliminated school fees. By 2003, 86% of school age children were enrolled in primary school, including most of the children from poor families. The share of girls has increased to 49% of enrolment. Progress has also been made in the health sector, where user fees in public health facilities were abolished in 2001. The proportion of children immunised increased from 41% in 1999 to 89% in 2003. Reduction in the HIV prevalence from 18% in the early 1990s to 6% ten years later is another major achievement (De Coninck 2006). This has also been reflected in the Human Development Index (HDI), which improved from 0.413 in 1995 to 0.502 in 2004 (UNDP 2006). Rapid expansion, however, has also affected the quality of education by raising pupil-teacher and pupil-classroom ratios, while reproductive health services remain a major challenge in the health sector (MFPED 2004).

Poverty in Uganda is unequally distributed geographically: while the proportion of people below the poverty line had decreased to 22% and 31% in the Central and Western regions by 2003, it was 46% and 64% in Eastern and Northern regions (MFPED 2004). The Central region has the highest HDI figure (0.547), followed by Western region (0.487), Eastern region (0.450) and Northern region (0.418) (UNDP 2005). Poverty is also more widespread in rural areas, where 41% of the population lives in poverty than in urban areas, where the figure is only 12%. While the reduction in poverty in the 1990s resulted to a large extent from favourable world prices for a few key commodities which improved the situation of crop farmers, who constitute the majority of the population, recent trends have reversed the situation as the proportion of crop farmers living under the poverty line increased from 39% in 2000 to 50% in 2003 (MFPED 2004). It thus appears that the economic growth is not reflected in the quality of life for the lower income groups, especially the poorest quintile. Increasing inequality is also reflected in Gini coefficients, which hovered around .36 between 1992 and 1998, but increased then rapidly to .43 in 2003. Slowdown in agriculture (except the livestock sector), high population growth rate and continuing insecurity in the north and east have been the main factors behind the negative trend in poverty (UBOS 2003).

Most of the actions included in PEAP are implemented by the executive under guidance of the Parliament. According to the plan, *"the state is responsible for ensuring a basic framework of legality, rights and freedom and intervening in the economy to promote economic efficiency, equity and growth"* (MFPED 2004, p.8). In this context, the plan allocates four general roles to CSOs, namely advocacy (particularly for neglected groups), service delivery (both voluntarily and publicly financed), support to conflict resolution, and independent research on key policy issues (MFPED 2004).

In line with the 1995 Constitution, consultations for the revision of the PEAP in 2004 included government-stakeholder dialogue, which built on existing structures for budget and sector policy formulation. The National Planning Authority (NPA), created in 2002, had a key role in the process. It is composed of central government, local government and stakeholder representatives. Key CSOs participating in the process include the Economic Policy Research Centre (EPRC) and the National NGO Forum. EPRC is an independent research institute which carried out a poverty analysis that fed into the revised PEAP, while the NGO Forum, an umbrella organisation, chaired a PEAP sector revision group on civil society. The PEAP process included two participatory poverty assessments carried out at village level jointly by the central government, civil society organisations and district local governments. The objective of the exercise was to bring the voices and perspectives of poor people into policy formulation, planning and implementation by central and local governments. Until 2002 the assessment was coordinated and implemented by Oxfam GB (Isooba & Ssewakiryanga 2005; World Bank 2006).

The Government benefits from substantial and relatively well coordinated international support for implementing the PEAP. It has signed the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, and development partners in Uganda participate in the Local Development Partner Group chaired by the World Bank. During the last decade budget support to Uganda has increased considerably, amounting to approximately one half of the ODA in 2004/05. There were also seven SWAps in place in 2006. In 2002 external partners agreed with the Government on a common framework for budget support, providing for coordination structures, common disbursement mechanisms and streamlined conditionality. Most major development assistance agencies such as AfDB, the World Bank, EC and DFID have strengthened their presence in the country to better participate in daily decision making (World Bank 2006).

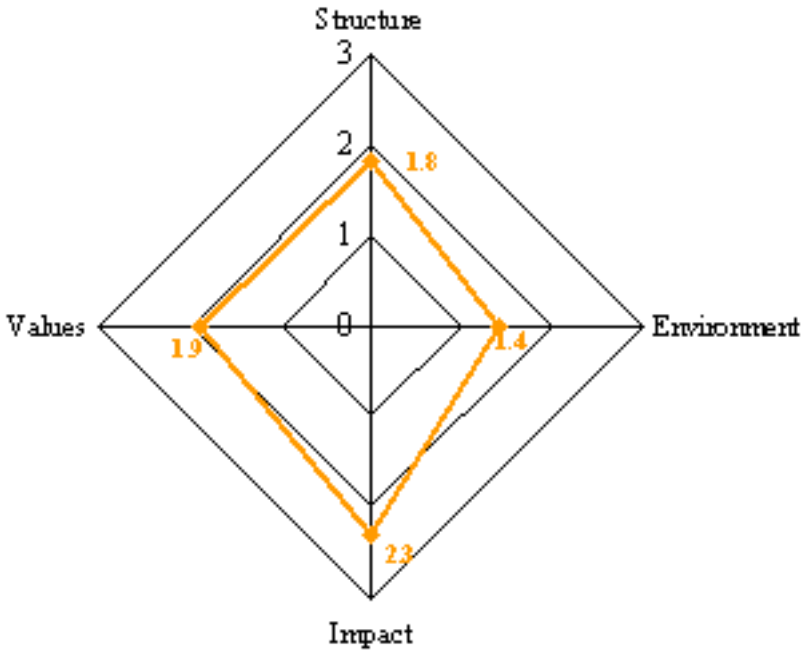
2 CIVIL SOCIETY IN UGANDA

2.1 The Civil Society Index

In this sub-section the state of civil society in Uganda is examined by using the Civil Society Index (CSI) developed by CIVICUS. The original research used 72 indicators to make an assessment on the state of civil society in Uganda. The process included surveys of the general population and development workers, a

review of the literature and how the media reports on civil society, case studies and a national workshop to discuss findings and suggest future actions. This chapter is based on the CIVICUS civil society index report for Uganda (De Coninck 2006). The indicators are divided to four main dimensions: *structure, environment, values* and *impact*. Figure 2.1 below summarises the strengths and weaknesses of Ugandan civil society according to these four dimensions.

Figure 2.1 CIVICUS Civil Society Diamond: Uganda



With a score of 1.8, the *structure dimension* is shown to be rather strong. This is because many Ugandans are involved in civil society and the number and variety of CBOs is high. People belong to many rural community organisations and various other forms of community-level CSOs such as religious organisations and mutual help groups. Volunteering and other community action is also common. Such participation, however, does not translate into active political involvement, as people prefer practical community activities and tend to avoid 'politics'. The depth of participation is also limited due to general poverty, especially concerning charitable giving.

The second level of CSOs is, however, more problematic. This level includes both national and international NGOs with their networks and coalitions, trade unions, professional associations and other urban CSOs. These have broader development agendas and tend to depend on donors instead of contributions from the membership. They often have regular staff, office premises, vehicles and ICT facilities. This level is highly competitive and often divided, and it has been accused of being better accountable to donors than alleged beneficiaries. Overall, CSOs were found to have insufficient skills and experience in policy work, but fared better in service delivery.

The score of the *environment dimension* is 1.4. The relatively low figure reflects the impression that even though political and civil rights, information rights and press freedom are guaranteed in the Constitution of 1995, they are not always respected. Uganda is a very poor country with growing gap between the rich and the poor, and it suffers from widespread corruption. The multi-party system is still recent and there are fears about national unity. Insurgency in the North continued up to current year at great human and economic cost, and the peace remains fragile. Levels of trust, tolerance and public spirit in the society are only

moderate. The legal environment is not very enabling for CSOs because of increasingly tight control of NGOs by state authorities, poor tax environment and adverse Government attitude towards CSO advocacy on issues deemed 'political'.

In Uganda, the relationship between the state and civil society has been characterised by collaboration rather than the 'watchdog' role. This is reflected in the limited political activism in civil society, even though advocacy work is promoted by donors and increasingly accepted as appropriate for CSOs. At the same time the Government, however, is opening new opportunities for CSOs to contract service delivery work. This can reduce even further the ability of CSOs to hold the Government accountable and turn them to quasi business operations.

In terms of the *value dimension* Uganda receives a score of 1.9. Most CSOs are comfortable with poverty eradication as a key value of their work. This corresponds well with their historical role and strong links that especially rural CBOs have with the grassroots. However, while the results show that the public still has relatively much trust in CSOs, there is often a gap between words and action. This gap reduces civil society's moral authority, has been used to justify Government's efforts to regulate the sector more tightly, and can lead donors to be more strict on financial accountability. It also poses the question to what extent CSOs can claim to represent the poor?

A few CSOs suffer from 'personalisation', i.e. dominance by controlling founders who have turned them into private businesses with poor leadership and little participation of ordinary people who are supposed to be the beneficiaries. The situation is also reflected in boundaries between the state, private sector and civil society which are becoming increasingly blurred. Some CSOs (notably NGOs) have become accountable exclusively to donors (or the government in contract work) instead of their constituents, even though recent efforts by the civil society to regulate itself through the NGO Quality Assurance Certification Mechanism provide important opportunities for CSOs to improve their accountability and transparency.

The score for *impact dimension* is rather high 2.3, reflecting activity and relative success in service delivery and citizen's economic and social empowerment. Strengths in service delivery include closeness to beneficiaries, skills and commitment. The success relies also on favourable government policies, donor support available for poverty alleviation and goodwill of the people. Problem areas were identified as project-driven approach, failure to concentrate on the poorest groups and increasing dependence of the partner communities.

Advocacy and policy work were identified as relatively weak areas for CSOs. They have limited credibility and tend to engage only when encouraged by donors. Often they want to complement the work of the Government rather than question it, either because that is their historical role or because they benefit from it e.g. through contract work. Some changes, however, are visible. NGOs are increasingly involved in meetings with donors and the Government on key policy issues such as human rights, basic needs and people's marginalisation. Some networks and coalitions are also becoming effective in providing a collective voice towards policy makers and other powerful stakeholders.

2.2 The Legal Framework

For the purposes of the CIVICUS study quoted above, civil society in Uganda is defined as *"the arena, outside of the family, the state and the market where people associate to advance common interests"* (De Coninck 2006, p. 21). The Development Network of Indigenous Voluntary Associations (DENIVA), one of the main CSO umbrella organisations in Uganda, defines civil society as organisations, organised groups, and/or individuals that come together voluntarily to pursue those interests, values, and purposes usually termed the 'common good'. Both definitions bring out an important aspect of the Ugandan conceptualisation of civil society, which – in addition to formal and institutionalised CSOs - considers informal coalitions and groups. The CIVICUS definition, however, also introduces another important aspect, namely the fact that civil society includes both positive and negative manifestations (De Coninck 2006).

In terms of the legal framework, the 2006 amendment of the NGO registration act introduces an important differentiation between NGOs and CBOs. The original statute defined 'organisation' to which it applies as *" nongovernmental organisation established to provide voluntary services including religious, educational, literary, scientific, social and charitable services to the community or any part thereof"* (Republic of Uganda 1989, section 1). It should be noted that some organisations like the traditional religious institutions of Roman Catholic, Anglican and Muslim denominations, and later all religious groups have declined to recognise this definition and have not registered as NGOs. The amended statute, however, defines further a community based organisation (CBO), which is an organisation *"operating at sub county level and below, whose objective is to promote and advance the well being of its members or the community"* (Republic of Uganda 2006, amendment 7). CBOs are not required to be incorporated under the amended act, but they must instead register with the district administration of the area where they operate.

The Constitution of Uganda (1995) recognises civic associations and NGOs, noting that *"the state shall guarantee and respect the independence of non-governmental organisations which protect and promote human rights."* The NGO Registration Act (1989), on the other hand, created an NGO Board to register and control NGOs. The composition of the Board represents government ministries and in particular the police, internal security agency and external security agency. The act thus reflects the protection of specific, mainly security related, government interests as e.g. the development and welfare ministries are not represented. The certificate of registration of an NGO indicates the registered [i.e. authorised] operations, the geographical regions of activity and the nature of staffing. These provisions restrict NGOs and provide the NGO Board with considerable discretionary powers to control NGOs and to charge them for contravening the registered terms of operations. The Amendment of the NGO Registration Act (2006) provides for annual reports to be submitted, and for operating permits to be issued annually. However, it was noted that for the most part, the NGO Registration Board's powers have been *de jure* rather than *de facto* as the Government does not have the resources to monitor and control NGOs. The conditions of the annual permit are slightly relaxed to allow an NGO to operate for up to three months before the renewal if it has submitted the application. However, it gives the Board powers to technically close any NGO by delaying or denying renewal of the registration permit. It also provides that the Government will draw policy guidelines for CBOs.

2.3 The Challenge of Accountability

CSOs are a diverse group consisting of informal community groups, NGOs, labour unions, professional associations, faith-based organizations, and so forth. They operate at all levels, from the village and county through to national and international levels. In practice they often work in partnership with government for example in delivering public services. Some CSOs are involved in commercial activities, but at least in principle any profit generated through such activities is used to further 'common good' objectives and interests.

Since the mid-1980s, the number of NGOs in Uganda has increased substantially, growing from 160 in 1986 to 4700 in 2003, with more than 90% of the registered ones being local organisations (De Coninck 2005). Most of them offer basic services such as primary health care, education and sanitation. These would normally be the obligation of the state, but were never adequately provided given the country's turbulent post-colonial history and the attendant economic decline affecting the government's capacity to deliver services to the people. Consequently, the workforce in the civil society sector exceeded that of the public sector in 1998 (De Coninck & Kayuki 2005). As most NGOs were thus pressured into dealing with poverty alleviation instead of its eradication, they have adopted a reactive rather than proactive focus (Dicklich 1998).

The situation reflects the Government's vision of CSO roles with focus on service delivery and the provision of information. Many donors, on the other hand, have foisted upon NGOs the role of holding government accountable. A few Ugandan NGOs were established in the 1990s with an advocacy agenda and in this area, NGOs have become multi-purpose, operating in policy advice, advocacy, lobbying and research and monitoring – including a range of activities focused on building up, deepening and

strengthening civil society and democracy. The Government, on the other hand, is observing the move of NGOs to a more politically charged arena with a measure of disquiet (De Coninck 2005; Riddell & al. 1998).

Of recent, the Government appears to express increasing ambiguity with regard to NGOs. While it acknowledges their growing role in poverty alleviation, especially with regard to service delivery, it is concerned with uncontrolled expansion of the sector which is reflected in the proliferation of 'briefcase' NGOs, over-crowding in certain sectors, and NGOs that change overnight their mandate and areas of operation or fail to submit work plans and budgets to district authorities. Such phenomena may reflect lack of integrity vis-à-vis donors and intended beneficiaries, while the authorities are also afraid of NGOs causing division among people or being used for political gains (De Coninck 2006).

Generally, NGOs tend to target the poorer and more remote groups: the overall picture is one of involvement in the less well-off communities. On the other hand, most NGOs - even in the districts - are urban-based or urban oriented. The majority operate in the Central region while the poorer regions (the North and East, cf. Figure 1) are relatively less served by NGOs (Barr et al. 2003).

High formality requirements and costs that serve as criteria for official legitimacy of NGOs tend, at the same time, to act as effective exclusion mechanisms for poorer community members. This often leaves out the people who should in the first place be the reason for the establishment and existence of the organisation. NGO directors are overwhelmingly male and come from the middle class. Human rights and women's organisations, for example, are typically urban-based, have a weak numerical base, narrow social base and a thin geographical coverage. Questions have thus been raised about the legitimacy of NGOs, including their ability to represent the poor (Barr et al. 2003).

Many NGOs are preoccupied with accountability to their donors and their own self-perpetuation rather than with accountability to their would-be constituencies. This has often not come as a matter of choice but rather as a matter of circumstances whereby accountability to the donors turns out to be paramount as compared to being accountable to the beneficiaries (De Coninck 2004). In this context some critical researchers have advocated abandoning traditional project planning and monitoring tools such as logical frameworks, quantified indicators and reports in English in order to reverse the direction of accountability (see e.g. Wallace et al. 2007). However, while the concern is justified, the solution overlooks the fact that all CSOs in developing countries are not operating in good faith, while the concern for accountability towards tax-payers in donor countries is also entirely legitimate.

It is, however, true that competition for donor funding, contracts and recognition among NGOs has fostered self-interest, disunity and a greater distance from common social agenda (De Coninck 2004). But donors have also been instrumental in developing umbrella CSOs and networks, especially in the 1990s. Their recent growth is in part a reflection of CSOs' increasing involvement in advocacy and policy influencing work, where collective action is deemed effective. While the umbrella and network structures suffer from intra- and inter-network competition for funds, limited internal linkages and weak ownership, they have generally improved the capacity of the CSOs and made their voice more audible (De Coninck & Kayuki 2005).

A number of NGOs and NGO networks have developed their own codes of conduct as an attempt to self-regulate the sector. However, implementation has been problematic due to questions about finance and personnel as well as appropriate levels of operation, and in some instances government interference. A recently established voluntary certification mechanism sets out nation-wide principles and standards of behaviour for responsible practices which seek to enhance the credibility and integrity of NGOs operating in the country. The idea is to help civil society to 'clean its own house' in order to avoid crude handling by the Government. The process will develop best practices and ensure continuous learning, help NGOs to better interact with other stakeholders, improve accountability and in the long run, improve central coordination (De Coninck 2005).

3 FINNISH PARTNERSHIP ORGANISATIONS IN UGANDA

3.1 POs in Context

Four of the ten Finnish Partnership Organisations (POs), namely FinnChurchAid, International Solidarity Foundation, Plan Finland and World Vision Finland operate in Uganda under the scheme. Projects supported with funding from the scheme are described in annex 1. The country programmes include many common elements such as community development, support to livelihoods, education and health services, water and sanitation, combat of HIV/AIDS, institutional development and capacity building. Women and children constitute important target groups for all four. These are all well in line with Uganda's development policy. Two of the POs are faith-based (FinnChurchAid and WV Finland), while two are secular (ISF and Plan Finland). In Uganda, where religion has an important role, the religious basis does not appear to constitute a problem, especially as the POs seem to follow strictly the principle of non-discrimination. Rights-based approach is shared – in one form or another – by all four.

Three of the POs, FinnChurchAid, Plan Finland and WV Finland operate exclusively through the national subsidiaries or members of the respective international networks, while ISF implements its country programme in partnership with national NGOs, which numbered three in the period 2004-2006. In each case the national partner organisations receive funding from various, mainly foreign sources, and except for one case (COFCAWE) the activities supported by the POs constitute only one, usually non-dominant source of funding (Table 3.1). There are, however, major differences in the way the PO funding is integrated in the national partner's overall programme. Some, such as FinnChurchAid and ISF provide partial funding for larger projects or sub-projects, while Plan Finland is basically one of the donors for Plan Uganda's overall programme, and finally WV Finland is the sole external donor for the two projects it supports under WV Uganda's programme.

Table 3.1 Sources of funding and staff situation of the Ugandan organisations

Organisation	Staff situation		Budget		
	Total no.	Women %	Total **	PO %	Other %*
UCOBAC (2004-06)	12	58	440	30	17
Plan Uganda (2006-08)	218	39	22,908	5	10
LWF Uganda (2007)	40***	35	5,692	19	16
World Vision Uganda	na	na	na	na	na

* Share of the largest donor excluding the PO; ** 1000 Euro; ***LWF staff in Amuria/Katakwi.

For example UCOBAC, which was ISF's main local partner organisation in Uganda in the period 2004-2006, had 12 staff members and a budget of approximately 440,000 Euro over the three-year period (Table 3.1). Of this, the share of ISF was about 30%, while the second largest donor was the UN Development Fund with about 17% share. The rest of the budget came from eight smaller donors, both local and international. In the case of Plan Uganda, child sponsorships constitute approximately 44% of the budget, private donations and individual donors 17%, and the rest divided between five major bilateral donors including MFA (5%) and CIDA of Canada (10%) as well as other sources such as foundations, special funds and private companies including Nokia. In the case of LWF Uganda the rather incomplete data is for one year only; in 2007 FinnChurchAid was the largest individual donor with a 19% share, followed by the German Diakonie Emergency Aid with 16%.

In the following sub-chapters the Uganda country programmes of the POs or their Ugandan counterpart organisations (in the case of NGO networks) are briefly described.

3.2 FinnChurchAid

In Uganda the FinnChurchAid works through the Lutheran World Federation (LWF), which started humanitarian operations in Uganda in 1979 alongside the Church of Uganda, and launched its own direct implementation three years later. The main geographical focus of programme interventions have been in the drought and conflict affected Karamoja region of eastern Uganda and the refugee and returnee impacted West Nile region in northwest Uganda. Since 1992, it has also implemented a community-based HIV/AIDS project in Rakai, southwest Uganda, which was extended to neighbouring Sembabule District in 2004. Starting from 2002, development activities in Karamoja and Rakai have been transferred to local partner organisations, while LWF Uganda has initiated a new project to assist internally displaced persons (IDPs) in Katakwi District adjoining Karamoja (see Figure 1).

According to the Country Strategy (LWF Uganda 2004), LWF Uganda will target its interventions to two focus groups at community level, namely (i) those displaced (IDPs and refugees) from man-made and natural disasters; and (ii) the marginalised, especially the poorest of the poor and HIV/AIDS affected persons. The strategy consists of the following strategic priority areas:

1. Effective response to the causes and effects of man-made and natural disasters, which seeks to increase the ability of LWF Uganda to respond in a timely and effective manner to basic humanitarian needs arising from disasters; ensure the needs and rights of those affected by disasters are effectively addressed while promoting community participation and self-reliance; and reduce vulnerability through effective disaster preparedness.

2. Build and strengthen the capacity of local partners to empower the disadvantaged and support local development initiatives in a sustainable manner. The focus is on empowerment and sustainable development of the marginalised groups; enhancing the capacity of local partner organisations to facilitate the marginalised to enjoy their full rights; and to enhance the capacity of local partner organisations to develop and maintain organisational sustainability.

3. Disadvantaged communities enabled to advocate for their rights and empowered to contribute effectively to their socio-economic development, which is pursued through support for local communities to advocate for the rights of the marginalised groups; strengthening capacities of local government to advance and protect the rights of the marginalised; and promoting existing initiatives by civil society to advance conflict resolution and peace building in coordination with community efforts.

4. Timely, efficient and effective organisation and programme management ensured, which seeks to enhance human resources of LWF Uganda and its partners; ensure efficient mobilisation and management of resources; improve quality assurance, responsiveness and creativity in project implementation and management; strengthen linkages and practical collaboration in national and regional networks; and strengthen transition to local ownership and governance.

3.3 International Solidarity Foundation

ISF operates in Uganda through local NGOs. According to the implementation plan for 2007-2010, in 2007, one of the projects was implemented in the western part of the country (Mubende, Kiboga and Hoima Districts), one in the south-eastern part (Mayuge), and the site of one project remained open (Kansainvälinen solidaarisuussäätiö 2006). In 2006 an eight-year project to Friend of Children Association (FOCA) in support of street children and potential street children in Kampala was closed. In the west a micro-credit project implemented by Uganda Community Based Association for Child Welfare (UCOBAC) was the latest in a long-term relationship that started in 1994. The Mayuge project was implemented by the Uganda Youth Anti AIDS Association (UYAAS), which was selected as an ISF partner in 2005. The project addressed reproductive health education to school children and their parents with focus on HIV/AIDS, and it was expected to continue to 2009. It was, however, discontinued in early 2007 due to problems in implementation and increasing lack of mutual trust between the organisations (ISF and UYAAS). A new

project with similar objectives but a different local partner (Concern for Children and Women Empowerment - COFCAWE, a new NGO) is currently in its initiation phase in Wakiso District in the Central Region (see Figure 1). While ISF intends to continue activities in the same substance area as the two other projects, the old projects are first evaluated and possible new partners will be identified.

During 2004-2007 the focus of the ISF country programme in Uganda has been eradication of extreme hunger and poverty by developing livelihoods and increasing self-sustainability of communities, including their empowerment through innovative new initiatives. In addition, the programme has sought to enhance gender equality and improve the position of women and young girls especially through training, and strengthen the capacity of partner organisations. The programme includes three development projects, which have three main objectives: (i) *to improve the position of women and children*; (ii) *improve the conditions of children living and working in the streets*; and (iii) *strengthen local partner organisations.* ISF emphasises strengthening local partners in planning and implementation of development projects through training of staff, volunteers and members, as well as training of rural women's groups. Development of the partners' own sources of revenue is also targeted (Kansainvälinen solidaarisuussäätiö 2004).

3.4 Plan Finland

Plan Finland's projects in Uganda are implemented through the national Plan country office. Plan has worked in Uganda since 1993, and in 2004 it worked in four districts in the centre and east of the country, namely Kampala, Luweero, Kamuli and Tororo (see Figure 1). During the current Country Strategic Plan (fiscal years 2004-09) it continues to work in Tororo and Luweero districts where it opens up programmes in other sub-counties. It will also expand its operations in Kamuli, but will phase out its sponsorship programme in capital region (Plan Uganda 2004). The plan consists of four interlinked programmes operating in Plan-supported communities:

1. Protecting girls, boys and their families affected by HIV/AIDS, which seeks to mitigate the effects of the HIV/AIDS pandemic on children and their families. The focus is on enhancing the knowledge, attitudes and practices of adolescents regarding sexuality; increasing adoption of positive reproductive health practices; strengthening prevention of parent-to-child transmission of HIV; improving provision of psycho-social support to people living with HIV/AIDS; and increasing the ability of families affected by HIV/AIDS to cope with child-rearing responsibilities.

2. Empowering girls, boys and their families living in poverty, which seeks to establish an enabling environment for the enhanced protection, care and development of children. The focus is on increasing understanding of children's needs and respect for their rights; strengthening supporting relationships; increasing the capacity of communities to plan and manage child-centred projects and advocate for services; increasing access to financial services; and promoting food security.

3. Strengthening girls, boys and their families health, which focuses on protecting very young children from preventable diseases by reducing malnutrition and improving access to health services; encouraging community-based and -managed approaches to basic health care; increasing access to safe water and adoption of appropriate hygiene and sanitation practices; and increasing participation of children and their communities in decision making on primary health-care issues.

4. Promoting lifelong learning, where the focus is on increasing the access of pre-school children to early childhood care facilities; ensuring that more children complete good quality primary education; promoting female education; equipping children with basic agriculture-related skills; widening available alternatives to formal schooling; improving care of children with disabilities; and increasing participation of children and their communities in decision-making on basic education.

3.5 World Vision Finland

World Vision Finland operates exclusively through WV national offices in the partner countries. World Vision Uganda started in 1986 to assist communities in the "Luwero Triangle" in central Uganda to resettle and rebuild their infrastructure following the 1981-1986 civil war. The initial response was through distribution of relief and resettlement kits, but child sponsorship through two Community Development Projects (CDPs), was started in 1987. Similar activities were started in north-western Uganda. In the early 1990s health and poverty alleviation projects were initiated in western Uganda, while projects to address the HIV/AIDS problems and support orphans in southern Uganda were also started. By 1992, World Vision Uganda had 74 projects. Subsequently a relief project was started in south-western Uganda, and in 1995 a project was initiated in north-east to tackle the effects of cattle rustling and rebellion. Today WV Uganda has projects in 18 districts (World Vision Africa 2007).

WV Uganda operates basically two types of programmes, Area Development Programmes (ADPs) and special projects. ADPs, which operate at sub-county level replaced the smaller (parish-level) CDPs in the mid-1990s. There are currently 45 ADPs in operation including two projects in Mpigi and Tororo districts sponsored fully by WV Finland (see Figure 1). Special projects are typically funded through government grants or partnership contracts with international organisations such as the World Food Programme (WFP). Grant funded programmes include rehabilitation of former abductees in northern Uganda, emergency relief, HIV/AIDS projects such as 'models of learning', projects for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) and micro-enterprise development.

World Vision Uganda ADPs are multi-sectoral and focus on the well-being of children. Through the sponsorship of some 80,000 children, World Vision Uganda is able to provide education support and do developmental activities. These include mobilising communities to improve children's health and nutritional status, constructing and equipping of schools and health centres, training health workers, agricultural training and provision of equipment, improved crop varieties and animal breeds, providing clean water & sanitation, and advocacy work especially on local level. The programmes are rights-based, and their aim is to foster initiative and independence in the partner communities.

3.6 Development Approach

The country programmes of the POs were found to be well in line with the objectives of Finnish development co-operation, including the HIV/AIDS policy which is analysed further below. In the following we shall look briefly at poverty alleviation, gender and environment, local participation and cooperation with other stakeholders, advocacy, and monitoring & evaluation.

In terms of targeting the poorest sections of the population, only one of the Finnish PO supported projects (FinnChurchAid project in Katakwi) is operating in one of the poorest districts (poverty level above 60% in 2002), while four operational districts (Kamuli, Iganga, Mayuge and Tororo) had poverty rates of above 40% in 2002. In the other regions poverty rate was less than 40%, in two less than 20% (Figure 1). While this would seem to indicate that the projects are not effectively targeting the poor, it must be recalled that the four target districts where the poverty level is now below 60%, and three of those below 40% suffered from poverty figures of above 60% in 1992, and even the others (except for Kampala) suffered poverty rates of above 40% (UBOS & ILRI 2007). Inequality is also substantial within districts, and in many cases (e.g. COFCAWE in Wakiso, WV Uganda in Nabuyoga, Tororo) the projects are operating in peripheral/ poor sub-counties or are specifically targeting the poorest sections of the community. For example, Plan Uganda targets its livelihood interventions for improving food security only to those families identified as chronically poor.

All the Ugandan partner organisations articulate gender issues and gender mainstreaming as a core value and a cross-cutting theme at institutional and programme levels. In principle they provide equal opportunities to both male and female candidates in recruitment, which is also shown in relatively high proportion of female

staff – albeit not parity in most cases - at technical level, including leadership positions (Table 3.1). At programme level, gender disaggregated information is recorded and this is reflected in the quarterly and annual reports. Like gender mainstreaming, environmental issues are addressed in all country programmes. LWF and Plan Uganda have developed checklists they use at project design stage and process indicators during the implementation stage and during evaluation. For WV Uganda, environmental impact is integrated in the development indicators. However, while the cross-cutting themes are written into the documents and highlighted by the leadership, in some cases the relevance of environmental and gender issues appear inadequately comprehended by field-level staff.

The counterpart organisations emphasise partnership with other CSOs and local governments in project implementation. Partnership is seen in terms of capacity building, coordination and joint implementation. While primary partners are identified on local level, e.g. the foster children, their families and communities in the case of Plan Uganda, the organisations work with various implementing partners ranging from national and local NGOs, CBOs, research institutes, sectoral ministries and local governments to UN organisations such as WFP and UNICEF.

Advocacy is seen as a key aspect of partnership and LWF Uganda, for example, seeks to strengthen local NGOs/CSOs to work with and exercise democratic pressure upon local government. A general move to rights-based approaches was observed, while especially Plan and World Vision engage in advocacy work with other stakeholders on children's rights. On national level policy engagement is mainly through membership in national and district level networks such as the NGO Forum. One example of joint advocacy is birth registration, where Plan Uganda has joined forces with the Government and other NGOs. Although birth registration is a legal requirement, a functioning registration system does not exist, and for example in 2000, only about 4% of all births in the country were registered. Another particularly Nordic area of concern is disabled persons' access to basic services. It has been estimated that 10% of Ugandan children suffer from disability, but due to lack of resources for special facilities less than 5% of them have access to health and education services.

All three large counterpart organisations in Uganda (LWF, Plan and WV) have a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation system developed on the global network level. The systems include baseline studies and problem identification done jointly with intended beneficiaries, a detailed framework of regular progress and financial reports, regular audits and evaluations. Sustainability, gender and environment are considered in standard monitoring. Evaluations are usually done by independent outside evaluators, although there are some interesting experiments with combined staff/external evaluations such as the LWF country evaluation taking place at the same time as this evaluation. Participatory evaluations regularly involve key stakeholders in assessing the relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability of the project/programme. In addition to serving as a basis for adjusting project plans and/or preparing new projects or possible scaling up, evaluations are used for learning and dissemination. At least in those examples checked (Carter 2004; Odoch 2006), the main comments and recommendations of the evaluations were used in the planning process.

A similar planning and monitoring system based on extensive consultation with participant communities and other stakeholders is also used by the Ugandan partners of ISF, and in the case of COFCAWE the ongoing planning process observed briefly by the team appeared to be participative and thorough. Evaluations are done by external evaluators, and were comprehensive. UYAAS and COFCAWE implemented projects had not been evaluated as they were new. The ISF system is being standardised through a new project management manual (ISF 2007). However, while ISF supported projects have been innovative in specific sectors such as group-based micro-credit for women and psycho-social approach for HIV/AIDS, the partners have not been able to secure their effective documentation and replication. Developing systems to measure and report the cost-effectiveness of selected intervention strategies is another area where all four POs have some distance to cover (cf. Butcher 2003).

4 SPECIAL THEMATIC AREA: HIV/AIDS

4.1 Patterns and Trends of HIV/AIDS in Uganda

Uganda is one of the few African countries where rates of HIV infection have declined, and it is thus seen as a rare example of success in fighting the disease. During the early 1990s, HIV prevalence peaked at around 15% among the adult population, and exceeded 30% among pregnant women in the cities (for whom data is readily available). According to UNAIDS estimates, HIV prevalence had decreased to around 5% by 2001 (Berry & Noble 2007). This figure has, however, been disputed by some NGO sources, and experts tend to agree that the HIV problem may still be much worse than official statistics indicate. Meanwhile, evidence of new infections (incidence) has shown an increase over the last five years with 132,500 new cases estimated in 2005. This includes 25,000 mother-to-child transmissions. Women are infected more than men across the age spectrum from birth to age 45-49 years (60% for women vs. 40% for men) and the gender impacts of the disease are significant. Currently some 6.4% of adults and 0.7% of children are infected with HIV. According to the National HIV & AIDS Strategic Plan (UAC 2007), the number of HIV-positive individuals is likely to increase from 1.1 million in 2006 to about 1.3 million in 2012.

A number of behavioural and economic factors have been identified as drivers of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Uganda. These include individual behaviours influencing risk of sexual transmission such as age at first sex, early marriages, inconsistent or incorrect condom use, multiple partners, alcohol and drug abuse as well as economic factors like poverty (transactional sex). In addition, socio-cultural factors such as changing role of the family, cultural obligations and practices (e.g. polygamy), stigma and discrimination linked to HIV/AIDS and human rights abuses influence relationship risks. Women are often unable to negotiate for safer sex due to lower cultural status, economic dependence and fear of violence. They bear the brunt of caring for sick family members and are more likely to be rejected, expelled from the family home and denied treatment, care and basic human rights (UAC 2007).

4.2 Policy and Legal Framework on HIV/AIDS in Uganda

In Uganda, open and effective government policy backed up by the highest political leadership are credited with helping to bring down HIV prevalence. Uganda's response to AIDS has been characterised by multi-sectoral, multi dimensional and multi-level efforts articulated in specific AIDS policy guidelines and mainstream policies in the social and economic sectors. In 1987, the Government of Uganda recognised that the magnitude and impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic went beyond the domain of health, and cut across all sectors of life. A multi-sectoral approach to the control of AIDS was developed and adopted in 1993 (UAC 1993), and revised later in 1996 to ensure a concerted response. The document defines the role of government in enhancing AIDS control activities as effective programme planning, mobilisation of resources and constant supervision of delivery of AIDS related services. To this end, the Uganda AIDS Commission (UAC) was established in 1992 under the Office of the President. In 2002, UAC established a multi-sectoral HIV/AIDS partnership committee to facilitate participation of all stakeholders in the coordination of the national response. The committee is comprised of sectoral ministries, local governments, the Parliament, INGOs and national NGOs, faith-based organisations, other CBOs such as networks of people living with HIV/AIDS, private sector organisations, research institutions and academia, UN and bilateral donors and representatives of the media (UAC 2007).

A number of sectors have developed important administrative and operational policy guidelines on issues such as mother-to-child transmission, voluntary counselling and testing, antiretroviral therapy, orphans and vulnerable children and condom policy. A draft national HIV/AIDS policy is currently before the Cabinet (UAC 2005). Its objectives include: (i) ensuring coordinated management of the national response to the epidemic; (ii) preventing the transmission of HIV through sexual contact, mother-to child, blood and any other routes; (iii) mitigating the adverse health impact of HIV/AIDS on the infected through appropriate care, support and treatment; (iv) minimising the socio-economic consequences of HIV/AIDS

on the population and promoting involvement of the infected in development efforts; (v) reducing vulnerability to HIV and promoting equal access (including gender-based concerns) to impact mitigation services; and (vi) promoting HIV and AIDS-related research. The policy further mandates all government line ministries to mainstream AIDS activities in their policies and strategies, and the Ministry of Justice to lead the process for following up on proposed legislative measures and review of existing laws to adequately address AIDS related issues in the legal framework.

The sharp decline in HIV incidence in the 1990s is generally attributed to behaviour change. Increased abstinence, a rise in average age of first sex, a reduction in the average number of sexual partners and more frequent use of condoms are likely to have all contributed. However, while levels of sensitisation and awareness are high, strategies to minimise the negative impact of HIV/AIDS have tended to be fairly *ad hoc* and under-documented. Most ministries' interpretation of mainstreaming HIV/AIDS, for example, has been around awareness raising and sensitisation. Uganda begun to offer free ARV medication to people living with HIV in 2004, and two years later around 41% of those in need of treatment were receiving it. Treatment provision is now seen as being one of the best methods of HIV prevention (Berry & Noble 2007; Butcher 2003).

Another controversial policy issue concerns conflicting donor policies. Combating HIV/AIDS receives more funding outside the government budget than any other crosscutting scheme, deriving mostly from the USA (Butcher 2003). A large part of the US funding is being channelled through conservative pro-abstinence or anti-contraceptive organisations which are faith-based, and would like sexual abstinence to be the central pillar of the fight against HIV/AIDS. As this approach contravenes the original broad - and arguably highly successful - official policy, it has created dispute in the Government and many community-based organisations are shifting the emphasis of their prevention programmes to comply with the conservative donor policies. According to critical observers, this is resulting in loss of credibility of the awareness campaign and may cause significant numbers of unnecessary new infections (Berry & Noble 2007).

4.3 Role of CSOs in Uganda's HIV/AIDS Response

The new HIV/AIDS policy requires all government structures at all levels to work with various categories of actors from the non-government sector to plan, implement, monitor and coordinate AIDS activities (UAC 2005). The bulk of the work CSOs currently do is in the area of service delivery especially in the areas of prevention, care and treatment and social support. NGOs possess institutional mechanisms that help to mobilise people affected to support groups which are capable of mitigating HIV/AIDS impact. Much of the prevention work has occurred at grass-roots level, with a multitude of micro-organisations educating their peers, mainly made up of people who are themselves HIV positive. Considerable effort has also been made towards breaking down the stigma associated with AIDS, and there is a high level of HIV/AIDS awareness amongst people generally (Berry & Noble 2007; Jamil & Murrisa 2004). Uganda's success story is thus at least partly attributable to the various NGO and CBO responses in the country (White 2002).

However, while CSOs are spearheading the response to the impacts of HIV/AIDS on rural communities, their work is scattered over a wide area and experiences are not consistently shared. Through partnerships, coalitions and networks CSOs could promote more effective information sharing through exchange of ideas, best practices and lessons learned, mobilisation for coordinated advocacy work, capacity building for CBOs and above all supporting the involvement of people living with and affected by HIV/AIDS (Jamil & Murrisa 2004).

4.4 Partner Organisations' Response to HIV/AIDS Epidemic

All four POs operating in Uganda have included HIV/AIDS as a focus area in their country programmes, and the respective target groups for the interventions can be categorised as vulnerable, most at risk

populations. These include in-school and out-of school children and youth. HIV/AIDS is disproportionately affecting children, especially girls and OVCs. Out of school children and youth, on the other hand, are a 'hard to reach' category and usually left out in the mainstream HIV/AIDS programmes. OVCs are at greater risk in many aspects of life including early initiation to sex. For WV Uganda, Plan Uganda and ISF/COFCAWE the target age is 6 years and above for the in-school children, while LWF in Katakwi focuses on age 12 and above. Targeting young children is supported by several research findings where children as young as six have been reported to be sexually active, and for example an evaluation of the first phase of the Plan Uganda project recommended inclusion of this age group (Odoch 2006). The decision by LWF to focus on age 12 to 24 may need to be revisited as a large proportion of vulnerable children may currently be left out. All POs also target HIV/AIDS affected groups of adults, while LWF in addition targets IDPs because they are very vulnerable to HIV infection. WV Uganda also targets IDPs, but the ADPs supported by Finland are not situated in affected areas.

The POs largely concentrate on service delivery targeting HIV/AIDS prevention, care & treatment and social support. Under prevention, all the four POs implement projects aimed at disseminating HIV/AIDS messages to school-going children, while LWF and ISF/COFCAWE also target their messages to vulnerable out of school youth. School level activities are designed to reinforce the Ministry of Education's programme and the HIV/AIDS prevention messages and sexual education contained in the science subject. At school level, the POs support training of teachers to serve as focal points and work with pupils through thematic clubs. These clubs are responsible for disseminating HIV/AIDS prevention messages through music, dance and drama and peer education. The POs also seek to extend the message to surrounding communities in direct meetings or through the children. The strategy is to strengthen existing structures like training teachers, integrating HIV/AIDS in the existing school syllabus and train selected school children as peer educators. The latter concept has been found to be cost effective and sustainable.

Another service area is care and treatment for the infected and affected, where the POs work with sub-county and district level health structures to increase access to antiretroviral treatment and expand related services such as voluntary counselling and testing, prevention of mother-to-child transmission and home-based care. Capacity building takes place at the level of administration, technical competence and infrastructure, but also in terms of institution development for both local government and CBOs. For example, Plan Uganda has trained over 200 village health teams in Tororo District and has passed them over to the district for deployment. It has also constructed several health centres and staff accommodation, and procured equipment for the heath centres in the same district. While the bulk of the POs' activity on HIV/AIDS focus on service delivery, all of them mention advocacy and lobbying as an important area of their work. A key dimension of capacity building for sustainability is empowering local communities to demand services from government. It is, however, evident that the PO staff at the local level adjust their work to local government structures. Thus they often do what the Government should have done, and avoid challenging the inefficiencies that exist in the system.

Capacity building of local institutions is an important considerations in all four POs' HIV/AIDS interventions. Participation of the community is encouraged at every stage in order to allow it to build sustainable structures that they can own. In the area of nutrition, for example, LWF has trained households in gardening and given an assortment of seeds and seedlings. In addition to improving nutritional status, gardening can generate income for the households to meet other basic needs. Collective action through solidarity groups such as post-test clubs organised by WV Uganda and Plan Uganda has helped many HIV/AIDS affected people to manage stigma and social exclusion, as well as address issues of prevention and control for the benefit of the whole community. In community work emphasis is put on psychosocial support, empowerment, care and mobilisation of material help from different sources. However, in the case of Plan the absence of home-based programme leaves a gap in awareness raising, and it could benefit from lessons learnt in this area by the others.

While the POs have been quite successful in meeting the practical needs of women and girls such as access to health services, education and income generating activities in the context of HIV/AIDS, strategic issues would require more attention in order to change gender relations and empower women and other vulnerable groups. Structural barriers and socio-cultural attitudes and practices in terms of access to and

control over resources, division of labour and decision making need to be addressed more consistently. Widows and orphans, for example, are largely powerless and vulnerable to many kinds of rights abuse.

Another cause for concern, which is also recognised by the POs, is the observation that knowledge does not always translate into behavioural change (Plan Uganda 2004). While school-level HIV/AIDS interventions have improved tremendously the knowledge levels of pupils in the targeted schools, the sexual behaviour of some of the adolescents (especially girls) does not match the exhibited high levels of knowledge. Anecdotal information revealed that some of the girls who were particularly active in the reproductive health-related clubs were the ones practicing unsafe sex, carrying out unsafe abortions, or getting married while still in primary school because of teenage pregnancy. Education, both formal and life skills, is meant to serve as the 'interrupter' of HIV/AIDS transmission, but obviously something needs to be done to address the discrepancy between knowledge and action.

5 CONCLUSIONS

The HIV/AIDS sector discussed above seems to give a relatively accurate picture about the role of the four POs in Uganda. The emphasis of the programmes is on service delivery, largely filling gaps left by the public authorities, while advocacy work is done mostly on local level (district and lower administrative levels) by encouraging local population to change their own habits and to demand for basic social services. On national level, advocacy work takes mainly part through umbrella organisations such as the NGO Forum, or in thematic consultative organs. All four organisations do a fair amount of capacity building, targeting mainly local partner organisations (both NGOs and CBOs) and local authorities. In these areas the POs seem to manage relatively efficien programmes. The approach chosen is also well in line with the role that the Government wants to give to CSOs, i.e. improving the coverage of service delivery and distributing politically neutral information on basic development issues. However, like the recent dispute over correct strategy to fight HIV/AIDS indicates, even ostensibly neutral issues can turn into political controversies.

The increasingly control-oriented line that the Government seems to be taking vis-à-vis CSOs is not likely to affect much the type of activities currently implemented by the POs. Relations between large NGOs belonging to major international networks and the Government seem to be relatively stable, as the former tend to keep low profile in politically contentious issues while providing important development resources to the country. The debates which the Government seems to fear and consequently seeks to impede by controlling the CSO community are linked to controversies over human rights, corruption and other politically sensitive areas, where the POs have not had an active role.

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