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**URBAN GOVERNANCE AND PARTICIPATORY
DEVELOPMENT**



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Preface

Cities have become a fact of life with which we enter the 21st century. In a rapidly urbanizing world, the majority of the ESCWA population (over 60 per cent) will be living in cities by the year 2000. The challenge of urbanization does not only reside in its demographic dimension, but it mostly consists in dealing with and capitalizing on the growing economic, political, social and cultural importance of cities. There are indeed considerable opportunities for improving the quality of urban life in the ESCWA region, whereby citizens can expect their urban environment to be the place where they "live, work and play". This depends on how well the urban environment is managed and how effective urban policies are in improving access to adequate shelter, employment and basic services, as well as a safe and clean environment. Most importantly, the soundness of such policies depends on involving all social actors – local governments, the private sector and civil society organizations – in the urban development process.

In line with the objectives of improving the quality of life in the urban environment, the Human Settlements Section in the Social Development Issues and Policy Division, has emphasized in its work-program for the 1998–1999 biennium, the need to provide adequate shelter for all and sustainable human settlements development. In this perspective urban governance and participatory development emerges as an important issue and represents a core theme of the Human Settlements Section's work-program, which is the subject of the present study.

Hence the paper addresses the issue of urban governance at conceptual, empirical and policy-implication levels. It also discusses how urban governance is articulated in a regional context, drawing on the interplay between the policy environment and the role of state and non-state actors in translating such policies and shaping them at the local level. The present study is a continuation of research work initiated in 1996, assessing community participation in urban upgrading projects in a regional perspective, with case studies from Egypt, Jordan and the West Bank. The aim of both studies is to build up a solid information base on policies and planning tools conducive to fostering a participatory urban development process.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Urban governance poses new challenges to research on and practice of urban planning. Urban governance as a paradigm builds on a dynamic process, shaped by constantly changing variables, and in which the art of planning, resides not in the production of sophisticated plans and designs, but rather in what can be implemented and by whom. Experience from the field in different regions of the world, indicate that planning models cannot be simply treated as technical exercises, based on rational, scientific choices for the "benefit of all" or the general public good - assuming that there is one common public good. There is increasing realization that planning is part and parcel of policy-making; thus, while planners are considered as technical experts, they are also social actors interacting with other stakeholders, in view of shaping the urban environment. As a result, negotiations, alliance building, and modalities of partnership among the different players, takes on a special importance in the planning process, and notably in articulating implementation strategies.

Notions of partnership among the State, the private sector, civil society organizations and donors, present even bigger challenges in terms of rethinking the roles, functions and jurisdictions of stakeholders, when translating policies into plans of action, and addressing the specificity of local situations. This particularly concerns translating development objectives and policy recommendations for strengthening the role of municipalities, into tangible measures and setting performance indicators. Considerable groundwork remains to be done in terms of technical, institutional and financial reforms necessary to enable local actors, including municipalities and community-based organizations to assume more responsibilities, in providing, managing or monitoring the delivery of urban services. What is less clear however, is how such responsibilities are coordinated among the different social actors, i.e. how modalities of partnership are articulated and institutionalized?

This paper addresses the above issues from a regional perspective, and in light of shifting planning paradigm, which has taken place over the past decade. The specificity of the ESCWA region enriches the discussion or even the debate on whether or not decentralization to local authorities is materializing, in view of the strong tradition of a central state characterizing the countries of the region. Thus the paper starts with a conceptual overview of the urban governance paradigm, discussing the disciplinary traditions contributing to its articulation, and highlights some of the conceptual and empirical confusion in dealing with the notion of "urban" as a planning and administrative unit for managing and coordinating urban service delivery.

The paper then reviews the trends in urban development in the ESCWA region, and the pressure - at local, national or international scale - pushing for a decentralized pattern of urban planning and management. It critically reviews the challenges favoring or hindering decentralization, and in both cases shaping its pattern and pace of change. In the discussion, special consideration is given to the relation between central and local government, which is considerably affected by the intervention of donors who fund and/or execute urban development projects and programs on the ground. A number of initiatives in participatory development in the region, are reviewed to illustrate the modalities of a tripartite partnership between the state, civil society and international donors in the urban development process. The cases of Aqaba in Jordan and Choueifat - Hay el-Selloum in Lebanon are discussed in greater details, showing how negotiations evolve among different layers of government and organizations of civil society, with each actor attempting to claim the public space at the local level. The paper then identifies some issues, which policy-makers need to address in formulating plans to strengthen partnerships among local authorities, NGOs and private sector organizations. It concludes with proposals for technical and institutional policy options, conducive to a participatory form of urban governance.

II. URBAN GOVERNANCE: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The debate on governance has dominated the social science discourse for over a decade. At the core of the debate is how to "bring back the State in" while insuring that it is a reformed, transparent and accountable state¹. The emerging literature on governance discusses among other things its conceptual worthiness or elusiveness for the skeptics, the varying and sometimes conflicting definitions or interpretations, its relevance in analyzing different contexts, and its implications on the role of state and non-state actors in public life. Governance has represented a favored subject of inquiry for donors, particularly the World Bank, concerned with ensuring the success of structural adjustment policies. Hence, good governance is often equated with an efficiently performing state and becomes the independent variable for measuring the outcome of structural adjustment programs, including privatization and other economic reform measures².

Being addressed by a wide range of disciplines, a systematic review of the literature may be problematic. However, thematically, it is possible to discuss the concept of governance through three main fields of inquiry: 1. The failure of the state to be a direct provider of public goods and services, as such, making space for the private sector and NGOs to perform a number of public functions more efficiently. 2. Forces of globalization, notably the revolution in information technology and the restructuring of the global economy, and their impact on institutional, social and political dimensions of nation-states. 3. Greater political and social activism displayed by civil society organizations throughout the world, and their call for democratization and participation in public decision making and political life. However, a discussion of each of these themes is beyond the scope of the present paper and has been addressed elsewhere³.

Urban governance is well grounded into the debate outlined above, and its implications on the redefined role of the State, as well as calls for a democratic and participatory process of urban development. In that sense, there is an explicit recognition that cities are a by-product of infinite individual and group initiatives, choices and investments, and as such, government actions cannot be conceived and applied in terms of "controlling mechanisms". State intervention should increasingly be articulated through "influencing" and "monitoring" development in the urban environment⁴. In this perspective, urban management addresses many of the limitations prevailing in the urban planning field, in the 1960s and 1970s, in terms of the bias towards physical planning and design. In particular, urban management, has incorporated economic development and municipal affairs to the conventional practice of land-use planning, in an effort to link planning with the policy-making domain⁵.

Thus, urban management addresses the role of the State in urban development, from the perspective of the planning practitioner, concerned with modes of production, distribution and administration of public services and consequently, with issues of their quality, accessibility and affordability. Urban management has acquired popularity in the mid 1980s, as a response to growing problems associated with rapid urban growth, environmental degradation, and increasing incidence of urban poverty. Along with these changes, a shift towards the locality has emerged accordingly, boosted by planners' concern for feasibility or "the

¹ See Strange and Evans et al. for the argument on the strategic role of the state, in line with the governance paradigm. This perspective departs from the neo-liberalism prevailing in the 1980s, which called for the dismantling of the welfare state. The expanded role of the private sector and civil society organizations in producing and delivering more public services should not supersede the state's functions. They both stress that the state is very much needed as a regulator and in development terms, as an enabler. Its most important function is to ensure the rule of Law.

² For a detailed discussion of the literature on governance, see Roula Majdalani, "The Urban Governance Paradigm: a Concept in the Making?" in S. Shami (ed.) Towards an Ethnography of Governance: Urban Spaces and Actors in the Middle East. Toronto University Press (forthcoming).

³ Ibid.

⁴ See Diana Mitlin, and David Satterthwaite, Cities and Sustainable Development. Background Document, Global Forum '94, Manchester 24th to 28th June 1994, IIED, London, 1994

⁵ Devas, N. and Rakodi, C. Managing Fast Growing Cities. New Approaches to Urban Planning and Management in the Developing World, Longman Group UK, Ltd. 1993. p. 41

manageability" of delivering goods and services for urban population. Consequently, and in an attempt to address problems of deterioration in public service delivery and the quality of life in urban areas, international development agencies and bilateral donors, have reoriented their agendas towards supporting institutional development and capacity building. The Urban Management Program, initiated in 1986, jointly by the World Bank, Habitat and UNDP with support from external agencies, illustrates the rising concern for the manageability of the urban environment. Interestingly, the management and organization structure of this program is undertaken by the private sector.

National governments have, since the late 1970s, been criticized for not being efficient in meeting the pressing demand of rapidly growing urban population for adequate shelter, physical and social infrastructure. Local governments were perceived to provide alternative solutions for addressing urban problems, because they are presumed to be 'closer to the people' and therefore more accountable than national governments. This view represents a central theme of the World Bank urban and local government strategy: "Local government remains the everyday face of the public sector - the level of government where essential public services are delivered to individuals and businesses, and where policy meets the people ... improving development effectiveness, increasing participation of civil society, forging partnerships, and reducing corruption requires closer working relationship with the level of government nearest to the people" (WB, 1999, p. 1-3).

The comparative advantage of local government, in terms of being close to the people, and immune to corruption, is still hypothetical and needs to be established both on conceptual and empirical grounds. Similarly, there is a need for further reflection on whether or not, the city, or an urban locality, can indeed be "managed" in the same way a private sector institution is run. As Stren (1993, p. 135) puts it, introducing administrative and technocratic principles into urban management has "... 'technocratized' the city to the maximum, treating social problems as natural consequences of growth, while avoiding any questions on causes of the problems".

One of the central themes of urban management, which has drawn adepts as well as critics, depending where they stand on the political spectrum, concerns the interface with the 'corporate approach' or 'new wave' management based on a private sector approach and 'the US managerial school'. (Werna, 1995, p.353). As a result, the logic of decentralization and management at the local level, using 'business like' tools in order to enable local authorities to guide urban development becomes paramount.

The transfer of managerial concepts from the private to the public sector may be useful, in terms of improving the efficiency and quality of public services. However, the public sector does not only follow the rules of the market, i.e. maximizing cost-efficiency. Political considerations often dominate and explain various form of public intervention, or thereof the lack of it. The administrative and business-like perspective may leave local authorities with more responsibility without power to implement. Thus, in light of calls for decentralization and empowerment of local authorities, administrative and political reforms should go hand in hand, otherwise, urban managers would have expanded duties, without the political means to achieve them. Indeed, "local governments is not only about service delivery, but about democracy". (Werna: 1995 p. 355).

In that sense urban governance can be considered as attempts to refine of the "urban management" concept, albeit with some conceptual confusions which remain unresolved. Political and social dimensions are built into the dynamics of urban change, and as such add to the administrative and technocratic perspective embedded in earlier approaches to urban planning in terms of master planning or urban management. In that sense, multiple actors intervening on the urban scene are essential parameters of the urban governance model.

Hence, urban governance primarily revolves around partnership, negotiation and conflict resolution among stakeholders as intrinsic functions of the urban planning process. More importantly, the function of planning is not only about allocation and distribution of public services in the most rational way, it is also

and foremost about bargaining over access to resources, where the access to resources and space becomes a contested grounds. Urban governance entails a role for the urban government, in line with the redefined role of the state at national scale. The urban government is expected to monitor urban development, facilitate the distribution and allocation of resources. In sum, urban governance is about localizing the enabling strategy⁶. Hence, the role of community-based organizations as facilitators and mediators has taken on a special significance, and their participation in the process is not just self-help, but rather participation becomes part of community building⁷.

In fact, the rationale for urban governance emerges with different social actors realizing the need for co-operation and coalition building, in order to increase the chances of the city to attract investments from domestic and international sources, which would eventually, boost its income base. Interestingly, cities compete to attract such investments not only by offering viable industrial and commercial locations, reliable infrastructure networks, or financial, institutional and legislative incentives. Competition increasingly revolves around externalities that the urban environment can offer - i.e. providing entertainment, a good quality of life, pleasant environment, safety consideration, distinctive architectural, cultural and historical heritage and education (Harris, 1997).

Up to the early 1980s, national development plans and master plans were considered essential tools for decision making, determining how resources should be organized spatially and across sectors. The urban governance paradigm has capitalized on the importance of decentralization in building up partnership among state and non-state actors. However, the challenge of urban governance is not only in accommodating multiplicity of actors, but also in dealing with different levels and aspects of territoriality and overlapping boundaries: administrative, planning, socio-economic boundaries which do not always tally. Here there is a need to highlight "urban" as an actor in its own respect, which is often misconceived as simply local in scale, as opposed to national or global scale⁸. Cities are affected by events of global nature and negotiations have sometimes to be conducted with multi-national corporation, hence equating local with urban is an oversimplification and even misrepresentation of the issues at stake.

In sum, the above debate has attempted to show that urban governance adds a dynamic perspective in analyzing the capacity of local actors to negotiate and decide over the production, use and allocation of urban resources. Local governments in an urban governance perspective are expected to 'monitor' and 'facilitate', which in real terms entails serious expectations on the part of urban and local governments to perform, and perform efficiently. Ensuring the well-being for urban residents and directing urban economic growth for the benefit of all citizens, in fact means that the urban transition needs to be viewed within the national-level comprehensive development framework (WB, 1999, p. 4). In terms of urban policy options, local governments are expected to "promote effective competition among land developers and service providers; - make local government budgets more transparent, thereby reducing risks of partnership with private sector financiers; - increase channels of information and collaboration among community groups, informal sector operators and local government agencies; - refining policy tools such as targeted subsidies, basic land-use planning, and urban transport management to address social and environmental externalities in the urban economy" (ibid. p.5). Analytical instruments are necessary to support these policy options, such as urban regulatory assessments and policy-relevant urban performance indicators.

A number of assumptions remain to be tested in this respect. First, that local government is more effective than central government, closer to the people and more transparent. The second problematic aspect

⁶ A number of UN programs have attempted to address the local dimension, in terms of access of resources to local communities, impact of development on local actors and participation of community groups in the development process. Such attempts are illustrated in projects like localising agenda 21, local governance, local capacity building, etc.

⁷ John Turner, "An Introductory Perspective" in Bertha Turner (ed.) *Building Community: A Third World Case Book*, Habitat International Coalition, 1988

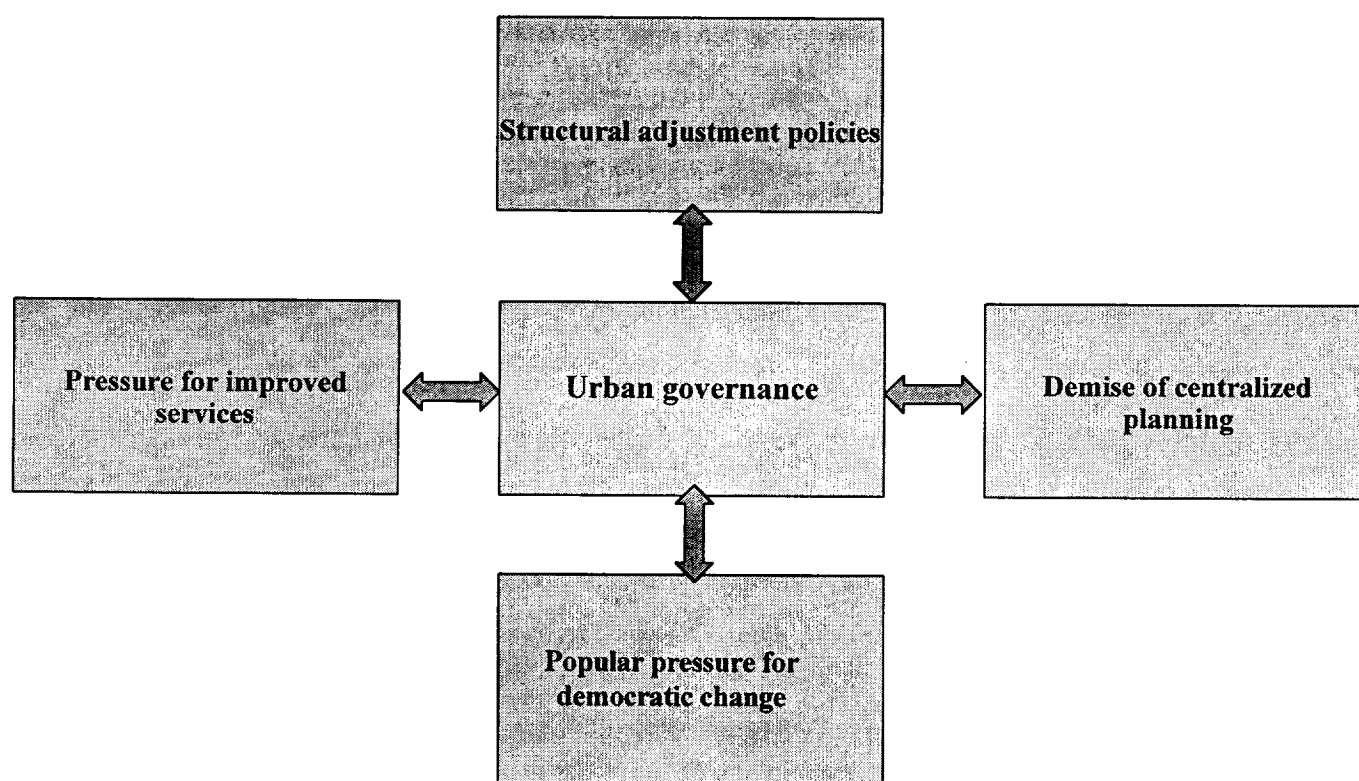
⁸ See Roula Majdalani, "The Urban Governance Paradigm: a Concept in the Making?" in S. Shami (ed.) *Towards an Ethnography of Governance: Urban Spaces and Actors in the Middle East*, Toronto University Press (forthcoming)

of the urban governance paradigm, is that the dismantling of overgrown bureaucracies, is a complex process, and highly politicized. As such, a weakened central government may also be paralleled by local governments, and not vice versa. One important question, which needs to be clarified, is under expanded responsibilities of local government, what happens to equity among localities, particularly if devolution of responsibilities to local level is not matched with expanded resources. These dimensions will be discussed in light of regional experiences or experimentation with urban governance.

III. URBAN GOVERNANCE: REGIONAL DETERMINANTS

This chapter contextualises the urban governance paradigm at a regional level, drawing on specific country experiences to illustrate the transfer of concepts and ideas from a global to a local setting. Despite increasing comparability of situations in a cross-cultural setting, ESCWA still displays regional specificity, in the way urban governance is articulated and translated into policies and practices. Urban governance is a by-product of the urbanization process characterizing the region and consequently shaping its socio-political, economic and environmental determinants. Forces of globalization, which assumes greater mobility of capital, information and technology across national borders, as well as the movement of labor; although the latter remains the least mobile in view of legislation enacted by national governments, either to protect domestic labor or for other political considerations. Globalization has provided an impetus to social movements and actors of civil society in a number of countries in the region, to press for an expanded role in public life. Finally, the planning tools deployed to manage the urban environment reflect these changing conditions and the new roles of social actors intervening in the urban development process. The interplay of the above four considerations can be schematically represented as follows:

Graph 1. Factors Leading to Emergence of Urban Governance in the ESCWA Region



(a) *Urbanization Trends⁹*

By the turn of the century, the majority of the population (over 60 per cent) in the ESCWA countries will be urban. This percentage is considerably higher than the estimated level of urbanization in other developing countries (40.5 per cent) and the world total (47.4 per cent). The fast rate of urbanization, which was at its peak in the late 1960s and early 1970s, has displayed a relatively decreasing rate of increase since the mid 1980s; estimated at around 3.5 per cent in 1995-2000). However, the rate of growth in urban population remains higher than growth rates for both total and rural populations (see table 1 and graph 2).

⁹ A more detailed discussion of the urbanization processes in the ESCWA region is covered in the Survey of Economic and Social Developments in the ESCWA Region, 1998-1999. United Nations, New York, 1999. E/ESCWA/ED/1999/5

However, variations in rates of urbanization among the countries of the ESCWA region are significant on comparative grounds. Thus, Oman and Yemen, which had comparatively low levels of urbanization throughout the 1970s and 1980s, have displayed the fastest rates of urban population growth in the 1990s (over 6 per cent annual rate of change), compared with more moderate rates in other countries. Alternatively, UAE, Lebanon and Kuwait have registered the lowest rates of urban growth among the ESCWA countries, for the same period. These countries also have the highest percentages of urban population, 84 per cent in UAE, 88 per cent in Lebanon and 97 per cent in Kuwait in 1996¹⁰. This suggests that they have reached a relatively higher level of stability in urban population growth, which characterizes advanced stages of urbanization.

The massive flow of population between labour sending and labour absorbing countries in the ESCWA region has generated a whole array of urban related activities at both ends. The 1960s and 1970s witnessed an influx of labour from Jordan, Egypt, Lebanon and Syria into GCC countries, this process has gradually slowed down over the past 15 years, due to a recessionary period in the early 1980s, followed by structural and policy changes in the economies of these countries. Following large scale construction and infrastructure development projects in the early stages of urban expansion in the Gulf, the labour needs in these emerging urban environment consequently shifted to the areas of building maintenance, management and service sector. Increasingly, the Asian labour market provided a cheaper pool of labour to meet these needs. This was further compounded by greater awareness of Gulf countries of the importance of building up national capacity to be actively involved in all aspects of economic activities, for sustainability as well as security objectives. The steady stream of returning labour to their country of origins has generated substantial investments in housing and service sectors; this has notably been the case of Amman, Damascus, Cairo and Sana'a following the Gulf war in 1991.

In addition to prosperous economic conditions reinforcing urbanization in the region, crises and wars, particularly in recent times, have in turn played an important role in shaping urban growth. Thus the ESCWA region has witnessed the displacement of at least 6.5 million Arab nationals in the region either on temporary or long-term basis. The 1990-1992 Gulf crisis alone has accounted for the displacement of 1.994 million across the region. On indicative grounds, Kuwait registered a negative annual rate of growth (-4.50 for the period 1990-1995) while neighboring Saudi Arabia has seen its growth rate drop by more than half to 3.63 per cent for the same period. Hence, urban growth and change should be looked at in the ESCWA region, not only as a function of economic growth, but also in light of displacement and forced migration and their impact on access to housing, employment and services for national, resident and refugee groups in host countries¹¹.

However, it is the qualitative dimension of urbanization in the ESCWA region, which poses the challenges in terms of urban management. In the case of GCC countries, high rates of urbanization have been stimulated both by international and regional migration, in addition to natural increase. Migration in these countries has covered a wide range of skilled and semi-skilled labor, mainly young single males. This characteristic of the migrant population brings to the fore the social and cultural dimensions over that of urbanization in the policy making domain. The challenge lies in safeguarding traditional social and cultural values, while maintaining the cosmopolitan nature of cities like Dubai, Kuwait and Manama.

In countries with more diversified economies, rural to urban migration has been one of the main factors affecting high rates of urbanization, particularly as these countries have observed declining trends in natural population growth in recent years. The urban in-flow of migrants consisted mainly of un-skilled laborers with limited financial resources, and in large numbers that exceeded the absorptive capacity of cities in these countries. This usually leads to a drop in standards of urban services, in terms of public schools, hospitals, safe drinking water, sanitation and recreational facilities. Hence, constraints on public resources highlight the negative aspects of urbanization; urban decay and the spread of informal settlements become

¹⁰ ESCWA estimates for 1996 extrapolated from United Nations Economic and Social Affairs, World Urbanization Prospects, 1996 Revision, New York, 1997.

¹¹ UN-ESCWA, "Overview of Human Settlements Policies and Programmes in the Arab Region" in Proceedings of Regional Expert Group Meeting in Preparation for Habitat II (E/ESCWA/HS/94/2 in Arabic)

familiar features of the urban landscape. Cities like Amman, Beirut, Cairo and Damascus are vivid examples where such conditions prevail, alongside affluent residential neighborhoods, commercial quarters and financial districts, characterizing their dynamic urban economy.

(b) *Urban Management Challenges in Rapidly Growing Cities*

Despite crowded living conditions and a drop in quality of urban service delivery in most large cities in the ESCWA region, their continued growth is indicative of their comparative advantage, over smaller centers and villages. However, in recent years, growth of large cities has not kept the same pace of that prevailing in the 1970s. Cities like Riyadh in Saudi Arabia, Abu Dhabi in United Arab Emirates and Arbil in Iraq, at the height of the oil-boom, in the late 1970s and early 1980s, had average annual growth rates of over 10 per cent in their urban population. These rates have shown a more moderate tendency (around 4 per cent) in the 1990s (see table 2). Alternatively, secondary cities and smaller urban centers have registered higher rates of growth in the 1990s than primate cities (5.13 per cent in Shubra in Egypt, 6.13 per cent in Arbil and 3.32 per cent in Aleppo in Syria).

Urban bias is understandable, considering that cities in the ESCWA region generate employment, or prospects for employment, for new migrants. Urban services, including housing, education, health or recreation, remain of a better quality than those provided, let alone available in rural areas. The discrepancy between urban and rural areas is particularly striking in the case of access to safe drinking water and sanitation (see table 3).

All ESCWA countries have registered considerable improvements in access to infrastructure services over the past twenty-five years. Between 1980 and 1990, ESCWA countries have registered significant expansion and upgrading in their infrastructure networks, particularly in urban areas. Over 90 per cent of the urban population in 1990 had access to safe drinking water, with six countries, mainly GCC countries, achieving 100 per cent rate of delivery. The Republic of Yemen, however, had only 61 per cent of its urban population with direct access to drinking water. While in rural areas, and for the same period, rates were considerably lower; only 30 per cent in the Republic of Yemen, 41 per cent in Iraq and 58 per cent in the Syrian Arab Republic.

Similar conditions characterize access to sanitation, which ranges between 75 and 100 per cent in urban areas. However, in rural areas these rates drop to a low of 26 per cent in Egypt, 32 per cent in Jordan and 40 per cent in Lebanon. Nonetheless, Egypt has registered the most remarkable improvements in urban service delivery between 1980 and 1990. The percentage of urban population with access to sanitation facilities has risen from 45 to 80 per cent over that period. In the case of Iraq, however, it is particularly difficult to explain the fact that only 18 per cent of the population have access to sanitation, considering the high capital investment in infrastructure development and high standard of services provided in the rest of the country for that period. Needless to say that the economic sanctions imposed on Iraq since 1990, has dramatically severed urban services delivery and living conditions in general, in both rural and urban areas.

(c) *NGOs as a Social Actor in Urban Development*

NGOs in the Arab region have experienced a spectacular increase over the past two decades. Estimates on numbers of NGOs in the region are conflicting (to the point of being meaningless in extreme cases), which is partly due to the confusion in defining NGOs, as discussed above. But on indicative grounds, NGOs are estimated to have increased from a total of 70,000 in 1994, to around 120,000 in 1998¹². The expansion in the numbers of NGOs is also coupled with an expanded scope of their operations, budget and members on board (including volunteers and paid staff) i.e. what is known as a scaling-up of NGOs role in development.

¹² Amani Kandill, "The Role of Civil Society: Opportunities and Challenges" in UN-ESCWA Arab Conference on the Implementation of the ICPD program of Action, Beirut, 22-25 September 1998, E/ESCWA/POP/1998/WG.1/12, p.7. The author estimates this number could go up to 150,000, after the NGOs in Algeria and Morocco were added. However, numbers can be misleading, as some countries include diverse types of organizations, including sports clubs, as NGOs.

For example, in Egypt alone, there were some 13,521 NGOs registered with the Ministry of Social Affairs in 1991, i.e. about one NGO for every 1,824 adult population¹³; the number could be much more inflated (around 20,000), if existing non-registered associations are taken into account. NGOs in Jordan, have increased from 112 in 1980 to over 670 in 1996, and have an estimated budget of 10 million Jordanian Dinars a year. About 50 per cent of these operate out of Amman and mobilize some 40,000 volunteers¹⁴. In the West Bank and Gaza, NGOs have, until 1994, filled an important gap, as providers of basic services, in the absence of a legitimate government. More importantly, NGOs as part of a vibrant civil society have maintained the resistance and political mobilization against occupation. In 1996, World Bank sources estimated Palestinian NGOs to be over 1200 in West Bank and Gaza and an additional 200 international NGOs. It is also estimated that NGOs provide over 60 per cent of primary health care, low-income housing and micro-credit facilities¹⁵. Since the PNA took office, the public debate has revolved around the freedom of NGOs to maneuver versus the need for an emerging state to regulate and monitor NGOs activities.

While in Lebanon, NGOs have for long constituted a dynamic sector, and more so, have filled vital social functions at the height of the civil war. There are at present an estimated 5000 NGOs operating in the country, including over 100 working at national scale; they are active in operational projects in the area of income generation, health and social welfare, and providing care for the disabled¹⁶. Since the end of the war, the country has witnessed a substantial increase in advocacy-type NGOs concerned with democracy and human rights issues, sustainability of the environment and gender balance¹⁷. Considering the scale of the devastation from the war, NGOs in Lebanon are still involved in operational projects assisting in local area development, resettlements and reintegration of displaced population.

NGOs in the region are shaped by the political economy framework in which they operate. Their relations with the government, the performance of the private sector and the legal system determine the size of the NGOs sector and its social, political and economic clout. Furthermore, NGOs mirror the dominant development paradigms, in their respective agendas, choice of activities and mode of operations. As in the case of Lebanon, many NGOs established in the late 1980s and early 1990s, in Jordan, Egypt and Palestine, have adopted a pro-active mode of operations, as advocated by development agencies. Thus these NGOs tend to focus on specific issues, such as architectural and cultural heritage, election watch, care for urban street children, training programs and capacity building for grass-roots organizations. They target policy makers and combine advocacy with research and networking functions, are usually based in urban areas, and draw a middle-class constituency.

Except for a few NGOs specializing in the provision of housing and urban development services¹⁸, through technical assistance, operational research, credit facilities, or project implementation, the direct involvement of NGOs in this field has been limited. There are of course numerous community initiatives for house building and service extension, which emerge on ad hoc basis and in response to an emergency or a specific collective housing problem. However, as integrated housing projects, involving external assistance from NGOs, the scope remains limited. One of the main reasons is that, outside the private sector, the state

¹³ Mustafa K. Al-Sayyid, "Civil Society in Egypt?" in Augustus Richard Norton, *Civil Society in the Middle East*, vol. 1. New York, 1995. p. 272.

¹⁴ Roula Majdalani, "The Changing Role of NGOs in Jordan: an Emerging Actor in Development", in *Jordanian*, vol. 12, No 2, pp. 119-135, CERMOC, 1996.

¹⁵ Clark & Balaj, *NGOs in the West Bank and Gaza*, 1996.

¹⁶ See Krayem and J. Titsworth, "State, Society, Sustainable Human Development, Support for Good Governance in Lebanon", Report to UNDP, Beirut, 1995. p.51. Bennett (1995) on the other hand states that the total number of NGOs can reach 10,000, depending on which ones are included in the definition.

¹⁷ ESCWA, *Youth In the Urban Environment in the ESCWA Region*, New York, 1997.

¹⁸ A few examples include: Alme in Lebanon working on appropriate technology in energy and architecture, the Housing Council in Jerusalem, the Friends of Salt in Jordan, working on architectural conservation of the old town, and Community development Services in Cairo, working on urban upgrading in low-income neighborhoods in the city.

has, until very recently, monopolized the social housing and infrastructure sectors, either as direct provider or through the control of policy and institutional mechanisms.

NGOs involvement in the housing sector has mainly consisted in backstopping support to on-going projects, such as income generation projects to secure mortgage repayment for low-income families, environmental awareness campaigns, and maintenance of public spaces in upgrading and sites and services projects. Thus their intervention is mainly as facilitators, to complement the construction process, mobilize community groups into the participation process, particularly when projects are undertaken on cost-recovery basis. In that sense, while NGOs are sought as partners in development, their potential to contribute beyond the execution of the project, has not yet been fully tapped. Very few of these NGOs are called on to take part in setting development priorities, contributing to the planning and design stages and in the monitoring and evaluation of development activities.

Judging from various empirical studies and field observations undertaken in the region, NGOs role in urban development and housing in the region has yielded mixed results. Almost all development projects stipulate that NGOs should be involved as partners, at all stages of project making, particularly when international donors are involved. In reality however, the terms and conditions of the partnership and its value added on the overall outcome of the project, are largely determined by factors inherent into the project conception and design, the social actors involved and the policy environment surrounding the project. These are illustrated subsequently, in the boxes and the two cases studies.

(d) *Urban Planning Responses and the Changing Role of the State*

Urban planning has for long been dominated by the execution of major infrastructure development projects, involving land servicing for urban expansion, extending or upgrading water supply, electricity and sewerage systems. These were in line with the rapid urbanization process, which characterized the early development phases of cities in Gulf countries. They also marked the era of major public work projects undertaken in Jordan, Iraq and Syria, in the 1970s and early 1980s, translating a strong central government commitment to the system of welfare for all. Although these investments were essential to meet the expanding demand for public amenities associated with rapid urbanization; urban services did not in most cases operate with much consideration for maintaining cost-efficiency. Most of these services were operating below their full capacity¹⁹.

The past decade has brought a shift in approach to public service delivery. Services are increasingly provided in piecemeal, in an attempt to contain the growing urban crisis. Provisions are motivated by pressure to meet the needs of growing population, while abiding by cost constraints. The most characteristic feature of the past decade has been an attempted withdrawal of the public sector from direct provision of housing. Since the late 1980s, the structural adjustment policies adopted in countries like Jordan and Egypt have laid the grounds for privatizing housing and some sectors of public services. It is not yet fully clear how these measures are affecting the cost, quality and standards of the service delivered and ultimately the impact on people's living standards and quality of life; however it is worth noting that since the late 1980s urban poverty has increased in these countries²⁰.

Another major feature characterizing human settlements since the early 1990s is the initiation of the reconstruction decade. Large scale reconstruction activities have been undertaken in Beirut, Basra and Fao Iraq and Kuwait city, following the destruction inflicted by wars. Fao and Basra in Iraq were reconstructed in a record-breaking time of three months, although not much consideration was given to achieving quality control or involving the private sector or local communities in these ambitious plans. In the cases of Beirut and Kuwait, major infrastructure development projects have been completed or are underway through the reconstruction process, although the emphasis so far has been on rebuilding of the physical infrastructure, at the expense of investing in social development and institution building²¹. Lebanon for that matter has for the past two years made serious attempt to address these important dimensions of development.

¹⁹ ESCWA, *Overview of Human Settlements*.... Op cit.

²⁰ ESCWA, *Urban Poverty in the ESCWA Region*. 1996.

²¹ Ibid.

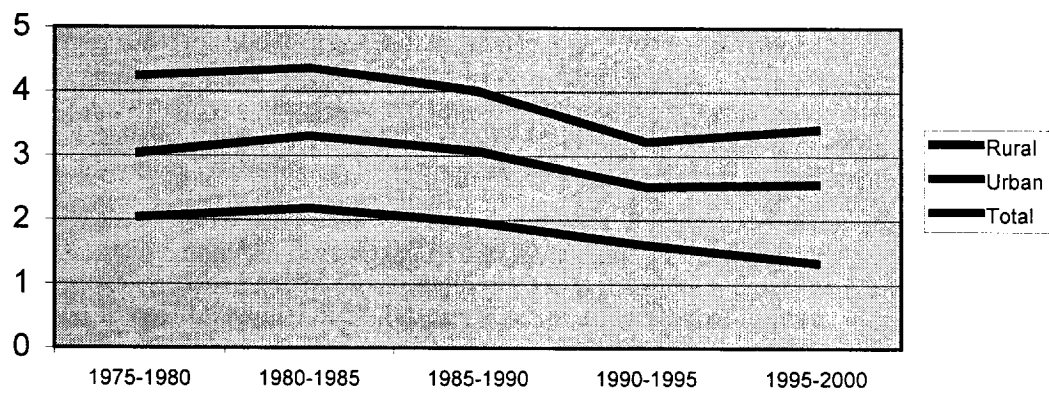
TABLE 1. URBAN POPULATION GROWTH (1960 - 2010) IN THE ESCWA REGION IN THOUSAND

Country/area	1960	% of TP	1965	% of TP	1970	% of TP	1975	% of TP	1980	% of TP	1985	% of TP	1990	% of TP	1995	% of TP	2000	% of TP	2005	% of TP	2010	% of TP
Bahrain	129	82.3	157	82.2	173	78.7	215	79.2	279	80.5	348	84.2	429	87.6	503	90.3	570	92.2	628	93.5	677	94.4
Egypt	10541	37.9	12840	40.7	14894	42.2	16877	43.5	19178	43.8	21833	43.9	24743	43.9	27711	44.6	31297	45.9	35563	47.9	40456	50.4
Iraq	2937	42.9	4040	50.7	5254	56.2	6764	61.4	8523	65.5	10533	68.8	12987	71.8	14975	74.5	17752	76.8	21000	78.7	24441	80.3
Jordan	724	42.7	908	46.3	1162	50.5	1438	55.3	1752	59.9	2455	64.1	2895	68	3834	71.4	4697	74.2	5640	76.5	6628	78.4
Kuwait	201	72.3	366	77.7	579	77.8	844	83.8	1240	90.2	1614	93.8	2054	95.8	2632	87.5	2951	97.6	2146	97.9	2343	98
Lebanon	735	39.6	1064	49.5	1466	59.4	1854	67	1967	73.7	2119	79.4	2151	84.2	2632	87.5	2951	89.7	3224	91.2	3448	92.1
Oman	20	3.5	40	6.4	83	11.4	173	19.6	356	31.5	663	46.5	1109	62.1	1668	75.6	2282	84	2932	88.8	3645	91.4
Qatar	33	72.4	54	76.5	89	79.9	142	82.9	196	85.6	314	87.9	436	89.9	501	91.4	554	92.5	604	93.3	650	93.8
Saudi Arabia	1211	29.7	1858	38.8	2796	48.7	4231	58.4	6325	65.9	9190	72.6	12602	78.5	15111	82.8	18572	85.7	22158	87.7	26008	89
Syrian Arab Republic	1677	36.8	2130	40	2713	43.3	3352	45.1	4066	46.7	5037	48.4	6219	50.2	7417	52.2	8784	54.5	10377	56.9	12170	59.5
UAE	36	40	70	48.6	127	57.2	330	65.4	726	71.5	1193	76.9	1554	80.9	1853	83.8	2099	85.9	2321	87.3	2526	88.1
West Bank & Gaza (*)	207	68.4	260	75.9	282	82.1	342	87	406	90.2	483	92.2	586	93.5	746	94.2	922	94.6	1126	94.9	1370	95.2
Yemen, Republic of	478	9.1	644	11	842	13.3	1147	16.4	1660	20.2	2367	24.4	3350	28.9	5034	33.5	6886	38	9109	42.2	11702	46
ESCWA Region	19751	33.26	27201	38.5	37978	46.9	52766	57.1	76754	65.2	10163	73.7	13115	83.6	17924	92.4	23215	95.3	31878	102.8	41964	104.9
World Total	101703	33.6	118543	35.5	135717	36.7	154278	37.8	175430	39.4	199738	41.2	227955	43.2	257431	45.3	288985	47.4	322705	49.7	358641	52
Developed countries	562521	61.4	625481	64.6	681683	67.6	733287	69.9	772870	71.4	808181	72.5	846002	73.7	877318	74.9	903379	76.1	926515	77.4	949317	78.7
Developing countries	454516	21.5	559949	23.6	675491	25.1	809498	26.7	981438	29.2	118920	31.9	143355	34.7	169699	37.6	198647	40.5	231054	43.5	263709	46.4

Source: ESCWA, Survey of Economic and Social Developments in the ESCWA Region, 1998-1999, United Nations, New York, 1999.

(*) Estimates for Gaza Strip only.

**Graph 2: Average Annual Rate of Change of ESCWA Population
1975-2000**



	1975-1980	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000
Rural	2.04	2.18	1.96	1.61	1.34
Urban	4.24	4.37	4.01	3.22	3.42
Total	3.04	3.31	3.07	2.52	2.56

TABLE 2. GROWTH OF LARGEST CITIES IN SELECTED ESCWA MEMBER COUNTRIES, 1970-75 TO 1995-2000

Country	Cities	(average annual growth rate)									
		1970-1975	1975-1980	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000				
Egypt	Alexandria	2.41	2.36	2.34	2.34	2.34	2.17				
	Cairo	2.62	2.4	2.31	2.31	2.31	2.12				
	Shubra El-Khemia	7.86	6.52	6	6	6	5.13				
Iraq	Arbil	10.29	10.29	10.29	10.29	8.2	6.14				
	Baghdad	5.45	3.51	1.86	1.86	1.42	2.02				
	Mosul	4.19	4.19	4.19	4.19	3.33	3.26				
Jordan	Amman	5.08	4.94	4	4	4.27	4.06				
Kuwait	Kuwait city	4	3.94	2.51	2.92	0	1.71				
Lebanon	Beirut	2.66	2.66	2.66	2.66	2.86	2.4				
	Jeddah	10.36	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.09	3.88				
	Mecca	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.75	3.18	3.38				
Saudi Arabia	Riyadh	10.95	6.87	6.87	6.87	5.65	4.79				
	Aleppo	3.95	3.95	3.69	3.61	3.53	3.32				
	Damascus	4.11	4.08	2.82	2.43	2.58	2.75				
UAE	Abu Dhabi	11.78	11.78	11.78	8.15	4.97	2.97				

Source: ESCWA, Survey of Economic and Social Developments in the ESCWA Region, 1998-1999, United Nations, New York, 1999.

TABLE 3. URBAN - RURAL GAP IN SERVICE DELIVERY FOR ESCWA COUNTRIES

Country	Access to safe drinking water						Access to sanitation services					
	Total	Urban		Rural		Total	Urban		Rural		Total	1990
	1980	1990	1980	1990	1980	1980	1980	1990	1980	1990	1980	1990
Bahrain	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Egypt	75	69	88	95	86	26	45	31	80	10	26	26
Iraq	69	78	92	93	41	66	90	72	96	15	18	18
Jordan	89	99	100	100	97	76	94	100	100	34	32	32
Kuwait	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	98	100	100	100	100
Lebanon	93	92	95	95	85	76	94	18
Oman	15	84	70	91	10	30	60	71	75	25	40	40
Qatar	92	91	98	100	50	...	70	97	100	...	85	85
Saudi Arabia	91	95	92	100	87	76	81	86	100	50	30	30
Syrian Arab Republic	71	74	98	90	54	45	74	83	84	28	82	82
United Arab Emirates	93	95	95	100	81	86	93	77	93	22	22	22
Yemen, Republic of	...	36	...	61	65	...	87	...	60

Source: United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat), An Urbanizing World Global Report on Human Settlements 1996, p.512, 513.

Note : ... Data not available.

IV. INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND THE EMERGING ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN THE ESCWA REGION

Institutional development has dominated development agendas in the last two decades, as it has become increasingly evident that plans cannot be effectively implemented, unless the institutional set-up is efficiently functioning. More importantly, it has become necessary to ensure that local institutions can undertake follow-up and maintenance once development projects are completed, usually referred to as BOT. Institutional development, particularly in the context of the ESCWA region where there is a strong tradition of control from the central state, concerns primarily moves towards decentralization of administrative, financial and decision-making functions to local governments. In that sense, the increasing public interest and debate on the role of municipalities as agents of change for local democracy should be addressed in this perspective.

Hence, this chapter reviews progress made towards institutional development, at three levels. At the macro level, the chapter discusses the topical concern of national governments in the region to introduce some form of decentralization policies, usually in administrative functions, and much less in political power-sharing; or financial policies. At the urban scale, the discussion focuses on the functions and responsibilities of municipalities as the "assumed" accountable form of government²². While at the micro level, "so-called" local participatory development initiatives, often labeled as "best-practices" are discussed, in view of establishing whether such attempts can institutionalize participatory modes of urban development between the municipalities and civil society actors.

(a) *Decentralization process*

All countries in the region have some form of devolution or deconcentration of administrative functions to regional/ sub-regional and local levels. Most notably, it is through the system of governorate (or "muhafaza") as the decentralized body of national governments.

Thus ESCWA countries have embarked on measures of decentralization, which range from devolution of power, deconcentration and at a higher level, decentralization (see glossary). A review of selected country experiences reveals that legislation has been in place, or under revision concerning the decentralization process. Egypt's 1989 Law has addressed the issue of empowering local government as a form of efficient delivery of public services at a local level. Lebanon is at the stage of a proposed Law for decentralization, at the core of which is municipal reform. Lebanon illustrates the complexities of articulating a decentralization policy which leads to effective decision-making power for local authorities. More importantly, the case of Lebanon illustrates the dilemma facing most central governments in the region, where the debate becomes polarized between divesting political, financial and administrative/ legislative power on the one hand, and on the other hand, deciding whether or not to compromise on the question of authority, integration and synergy and consequently regional and intra-urban equity.

In Yemen, the Muhafaza, also known as liwa, were 11 in 1976, followed by qada or sub-provinces, (40), centred on major cities or government centres; districts or "nahiyah" centred on towns within the jurisdiction of cities, up to uzla, qaryat, mahall or hamlet. The district (nahyiah) is the lowest level to which a direct representative of central government is appointed. The functions of the "mudir al-nahiyah" is to settle disputes, oversee tax collection, and co-ordinate the activities of ministerial field agents and local development councils. "ideally, the mudir has the cadre of national police to aid in the enforcing of his decisions. In fact, these are not always available and he must rely on local tribes to supply him with police"²³. In parallel to the administrative/ bureaucratic structure, the socio-cultural structure in Yemen offers an interesting perspective on a bottom-up, co-operative approach to addressing needs in basic services.

²² Municipalities and local governments are used interchangeably. While there might be fine administrative and legal distinctions in this regard, however, an operational definition is adopted, based on the literature in the region (see glossary) which uses these terms interchangeably, to mean the most "decentralised" unit of national government at the local level.

²³ P. 11. (E/ESCWA/AGR/87/4).

The formal description of local government disguises the extensive variations in activities undertaken, performance, technical and political resources, among central and local government in the country. However, one clear pattern cutting through all of them, is that it is largely confined to law, order and collection, as well as the task of administering the governorate capital municipalities. Beyond this, the government has only the capacity to build major roads, maintain communication links between governorate capitals and the centre, construct and possibly staff health and education facilities in the larger towns, and facilitate some agricultural and rural development programmes and projects, with the help of donors.

Finally, decentralization depends not only on the initiative of central governments to transfer functions and responsibilities to local governments, which is usually known in public administration terminology as “de-concentration” of power. It also and mainly depends on the ability of local authorities to articulate their expectations and demands, regarding what decentralization actually entails. In fact the main challenge of redefining the roles of local actors under the urban governance paradigm, is finding complementarity, compromises and ideally effective partnership among local governments, private sector and civil society organizations.

(b) *Stakeholders and modes of partnership in urban development*

Since the mid-1990s, all countries in the ESCWA region have initiated human settlements strategies in preparation for Habitat II, held in Istanbul in 1996 and for the follow-up phase. These strategies stress the importance of finding innovative means to tap new resources, for the upgrading and maintenance of the urban infrastructure, at the local level. In practical terms however, such options often remain limited in middle and lower income countries of the region, particularly outside the capital or major cities. In a number of urban upgrading projects in the region, community groups have willingly participated in upgrading activities, notably in the West Bank, Jordan, Egypt. This has usually involved voluntary work, clean up or public awareness campaigns in selected project sites.

However, the mechanisms for follow-up and monitoring the implementation of these strategies are, in most cases, not yet well, elaborated. There are still gaps in information required to accurately assess changes in the situation at a disaggregate level, particularly in terms of housing and infrastructure services. The sharing of responsibilities for follow-up among the different partners needs to be well elaborated in order to avoid confusion and overlap. Except for GCC countries, most plans of action remain highly dependent on external sources of funding, which are not reliable, particularly on an on-going basis.

In recent years, and in an attempt to capitalize on successful participatory initiatives, “best practices” has become an important tool for disseminating information on localized experiences, as a learning tool. However, it is important to be aware of the limitations of using “best practices”, in terms of standardizing information and finding common grounds for comparability. More importantly, while adding valuable field information, this methodology remains descriptive, and opens limited scope for analyzing the factors, which would be conducive for institutionalizing a participatory pilot project, as the following cases illustrate.

²⁴ ESCWA, *Community Participation In Urban Upgrading Projects in the ESCWA Region*. New York, 1997

Box 1. Ismailia Sustainable Development (SIP)

*** *Project setting***

Ismailia was strongly affected by two wars (1967 and 1973) and displacement. The return of its original inhabitants, compounded by the influx of migrants from other governorates, resulted in an extremely high population growth. Given these conditions, Ismailia needed to reconstruct destroyed houses and to upgrade informal settlements. Since 1976, with assistance from ODA, UNDP and Habitat, a number of development projects were undertaken; SIP was the most recent initiated in 1990 addressing upgrading of settlements, land development, provision of infrastructure, construction of houses and institutional capacity building. A distinctive feature of these projects is their commitment to a participatory approach, involving the community, NGOs and local authorities. The projects were initiated by the Governorate and assisted by ODA and UNDP. Due to the participatory approach of the project, it was implemented in cooperation and participation of the community.

*** *Project components***

Main emphasis of the SIP is sustainable environmental planning, and includes cleaning up of lakes, treating sewage and expanding green areas as well as tourism and agriculture. Upgrading of housing and infrastructure remains an ongoing activity of SIP in Ismailia, as well as garbage recycling and extension of green areas.

*** *Modes of Partnership and Participation***

SIP is funded by UNDP and Habitat and initiated in the framework of the global Sustainable Cities Programme. SIP could build on previous experience with upgrading projects – based upon bottom-up participatory approach for incremental environment planning and management - and revive neighborhood committees through the establishing of interdisciplinary working group meetings, seminars and drafting sessions, which would discuss and set the development priorities and plans for implementation. The WGs were made up of representatives and officials from neighborhood associations, NGOs and private sector institutions.

*** *Projects impact***

In the first period, communication and coordination between the parties involved in the projects were institutionalized and planning decentralized with a District Planning Board managing land transactions and coordinating the planning activities of semi-autonomous neighborhood agencies. For SIP, although successful and most planned activities were implemented, community participation did not reach the level of the earlier period, due to centralization measures taken by the Egyptian government. However, the WGs became the institutional channels for discussion with different actors of all planning, financial and legislative issues related to the upgrading process. The projects were capable of generating considerable local resources indicating the acceptance and willingness of the beneficiaries to participate. Unfortunately, the WGs and neighborhood associations, which attracted donors and extended the scale of the projects at the early stage of SIP, could not be absorbed into the institutional structure in the later period.

Added market value of the improved housing units as a result of the upgrading and improvement of the infrastructure strengthened the willing of the inhabitants in participation. An unexpected by-product of the SIP was the emergence of new informal settlements and real estate speculation that inhabitants indulged in, expecting that upgrading would follow.

Source: ESCWA, 1997, Community Participation in Urban Development in the ESCWA Region: 16-22.

Box 2. Nablus integrated urban development

*** Background**

Nablus District is composed of three municipalities and 99 rural communities. Since about 75% of these do not have formal administrative structures, many urban services have to be delivered by local village councils or planning committees, often on an ad-hoc basis. Half of all rural communities either have no water supply or their network needs replacement, garbage collection and disposal is in most communities not existent or insufficient.

Nablus has witnessed a number of upgrading projects since the initiation of autonomy in 1994. These included maintenance and extension of hospitals and educational institutions, drainage projects, and upgrading and maintenance of the water network. Due to the large number of donors and implementing institutions, projects differ in their application of standards, agendas of donors, and procedures of cost sharing between the beneficiaries and implementing institutions. Since 1994 Nablus municipality has been trying to streamline donors' contributions by setting priority projects for them, negotiating terms of contracts, monitoring procedures and administration of resources disbursed. This has not been an easy task for the Municipality.

*** Mode of partnership and participation**

Large-scale infrastructure projects were funded and implemented by UNDP, GTZ and PECNDAR in cooperation with Nablus Municipality and UNRWA. Many projects were executed by donors as turnkey projects, due to the urgent need of a fast upgrading of the infrastructure. The municipality perceives the role of NGOs in the area of advocacy rather than as service providers. A Save the Children Federation Project (SCF) that was built on a community-based participatory approach presents an alternative for integrated upgrading projects in Nablus city and the surrounding villages.

*** Project's impact**

A reduction of water losses by new pipes was reached, all urban households are connected to save water and a general improvement of the infrastructure in Nablus and its surroundings was reported. Small-scale projects were conducted with the participation of local and international NGOs (i.e. Save the Children) and CBOs. These include environment awareness campaigns, and on the physical level, providing of sub-surface drainage facilities, transforming garbage dumps into multi purpose playing fields as well as giving grants for small sanitation projects in schools, provided on a share basis. Joint committees, which included children in the 9-13 age group, were set up to act as pressure group on policy makers. However, the implementation of physical upgrading was discontinued in 1996 following restructuring in the Municipality. Due to the enormous number of different donors and implementing institutions, there seems to be a crucial need for future projects of building up the technical, managerial and financial capacity of public institutions in the emerging PNA, particularly at the municipal level. Especially the Nablus Municipality can play more effectively the role of a central coordinator in cooperation with local NGOs.

Source: ESCWA, 1997, Community Participation in Urban Development in the ESCWA Region pp. 22-28.

Box 3. Upgrading and Preservation of the Old City of Aleppo

*** Background**

New districts, adopting western models of city planning, were built around the Old City in the end of the 19th century, resulting in a movement of Aleppo's Old City inhabitants to the modern quarters and its dilapidation. In the early 1950s, a new masterplan imposed major roads inside the historic city, causing serious damage to building substance, dividing and isolating entire neighborhoods, and disturbing the integrity and privacy of the affected areas. Due to a lack of financial resources of the Municipality, no efforts were undertaken to upgrade, modernize or improve the living conditions inside the Old City, continuing the exodus of its inhabitants.

*** Project components**

The project aims at halting the deterioration of Old City's residential zone by mobilizing economic and social resources in the city. The municipality initiated some upgrading initiatives to improve the living standards in the courtyard homes within selected neighborhoods. It was adopted as an integrated approach, that includes all relevant economic, social, technical and institutional aspects into a comprehensive planning and implementation process aiming at upgrading public and private services by adopting proper planning and building regulations.

*** Mode of partnership and participation**

Negative impacts of the master plan became soon obvious leading to an increased public and private awareness. Local committees made up of municipality and neighborhood associations were established to advise and suggest actions directed to preservation of the Old City, while UNESCO listed the Old City as a World Heritage Site. The Municipality of Aleppo initiated the upgrading project in 1992 and set up an office and committee to supervise the project. The German government through the German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ) is the counterpart and sponsor, the Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development the cosponsor. Planning measures were developed with a high range of participatory efforts.

*** Project's impact**

The development plan has been finalized, including the map of new land use, as well as the technical infrastructure and transport plan. Areas have been identified for economic activities and social improvement in general, and demarcation of areas to analyze the potential of tourism as contributor to the rehabilitation efforts. First upgrading measures for the infrastructure - electricity and sewage system - have been partially completed, as well as emergency help and loans for low-income residents to protect their houses from collapse have been given. To guarantee the sustainability, self-reliance and continuation of the upgrading measures, reform in the administrative and legislative framework including planning regulations should be initiated. This includes concentrating on training of city staff and local experts and increased integration of local and international organizations and donors, as well as the community of the Old City and the business community in particular.

Source: GTZ, 1997, Old City of Aleppo – A Changing Process Influenced.

Box 4. The Reconstruction of Beirut Central Business District (CBD)

*** Background**

The reconstruction of Beirut central business district was initiated in 1991 financed as a joint public-private venture, with a private holding established for the management and implementation of the project. Beirut CBD is intended to function as a modern urban park capable of absorbing and generating urban activities at an international scale. The plan was conceived as a symbol of the reunification of the country after the 1975-1990 civil war.

*** Project components**

Extending over an area of 1.6 million square meters, the plan provides abundant space integrating office, commercial, recreational, institutional and residential use, to be developed by private sector financing. With an estimated total of 300 thousand property owners, tenants and claimants, a system of share-holding was devised in which claimants could acquire or sell their shares accounting for the servicing costs. Provision of infrastructure is privately contracted out for maintaining cost/efficiency.

*** Feedback on the project**

The project is innovative in bringing public and private partnership in urban development. The technical consideration for environmental accessibility, preservation of old built-substance and the high finishing quality of built environment give positive signals that (a) not necessarily more expensive- (b) create sense of identity and competitiveness - which is hoped for, that it will be replicated. A number of public debates were held addressing the social, economic and political implications of the project. The media, enjoying freedom of expression, has exposed the perspectives of different interest groups, divided over issues of equity, valuation of shares, distribution of profits and socio-political implications of the planning process. Critics have pointed to the limited attention given to questions of priority in public investments, transparency, and popular participation at all stages of the reconstruction process. The debate on reconstruction of BCD has become an entry point for different groups to exercise their citizen rights and be actively involved in public life.

Source: ESCWA, "Overview of Human Settlements Policies in the ESCWA Region", Proceedings of Expert Group Meeting in Preparation for Habitat II, Amman, 1995. p. 270.

V. URBAN GOVERNANCE "IN ACTION": PERSPECTIVES FROM THE REGION

(a) *Partners in Aqaba urban upgrading in Jordan*

Aqaba has witnessed a dramatic change in all fields and on all levels in the last decades, especially in the last years. Its location at the Red Sea with its job opportunities given by Aqaba port, its advantageous position for trade and industry contributed to the importance of Aqaba in Jordan as a local center and on a regional level. However, Aqaba Governorate is considered as the poorest Governorate in Jordan. Since the signing of the Israeli-Jordan Peace Treaty, prospects of expanding the tourism sector in the area turned the Aqaba region in a focus of national interest and priority. Aqaba is expected to attract national and international investors and donors for private enterprises and development projects.

The city of Aqaba covers an area of 80km² with 26km of coastline. The population is estimated at approximately 65,000 inhabitants of whom 45% are living in informal settlements, that are Shellaleh and Salah ad-Din, covering an area of 460 dunums³ in addition to the Old Town with its substandard and insufficient infrastructure and services provided by public authorities. As a consequence of the expected growth of the economy and the gaining of importance of its position in the Kingdom, the local authorities will have to deal with a dramatic population growth. Aqaba is expected to strongly attract the influx of labor force from other areas of Jordan and from all over the region. Additional to migration, the natural population growth is generally high in Jordan. Avoiding the erection of new informal settlements, upgrading the existing ones and providing new housing for new migrants is the main challenge the authorities of Aqaba have to address in the coming decade. This includes institutional upgrading as well and is considered as a precondition to successful development projects.

In 1990, Aqaba was designated as a Governorate. As a result, a number of Government departments, such as the Electricity and Water Authorities, banks and other institutions, have opened regional offices in Aqaba, leading to an additional demand for infrastructure, health and social services as well as affordable housing.

Public authorities and NGOs

Different public actors can be identified in Aqaba and its surroundings. The three most important ones are the Aqaba Region Authority (ARA), the Municipality and the Aqaba Governorate. Even if their structures and responsibilities are officially clearly defined, there are functional ambiguities and a power overlap between the different administrations. As a fourth we find the HUDC as a public agency.

The ARA, established in 1984 under provisional law, is by far the most important, powerful and best-financed public institution in Aqaba and has no equivalent in Jordan. The ARA is established as – officially - a financial independent institution, gaining its revenues mainly from land-sale, but is directly linked to the Prime Ministers Office. The budget in 1998 amounted more than JD 14 million, compared to 1996 with JD 5 million, indicating its growing significance in Aqaba. The official and legal mandate is its responsibility for the social and economic development of the region, and the formulation of the needed policies, plans and programs in coordination with the concerned public and private agencies. This includes design and execution of industrial, tourist, agricultural and infrastructure development projects in the region, control and modification of the unbalanced growth of Aqaba town and supervision of the execution of works carried out by public and private agencies. Primary objective of ARA is to act as the planning, research and regulatory body to coordinate the other government agencies in Aqaba. Its power was much extended, as ARA is now responsible for all infrastructure works in Aqaba and took over other responsibilities from the Municipality.

During the last decades the Municipality of Aqaba lost some of its responsibilities being transmitted to other institutions as a result of the establishment of the ARA and some decentralization measures. Major projects of the municipality in the last decade concentrated on works in public spaces such as car parks, public toilets, green areas etc. The function of the Aqaba Municipality is street paving and maintenance,

street lightning and cleaning, garbage collection, maintenance of public areas and facilities, monitoring health and sanitation institutions and a limited number of revenue generating projects.

The total budget of Aqaba municipality does not exceed 1,5 million JD annually, of which up to 90% is generated from municipal revenue, mainly from taxes such as custom taxes, tax on fuel and gas and vehicle licenses. This low budget strongly narrows the possibilities of the municipality to plan and implement own initiatives and projects.

Aqaba Governorate is the third public player active in administration and development and has direct power over the municipality. Due to the responsibilities of ARA in Aqaba town in which more than 90% of the Governorate residents are living, the zone of the Governorates power in the fields of planning and development is extremely limited and concentrates in Aqaba town mainly on issues related to public security. However, the Governorate benefited from decentralization measures and the empowerment of institutions on the governorate level that includes an increase of resources to design and finance projects directly.

According to the public law, and in fact, ARA is the dominant player in Aqaba enjoying clearly officially defined fields of action. In case of power overlap between the three above-mentioned institutions, the ARA is the decisive and superior authority prevailing over any other law (Article 10 of ARA-Law). However, the fact that ARA, the Governorate and the municipality are all active in the Municipality of Aqaba causes problems even if there is a certain grade of cooperation and a share of responsibilities. The governor has, from a legal point, all government institutions and agencies in Aqaba under his mandate, but under ARA law, the governor is just a member of the ARA board, chaired by the president of the ARA. Despite of the wide development mandate of the ARA, it does not have direct control over the other government agencies operating in Aqaba. Those agencies report on their activities, plans and projects to the Ministry in Amman they are responsible to. It is not envisaged to establish the ARA as the almighty power in Aqaba in which all major decisions are made, but there is the dire need to improve coordination among the different agencies in Aqaba itself by setting up coordination committees – which include local citizen initiatives and groups - to up-date and follow-up public engagement in Aqaba.

In most of the cases, institutional hinderance in the development of Aqaba does not seem to be so much of a power overlap, but by the lack of real decentralization (J. Bousac). All public institutions, as the private sector and NGOs, are under strict control of the central government in Amman. A big number of essential instruments of the ARA, like budgetary matters, changes in land lease and sale, require approval from the Council of Ministers. As a result of the decentralization measures, coordinating committees between the concerned institutions were institutionalized. However, ARA, the Municipality and Governorate of Aqaba are de facto restricted on a monitoring and implementing role, rather than planners.

The NGO-scene is small, weak and not well developed in Aqaba. For most of them, their budget does not exceed some thousand JD annually and are dependent on just a few volunteers, as social mobilization is quite low in Aqaba (J. Bouscard). The integration of NGOs and CBOs to public development programs is – despite of the official mandate of ARA to coordinate with them - considerably low, even if in the past some successful attempts were done for a greater involvement. The Konrad-Adenauer-Foundation funded in the framework of the upgrading measures of the squatter settlements in Aqaba a community participation project (1992-1994). This project aimed at encouraging NGOs, CBOs and grass roots organizations to initiate upgrading and income generating projects in their neighborhoods. This was initiated in cooperation with the Jordan University (see below - upgrading measures).

NGO activities concentrate on the traditional social services as running Kindergartens and nurseries, orphan care and care for people with special needs, schools, health care – since there is only one public hospital in Aqaba -, vocational training and financial assistance. However, even if the two other hospitals try to fill the lack of public services in health care, one is run as a private and profitable entity, the other one as NGO, with considerable higher prices as the state-run institution. The far of being satisfying situation of public health facilities has led to NGO involvement in this field, but only NGOs with large financial resources – and these are not locals – are able to improve the current situation. Medecins du Monde, a French NGO, opened with cooperation of the Red Crescent a Society a Mother and Health Care Project which is

subsidized by up to 60% but needs to establish income-generating projects or services to become financial independent.

The Bir as-Saba' Association, an NGO based in Amman, is working on an ambitious project aiming at the establishment of a clinic in el-Alamiyeh with community participation, financed by its own resources, but has not yet opened and still faces financial difficulties. A part of the clinic building shall be used for income-generating activities to ensure the sustainability of the project.

The given high costs for health services limits the possibilities of local NGOs and this sector is far from filling the lack of public services in this field according to the public needs and financial possibilities of Aqaba's residents.

Upgrading measures in Aqaba: project components and analysis

In the 1970s, the Jordanian government established the Urban Development Department (UDD). This institution is in charge of implementing upgrading programs in squatter settlements, and to implement site and services projects in low-income households in urban areas. In 1992 the UDD formed with the Housing Cooperation the Housing and Urban Development Corporation (HUDC), an independent government agency. The main activities of the HUDC lies in providing public housing for low-income households by identifying new ways and developing alternatives for the housing sector, as partnership initiatives with the private sector. This government agency was in charge of the implementation of upgrading measures in the informal settlements of Aqaba.

Upgrading work in Aqaba started in 1987, in Salahaddin, Shallalah, Khazan and the Old Town which are inhabited with approximately 55% Palestinians of the total population. The World Bank and the Housing Bank provided the financial kick-off for the project with a loan. In addition the project was supported with a grant from the Treasury. The whole upgrading measures that began in 1987 are amounting on JD 6.5 million being recovered through land sale and mortgage repayments.

The upgrading program in Aqaba aimed at improving living conditions inside the informal settlements aiming at closing or narrowing the gap of live quality between the planned and the unplanned quarters. This under special regard of infrastructure and public services with the objective of an integration of the settlements into its environment on all levels – economical, physical and social.

The program targeted to provide the residents with clean water, electricity, sewer, circulation networks and storm water drainage and the basic community social services as schools, clinic, and community- and women educational centers. Since all the squatted land in Aqaba is state-owned, the residents could secure official land tenure provided they would pay back to HUDC the cost of the land through long-term mortgage loans. The economic basis of upgrading Aqaba was on a full cost-recovery. The government took care of the public facilities and off-site infrastructures, while the residents paid the full costs of on-site infrastructures.

The implementation of the project was highly centralized, the HUDC being the main actor and responsible to project design, financing, implementation through local contractors, cost-recovery issues, monitoring and coordination between the other government bodies. The ARA issued building permits and approved building regulations in cooperation with the Municipality of Aqaba. No participatory approach for the community was adopted and no channel of coordination and communication between the concerned parties established.

In the second stage of the project (1990) – the upgrading of the Old Town – integration of the beneficiaries reached a considerable level with their involvement in all phases as a result of the participation project of the Konrad-Adenauer-Foundation. This program was funded and implemented in cooperation with the University of Jordan and the HUDC targeting the integration of the beneficiaries, local NGOs (27 participated), CBOs and grass roots organizations by establishing a committee as a link for public and non-public actors.

The committee provided a forum for discussing needs of the community and articulating the residents interest and demands. A number of training workshops were conducted for the committee members in order to strengthen networking among the concerned parties, negotiation skills, project formulation and monitoring and gender development. An established Working Group, involving residents, public authorities, local groups and NGOs identified environmental hazardous sites such as dumping sites, and started environmental awareness campaigns to clean those sites up and improve them visible and physical to use them as public space. The Working Groups gained a certain access to public funds and resources that allowed establishing playgrounds in the settlement, fencing up of special areas, and the construction of water connections.

Comments and observations

Medecins du Monde conducted in 1998 a study about the social and economic situation in North and South Shellaleh identifying some significant successes of the upgrading measures. That is the direct access of most of the households to running water and electricity of which are more than 50% connected to sewage system. Residents of upgraded areas expressed in interviews their satisfaction with the achieved results. However, the settlements still look – compared to other quarters in Aqaba – visibly impoverished and the economic situation is still highly problematic, with 35% of the population with a monthly income of less than 100 JD, that is remarkably under the official poverty line in the Kingdom. For 88% of the total residents in the informal settlements, income in 1998 is either equal or inferior to that of 1996.

The overlap of responsibilities in Aqaba, even if some cooperation was achieved, showed to be problematic for the success of the project. Mainly the necessary approval of both, the ARA and the Municipality of Aqaba, for the plans proposed by HUDC and the relocation of residents. Furthermore, both institutions had to agree on the setting of land price for the residents.

Even if the residents showed satisfaction with the measures, many officials in Aqaba express disappointment with the upgrading measures since water-pipes layout on the plans is said to be different from reality, and the sewage system is said to be partly out of order. Criticism arises as well as the ARA did not properly control the building construction and for being slow in the repayment procedure. It is still unclear if and how upgrading of South Shellaleh will be continued. (J.Bousac)

In the first half of 1999, major changes for public institutions were decided by the Council of Ministers. The president of the ARA was named Governor to avoid confusion between the authorities and to improve coordination between public bodies active in Aqaba. Since the municipal elections of July 1999 were cancelled and the ARA municipality connected to the ARA, the President of ARA is de facto Mayor of Aqaba, without being democratic legitimized.

A study, conducted by the Service Group, Inc, USA, recommends the replacement of the ARA by a broader authority with wide powers and full autonomy. The to be established authority's field of responsibility, as recommended in the study, would include all decisions on economic planning, investment promotion and facilitation, industrial estate management and marketing, privatization and private provision of public infrastructure, environment regulation and monitoring and licensing, permits and approvals.

Even if it is undue that all those measures will be taken and centralized in one authority, it is expected that some far ranging reforms on the institutional level will be realized in the coming years.

TABLE 4. LIVING CONDITIONS IN AQABA

Characteristics of Housing	AQABA GOVERNORATE	JORDAN
<u>Numbers of Rooms in House</u>		
1	21,4%	8,9%
2	30%	19,9%
3	21,7%	32,5%
4 and above	26,8%	38,6%
<u>Average number of persons per room</u>		
6 and above	6,8%	1,8%
5 to 6	3,7%	1,9%
4 to 5	5,8%	4,5%
3 to 4	12,9%	11,7%
2 to 3	22,1%	27,3%
1 to 2	41,8%	41,0%
< 1	6,8%	11,4%
<u>Method of Garbage Disposal</u>		
Collected	9,9%	68,1%
Public Container	68,7%	25,9%
Burned	20,1%	4,1%
Dumped	0,7%	0,1%
Other	0,7%	1,7%
<u>Type of sewage system</u>		
Public network	53,6%	55,1%
Cess pool	44,5%	33,7%
None	1,4%	10,9%
Other	0,4%	0,3%
<u>Source of lightning in house unit</u>		
Public		
Other	83,3%	96,5%
	16,7%	3,5%
<u>Source of drinking water</u>		
Public network	85,7%	94,7%
Public tap	0,7%	0,1%
Tanker	4,4%	3,1%
Well	0,3%	0,5%
Other	8,8%	1,6%

Source: Statistical Yearbook 1996.

TABLE 5. NGOS OPERATING IN AQABA

NAME OF NGO	FOUNDED	MAIN ACTIVITIES
Al-Aqaba al-kheiriyyeh al-islamiyyeh	1965	Kindergarten, school, vocational training, financial support Expenditure 1998: 115,000 JD
As-sawwaqin al-kheiriyyeh al-islamiyyeh	1969	Support to driver's families, orphans and widows
Ath-thaghar li-ri'ayet al-mu'aqin	1981	External center for the mentally handicapped Expenditure 1998: 13,000 JD
Nisa' al-Aqaba al-kheiriyyeh	1982	Kindergarten, external support
Ash-shimal al-kheiriyyeh	1983	Financial support
Abna' al-Aqaba li ri'ayet wa ta'hil al-aitam	1990	Support to orphans, scholarships
Abna' al-Aqaba al-kheiriyyeh lil-turath ash-shaabi wa al-mihani	1990	Vocational training, financial support to families Expenditure 1998: 50,000 JD
Asdiqa beit al-Maqdis al-kheiriyyeh	1991	Sewing workshop, financial help
Ilat lil-tanmiyeh al-ijtima'iyyeh	1996	Financial support, promotion of women
Bir as-Saba' al-kheiriyyeh	1978	Financial support, health services
Khalil ar-Rahman al-kheiriyyeh	1963	Social centers, education, financial support
As-Salt al-kheiriyyeh	1986	Financial support, cultural club
Jama'iyeh Mo'ab al-kheiriyyeh	1969	Financial support
Ar-Rabita al-wataniyyeh li-tarbiyeh wa ta'allim at-tafal	1986	Education
Al-merkaz al-islami al-kheiriyyeh	1965	Health care, financial support, education...
Nadi sahbati al-a'mal wa al-mihan	1976	Promotion of women
Abna' Ma'an al-kheiriyyeh	1981	Financial support, vocational training

Source: GUVS directory.

Major NGOs with expenditure in 1998.

(b) *Municipality – Community Relations in Hay El-Selloum in Lebanon*

Choueifat is one of the largest and richest municipalities in Lebanon, situated just south of Beirut. The population in the city of Choueifat and surrounding is estimated at 56000 in addition to the approximately 100-150000 residents living in informal settlements. The international airport of Beirut, Choueifat industrial area and the development plan of the 1950s with its construction program for public facilities (Golf Club, the Sports City, the Pine Woods and hippodrome) in order to link the airport with Beirut, contributed to this situation.

Today, Choueifat is the most important industrial area in Lebanon. However, high population density, poor infrastructure, environment problems and a bad hygienic situation characterize Choueifat. Choueifat municipality faces big challenges to bring up management functions to the local level and involving different actors in the decision-making process, as well as improving its infrastructure with its limited financial resources.

This report will tackle the current situation of Choueifat Municipality highlighting the special situation of Hay as-Soullom, a squatter settlement in southern Beirut, within this Municipality.

Originally a recreation area for the inhabitants of Beirut and dominated by agriculture, the creation, development and extension of Choueifat is closely linked to the construction of the international airport which attracted workers mainly from southern Lebanon and the Bekaa hoping to find jobs and income. Construction of public schools and other institutions, and the development of the Choueifat industrial area were followed by an increased influx of migrants to the southern suburbs of Beirut. The displacement of thousands of Palestinians in 1948, rural-urban immigration and the movement of Shiites from northern Beirut to the southern suburbs during the Lebanese Civil War lead to a dramatic population growth in the southern suburbs of Beirut and Choueifat. The Israeli invasions into Lebanon, its still ongoing occupation of a southern strip put additional pressure on the already dense populated suburbs. The current population growth of Choueifat is being estimated at 4% annually.

Due to the absence of government during the Lebanese civil war, construction of houses and quarters was not planned and infrastructure not developed, since Choueifat became a place where industry and residents escaped to. This led to a further loss of agricultural land use and the devastation of the landscape. Today the existing infrastructure and services provided by public institutions is insufficient and does not meet the needs of its population.

The immigrants, mainly poor, came from Nabaa (West Beirut), the south and the Bekaa. Since the majority of the residents are migrants who cast their votes not in Choueifat municipality but rather in their place of origin, there has been little municipal support for upgrading or otherwise easing of the problems of its informal settlements, like Hay al-Sollum a southern district of Beirut. Caused by the growth of the metropolitan area of Beirut and the undisrupted settlements, it is almost impossible to regard Choueifat separately from Beirut

The municipality of Choueifat can be distinguished in three areas – the Choueifat plain, an area partially used for agriculture, the industrial area including Beirut International Airport, and the neighboring informal settlements of Hay al-Sollum and Amrousiyeh.

Even if most of Choueifat is connected with a street network, electricity and a water network, it urgently needs an upgrading of its infrastructure and the construction of a sewerage system. Since the existing water networks is far from being efficient, many people have to rely on water tanks and wells and are forced to buy water from private companies. Water sewerage systems are almost absent in Choueifat causing serious environmental problems and flooding during the rainy season. The Choueifat industrial area is an environment hazard, polluting air and water.

Participation and local governance in Choueifat's informal settlements:

As most of the residents are not represented in the municipality and the central government did not make enough efforts to improve the quality of living in Choueifat, Hezbollah has acted in the absence of municipal support and has been the main provider of physical and social infrastructure. Amal and the Popular Committee are also active but do not play such a major role in this field and do not enjoy that sympathy among the residents as Hezbollah does. Hezbollah is in the southern suburbs of Beirut the dominant and institutionalized local authority. This is partially due to the social and relief services Hezbollah is providing to the suburbs' impoverished inhabitants, filling the gap between insufficient governmental and public services and the needs of southern Beirut's residents.

Choueifat municipality, although municipalities in Lebanon were lightly empowered in the last years especially after the municipal elections of 1998 – the first in Lebanon since 35 years - is still weak and the central government is still present and dominates local politics. In addition, Choueifat is provided with limited finances, which narrows its possibilities to play an active role in the development of the region. Municipalities' expenditures are mainly used for administrative costs and to a lesser extent for public cleaning measures leaving not much money for public investment or infrastructure projects. Due to the centralized control of the Municipality funds, the process for funding large-scale projects is time consuming

and difficult for the Municipality. But the Municipality has a budget to finance projects that do not exceed LL 3, 000,000. This budget is not efficiently used due to the shortage of qualified staff to identify and develop proposals for small-scale projects and the lack of residents' involvement (Developing Alternatives).

In the southern suburbs, and so in Choueifat, the Council for the Development and Reconstruction (CDR) as a public organization, founded in 1977, is active. It was established as an autonomous institution directly linked to the Prime Ministers Office but is financial and administratively independent. Its establishment aimed to streamline, coordinate and accelerate public urban administration. All development projects, plans, contracts and studies are being operated and implemented by CDR. Unfortunately, its budget is cut from year to year. (Harb el-Kak, p.20; see: el-Kak, p 12 Elyssar)

Other NGOs active in Choueifat and Hay al-Sollum:

A number of international and local NGOs, CBOs or local initiatives and committees were active in Choueifat and Hay al-Sollum during the Lebanese Civil War. With the end of the war, their number decreased, since the Government and the Municipality are supposed to be responsible and in charge of the issue. Today, there is still a NGO scene active in the squatter settlement including local initiatives, which are often on a family or clan basis with irregular resources. These initiatives are mainly active in their just surrounding and neighborhood. As the local initiatives, CBOs and NGOs (political and religious) are working on different agendas and often with a different political or religious background and target group, coordination is almost not existent. There is a dire need of networking and capacity building between the organizations in order to optimize the use of the rare financial resources and to avoid an overlap of projects and services. This includes proper feasibility studies, evaluations and follow-up of development projects to address the needs of the most needy residents and neighborhoods. Cooperation and coordination among the different groups is a precondition for articulating the residents' interests and demands in an efficient and forceful way.

In addition, they are highly dependent on foreign donors. Japan has just recently granted Lebanon \$31,300 to provide sports educational and medical equipment to the Amel Association for a community project in Hay al-Sollum. The Japanese government will implement this project under the Grassroots Grant Assistance Program, which seeks to support development projects of NGOs and other non-profit-organizations. Japan has donated a total of \$746,000 since 1996 under the Grassroots program. (Daily Star, 4-9-99).

Hay al-Sollum

Not much research on Hay al-Sollum has been done so far. In the framework the Msc Building and Urban Design and Development course a working group of the University of London(?) has up-dated in 1999 the information available on the squatter settlement in order "to apply and test tools, techniques and concepts to the actual situation in Hay al-Sollum." The project was conducted in cooperation with the AUB, ESCWA and researchers. It aimed at producing realistic and feasible proposals that build upon existing and ongoing projects and address the client's needs - the Municipality of Choueifat - and problems within the settlement." (Developing Alternatives 1.1.) A major objective of the research envisaged bringing different actors together - i.e. building bridges.

The results and proposals as presented in the study:

It has been identified an extremely high population density, which is estimated at up to 150000 and outnumbers the rest of the municipality of Choueifat. Unplanned construction, severe hygienic conditions, pollution and a lack of public and social services characterize Hay al-Sollum. The drainage system is leaking and insufficient, the river used as garbage dump and sewage main. Hay al-Sollum is a squatter settlement of mainly poor and middle income Shiite families surrounded by Druze and Christian residents. The housing density is extremely high and Hay al-Sollum needs to expand. However, this is limited as the settlements borders the airport, the industrial area and the Burj Barajneh refugee camp.

Due to the origin of its inhabitants from different regions of Lebanon, they are not represented in the municipality (only 300 out of 120000 are voting in Choueifat).

It is aimed to improve the living conditions by satisfying the most urgent infrastructure needs, that is, a drainage system, a regulation for sewage and re-organizing the over-crowded and chaotic traffic. Optimizing the use of buildings and open space, establishment of recreational areas, extension of education and health services to provide the inhabitants with basic services.

Sewage and wastewater overflows in houses and streets caused by leaking and blocked pipes are one of the main concerns of the residents. The proposal of the study suggests installing a combined rainwater, household waste water and sewage system for the settlement, planned, financed and implemented by both the municipality and the residents. This would create a partnership between the residents and the local authority with a benefit for all concerned parties (Developing Alternatives, p.3).

At the institutional level the working group identified the urgent need of establishing a channel of communication between the municipality and the inhabitants of Hay al-Sollum in order to meet the problems and demands of the settlement. An institutionalized channel or committee between the Municipality and the residents will inevitably help to more appropriate planning, cost saving measures and empowerment of the citizens. Hay al-Sollum needs to be recognized by the municipality as a quarter within Choueifat Municipality and given an urban status to define the role and responsibility of the municipality to this quarter since it is still seen as an illegal and temporarily settlement. Greater public participation for the locals in decision-making, enhancement of cooperation between the community and the municipality might allow increased access to resources and urban development assistance.

A self-help approach is adopted with the Technical Support Group as a new NGO giving technical advice to the municipality, CBOs and households. Since residents of Choueifat tried to solve their problems on their own – the construction of a drainage pipe - there is an obvious need to give them advice, as there are arising technical problems, such as bad connections, leakage and bad maintenance. Advice is required for infrastructure upgrading, environmental improvement – cleaning, waste collection -, construction works, social and environmental assessment, fund raising, evaluation and monitoring of development projects.

The projects can be implemented on three ways: by the Municipality, by the Municipality and the community, or by the community. This might be financed on a cost-sharing basis. Both, the municipality and the inhabitants will cover costs of upgrading measures; international and local donors might be attracted to contribute to the projects as well. Sustainability will be achieved if the projects have an income-generating factor, as vending newly established stalls on the promenade and commercial areas, parking lots and cafes on public spaces. It is of utmost importance to involve the residents at an early stage of the project to rise their awareness and willingness participate actively and to maintain the achieved successes.

Since the residents of Hay al-Sollum use public services of the neighboring Burj Barajneh settlement, both areas could be linked stronger in terms of physical and social infrastructure. However, a new arrangement and restructuring of the Municipalities might ease the problems in southern Beirut, but not solve them. Upgrading of Hay al-Sollum, with a good factor of Community participation and volunteerism in order to keep costs low, will only be achieved and realized, if the Lebanese Government and the Municipality of Choueifat are giving the settlement a perspective for the future. This means recognition of the quarter and the right of the residents to stay. Some important steps were being done. In recent years some infrastructure projects were realized and the settlement became connected to running water and electricity, but there is still the need for a decent sewage system. The planning of the new highway, linking Beirut with southern Lebanon, which will not cut but by-pass Hay al-Sollum, shows a reasonable realism of the Lebanese government. However, the problems of the southern suburbs of Beirut in general, and Choueifat with Hay al-Sollum in particular, is not only a problem of a lack of financial resources, but a problem of bad governance and ineffective administration. Bad qualified and unprofessional staff is having its share to the problems of Choueifat. Low salaries do not attract well-educated people. Institutional upgrading of the Municipality, training of its staff, streamlining administrative structures and capacity building is a precondition for developing plans and optimizing the use of limited resources. There is a need for a general municipality reform with empowerment on an administrative, financial and decision-making level. This

means as well that the residents must be represented in the municipality by at least an institutionalized channel to articulate their interests.

TABLE 6. NGOS ACTIVE IN HAY AL-SOLLUM

NAME OF NGO	MAIN ACTIVITIES
Hizbullah*	Large range of social and infrastructural services provided to the community; runs different other projects by sub-organizations
Corps Islamique de Santé	Subsidized medical services, laboratory
Le Bureau du Sayyed Fadl'Allah	Medical consultations, subsidized medicaments, financial help for operations, financial support for inscription at public schools, scholarships for university, financial support for families
L'Institut Al Imam al-Hadi	Work with physical handicapped and mentally retarded (20 persons)
Al-Mabarrat	Education (schools), health, living and educational support for orphans
AMAL*	Financial help for orphans for school inscription, small-scale infrastructure projects
Aamel	Technical institute for women vocational training
L'association Al Imad	Vocational training, financial help for families
Jihad al-Bina'a	Urban services, construction works, water supply
Al Shaheed; Al Jareeh	Financial support for families

* There is a debate on whether to include Hizbollah and Amal as NGOs, since they are not registered as political parties, and are considered as social movements. However, they are accounted for in this section, because they are considerably influential on the local scene and support or sponsor practically most community based organizations.

Source: Harb el-Kak, M, Fawaz, M., Peillen-Debs, I., Compte rendu de l'étude de cas: Le quartier de Hayy el-Sellom en banlieue sud de Beyrouth, 1999.

VI. RETHINKING MODELS OF PARTNERSHIP IN "GOOD URBAN GOVERNANCE"

It is not feasible at this stage to discuss the cases in a comparative framework, as they show considerable differences, in context, background of actors and type of intervention and the issues being contested, although in both cases it is over the delivery of public services. Such an analysis, although it would be extremely useful, it nonetheless necessitate the availability of standardized and compatible indicators, which could be analyzed in a time series.

Partnership among local actors can be conceptualized around three inter-related issues. First, there is a need to address the contractual status of partners and the terms of reference governing partnership. The legal framework governing NGOs operations in the different countries of the region has so far proved to be a reigning factor. Existing legislation elaborate all the "does and don'ts" for NGOs, the leverage that the state has in monitoring their activities, their governing boards, their accounts and bookkeeping procedures, the profiles of their members and NGOs relations with external organizations/ donors. While some of these aspects can be justified within the monitoring and strategic planning functions of the state, in real terms however, the legal system has often been misused. It has become a tool of control rather than an institutional mechanism for ensuring transparency and accountability of all social actors involved in the public domain.

At present, a number of countries are revising their Laws concerning voluntary/ non-profit organizations, as many of these have become obsolete to deal with the rapidly changing sector. It is worth noting here Law 153 of 1999 in Egypt, which generated considerable controversy among the Egyptian as well as international NGOs, donors, and advocates of civil society. While the new Law attempts to streamline registration procedures, simplify monitoring and allow an expanded role for NGOs in development, Kandil warns of loopholes in this Law, which opens scope for misuse or abuse. This particularly concerns the restriction imposed on NGOs involvement in political affairs (elections, relations with political parties, etc.). These restrictions are comparable to NGOs regulations in a cross-cultural perspective, however they should be further clarified, addressing in particular what the role of advocacy entails, and what are its implications on the political scene. Indeed there is a thin line between advocacy and politics, which posits careful deliberation for all parties concerned, before they sign international agreements and adopt and endorse "blanket" global agendas.

Furthermore, the on-going debate on reforming legislation addresses NGOs relations with central government authorities, ministries of social affairs, the interior, health, etc. However very little is discussed in terms of how could the municipalities expand and reform their role as partners of NGOs. Much ground work remains to be done in terms of developing criteria for NGOs accreditation, monitoring and backstopping social services provided by NGOs, developing joint advisory boards involving citizen groups, municipality personnel and NGOs. In fact there is so much scope for expanding and exploring the areas of partnership between municipalities and NGOs in light of the global conferences agendas, which call for supporting municipalities to assume greater planning and decision-making power and financial autonomy.

Secondly, partnership needs to be discussed in terms of the resources required to initiate negotiations and conflict resolution as an on-going process of development. Indeed negotiations should reflect the diversity of views and alternative approaches to addressing planning issues. One of the major challenges in this respect is ensuring that partners interact on a par, rather than end up with fora whereby the more powerful social actors monopolize the negotiation process, and as such, set the terms of partnership and tilt its outcome to their advantage. Unequal relations in partnership concern not only the state dealing with NGOs; it is also reflected in situations where NGOs have different economic and political weight, or between local and central government. This would preempt an effective participatory process, and above all such a façade of negotiation (often void of content) legitimizes what could be an undemocratic process at the core.

Parity in negotiations underscores another important challenge facing partners, specifically when talking about an expanded role of NGOs and notably those operating at the local level. Neither NGOs nor the State has experienced the winds of change uniformly across the sector. In fact the expanded role of NGOs has highlighted their diversity and even polarization among them. A handful of NGOs, with access to

- See Dr. Kandil in *Al-mezalla*, Issue No. 3 and 4, June 1999, pp. 4-7 for a discussion of Law 153 of 1999. Full text of the Law can be accessed on Internet (<http://www.dfn.org/Voices/Mideast/egypt/ngolaw/law02.htm>)

resources and political power have managed to scale-up their activities, expand their budgets, employ professional staff, while the overwhelming majority of NGOs still suffer from limited resources and undertake small-scale service provision or welfare functions. Similarly, as the cases of Aqaba and Ismailia have shown, local governments are often marginalized and have some of their functions taken over by higher level authorities, (by central governments or specialized public agencies).

Thirdly, the implications of voluntarism and resources mobilization through self-funding or self-help approaches should be carefully addressed, baring in mind the financial burden such measures may impose on local communities. This is one paradox observed in three cases discussed above, as well as other cases, which have been nominated or earmarked as "best practices" in the region. The fact that pilot, experimental projects generate popular support and resource mobilization at a point in time, and in a limited scale, does not necessarily mean that voluntarism can be maintained over a long period of time, or for that matter expanded in terms of extra time spent in non-remunerated jobs.

Discuss possible indicators on urban governance: how to standardize and how to measure? In particular, How to define and measure satisfaction, participation and partnership according to the different stakeholders?

Local action within a national policy framework: how do they compliment each other?

The implications of decentralization on regional and inter-city balance: revisiting the debate between equity and efficiency.

Capacity building and training: an area with so much potential for development, yet inadequately addressed.

Box 5. Dubai Municipality – institutional development

*** Background**

Cooperation between Dubai Municipality and the United Nations commenced in 1986 aiming at sustained development of Dubai Municipality through effective institutional reform and capacity building. Projects addressed the fields of administration, finance, tendering and contracting, planning and land surveying, environment protection, statistics and documentation.

*** Project components**

Main objectives of the program, which was conducted and formulated in partnership with all major stakeholders in the public and private sector, targeted the enhancement of Municipality's self-reliance and sustainable development by streamlining its organization infrastructure and functions. UN assisted the Municipality in capacity building and institutional and organizational development, improving its service efficiency and performance including the financial performance. The project targets environmental protection through rising public awareness with the active participation of the public and private sector as well as NGOs. With regard to training, the methodologies used varied according to the special needs, such as job training, seminars with international experts, practical study tours arranged for counterparts in various countries and scholarships.

*** Major outputs and project's impact**

Outputs of the strategic plan are in full accordance to the objectives of the Habitat-Agenda. Formulation and implementation of appropriate policy and institutional capacity resulted in the improvement of the living environment by accelerating and optimizing public services provided by Dubai Municipality. This refers to accountability, cost reduction and revenue enhancement - covering Municipality's expenditures and partially the project costs -and partial decentralization of services. Monitoring the effectiveness of public institutions is institutionalized with the establishment of the Administrative Development Office. One of the most outstanding successes for the project was achieved at the level of human resources by increasing the labor percentage of UAE nationals in the Municipality by training and further education in general, and increasing female employees in Municipality institutions from 7% up to 25% in particular.

Dubai has been transformed in a "best practice" that has been recognized as such through various awards including the Habitat Scroll of Honor, awards by the Arab Towns Organization and the Dubai Government Award for Excellence.

Source: Presentation to the ESCWA Meeting, 1998, Institutional Development of Dubai Municipality.

Box 6. Municipal reform in Yemen

*** Background**

Public institutions in Yemen have been traditionally highly centralized. Centralization policies, in order to build up a modern strong state and to integrate the country's regions, were pushed forward in the decades prior unification causing marginalisation and underdevelopment of rural areas. Since unification, Yemen has undergone a process of rapid political, economic and social change. However, there is still a need of providing the constitutional and legal guarantees that is a prerequisite of civil society and the upcoming of NGOs. As a reaction to political pressure from professional associations, labor syndicates, political parties, NGOs and representatives of the tribes, the state pushed forward reform measures to achieve decentralized democratic governance. A number of national meetings and public forums were held in the 1990s by these organizations with an agenda to press the government for change.

*** Project components**

UNDP has worked with the government on a decentralization program targeting a reform of the executive, legislative and judicial branches. The central point of the program lies in providing support to the Prime Ministers office in developing a program framework aiming at decentralization of the public sector. The program includes identifying partners for development and reform components, establishment of a more responsive organizational structure of the Prime Ministers office with clear functions and defined roles for the operating units and selection and improvement of skills of staff for newly defined missions. Decentralization of the public sector – such as the water and electricity sector– is currently undertaken in assistance of the GTZ. This program is initiated in different regions of the country aiming at management at the lowest level of organizational structure capable of handling the services, and with fullest participation of stakeholders appropriate to that level.

In the solid-waste management sector, the country's waste management system is being – with assistance of the GTZ – from an economic point of view refined. Human, financial and technical resources are to be put to more effective and efficient use.

*** Project's impact**

Decentralization is strongly linked to growth and development. Empowerment and encouragement of local initiatives, private sector and community based organizations can help to improve the situation of marginalized towns and underdeveloped rural areas. These areas, who have been neglected to a large extent because of centralization, should be the first beneficiaries of decentralization with participation of its inhabitants. Poor urban groups, affected by financial and fiscal stabilization and economic adjustment measures, should be targeted in future development programs as well, so women, who can actively contribute to and benefit from income-generating projects. By strengthening and encouraging local initiatives of the private sector or of community-based organizations, small enterprises and cooperatives can be planned and generate job activities. The government has done significant steps in reforming the political system, but still, the initiative for a comprehensive reform is more likely to arise from Civil Society, rather than from the state. The government is challenged by economic hardship, limited financial resources and tribal and regional resistance and by aspirations for local autonomy.

Source: UNDP, *Decentralized Governance Monograph: A Global Sample of Experiences*, 1999.

Yemen – Political, Administrative and Fiscal Reform: 95.

Carapico, S., Yemen between Civility and Civil War, 287-313, in: Norton, A.R., *Civil Society in the Middle East*, vol.2, 1996.

www.gtz.de

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper has attempted to highlight the challenges and pitfalls of notions of partnership and participatory development, when policies are translated into development strategies and specific actions; and in particular when the process affects unequally social actors at the local level. Three case studies were discussed to illustrate the complexities involved in development projects, which build on or claim to revolve around a participatory approach. The scale of the projects, the time of their various phases and the policy environment under which such projects are conceived and implemented are crucial factors which can undermine, obstruct or on the contrary reinforce partnership in development.

What the paper has also tried to show is that partnership is not only about alliance building, but (and one may argue it is often the case), partnership is also about negotiation and conflict resolution. As such it is important to address the framework (or forum) in which partnership takes place; more importantly, there is need to understand who is benefiting or not benefiting from a "partnership" set-up and why? This in particular affects both municipalities and NGOs operating at a local level, considering that concepts such as participatory development or empowerment can sometimes be elusive, and therefore open for different interpretations (or misinterpretations) when translated to local level. To conclude, following are some recommendations for strengthening the local institutional framework and building up capacity, highlighting priority areas for further action for both NGOs and local authorities in the region.

Trust building among different partners is an important dimension, which has not taken its due consideration. This could be accomplished by lessening external over-regulation (by donors, central government agencies) and increasing self-regulation (jointly between NGOs and local authorities). Scope for self-regulation should be explored, in light of codes of conducts (and ethics) which NGOs themselves need to actively work on. Thus governments and NGOs need to agree on a common framework for working together and establish the underlying principles governing their collaboration and partnership. Contractual arrangement needs to be agreed to by all partners so that their respective roles are clear and expectations are realistic. More important, it would contribute to program accountability on all sides (UNFPA, 1998).

Municipalities and local authorities should be equipped to provide accreditation to NGOs based on agreed-upon and transparent standards and regulate NGO operations within their jurisdictions. Regulations should be simplified to ensure better co-ordination and trust between NGOs and public authorities. In countries where this does not exist, NGOs could assist in establishing independent bodies to set standards and criteria for selection, accreditation and monitoring functions. Donors should stress the complementarity rather than competition among the different actors. As such donors should as much as possible work with joint teams rather than with one actor in isolation. This is part of an on-going process of institution and capacity building.

Capacity building, which has recently received more attention from donors and policy-makers, particularly in the area of training, still has other dimensions, which have not yet been fully explored. Training is *sine qua non* for capacity building; however institutional development should proceed in parallel, i.e. capacity building is both for people and institutions. While individuals get exposed to training, they often find it difficult to assume their original functions, or return to their organizations, which do not necessarily upgrade their operations in tandem. Thus, NGOs, particularly those operating at the grassroots level, still lag behind in terms of access to resources: information, legislation, institutional backing, technical support and most of all funding. These issues should be explored in the context of municipal development, particularly as the agendas of all major global conferences emphatically argue for participatory local development as the only path for ensuring sustainability.

There should be a formal mechanism between NGO, local authorities and the concerned communities to ensure exchange of information on program activities and financing, and to participate in decisions on resource mobilization and allocation, planning future development and building-up a knowledge base on successful or problematic experiences in partnership. There should be periodic internal and external program, management and financial auditing. Governments and NGOs need to be mutually accountable. Program monitoring and evaluation mechanisms would assist this process.

Urban governance: an agenda for participatory development.

Municipal finance: what are the implications in terms of local resource mobilization? Do local taxes represent an additional burden, or should municipal finance be discussed and developed in terms of restructuring the tax system, in terms of collection and distribution.

Challenges in terms of monitoring NGOs and private sector when services are contracted out to them: what resources and leverage do they have as local government?

Technical, institutional and legislative framework: what municipalities/ local government can or cannot do in terms of fund-raising or as independent economic actors.

Need for building up an information base (the Information City – Castells and Hall) as preconditions for effective city management. Information management: implications for dissemination and sharing, the importance of indicators such as city product, city index, emerging markets, quality of life quotient, in attracting foreign investments.

Proposals for a regional alliance of cities.

Annex 1

Selected city alliance projects

Name of Program	Established/Time period/Contact	Cooperating partners/ Funding/Implementation	Objectives	Activities
MEDCITIES	1991 www.metap.org	27 Mediterranean coastal cities Regional Capacity Building Program (RCBP) United Towns Development Agency (UTDA) Part of METAP-Program	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - local environment planning - encourage decentralized cooperation/networking - to facilitate sustainable development of urban areas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - several workshops to environmental issues and institutional capacity building - delivering training, technical and investment assistance - joint ventures
MED-BRANCH	1990	Part of METAP-Program	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - building regional and national capacity (institutional and human) in regions with environmental hot spots - awareness rising for environmental issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - awareness rising programs (e.g. television program) for target group by providing exact and sufficient information about environmental problems - training workshops to teach different means of solving environmental problems
METAP – Mediterranean Environmental Technical Assistance Program	1990 www.metap.org	European Commission, The European Investment Bank, UNDP and World Bank	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Building regional and national capacity (see Med-Branch Program) - Assistance in designing environmental projects - Strengthening environmental local capacity - mobilizing resources for projects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - initiating MEDCITIES - municipal water and sanitation - rehabilitation of coastal regions - case studies on issues related to environment (water and air quality) - development plans and investment programs
EUROCITIES	1986 www.eurocities.org	Association of European metropolitan cities, representing 90 cities from 26 countries and 17 associated members	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - lobbying for European urban policy - networking among its members - to encourage and facilitate planning and implementation of transnational projects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - initiated two other networks: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Car Free Cities – promoting sustainable mobility 2. Telecities – defining urban demands for telematics

Name of Program	Established/Time period/Contact	Cooperating partners/ Funding/Implementation	Objectives	Activities
BUNIAN	1997-1999 www.bunian.org.jo	Initiated and implemented by Friedrich-Naumann-Stiftung in Amman in cooperation with International Management and Training Institute (IMTI) – Lebanon Funded by European Union	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Capacity building and networking for Arab NGOs (Lebanon, Syria, Jordan, Egypt and Palestine) - Next stage: involvement of municipalities in regional network 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - training events for capacity building of NGOs - regional joint projects covering field like urban-rural development, environmental protection, human rights, women empowerment, rehabilitation of disabled - regional internships to exchange expertise - regional workshops
CEMR/CCRE Council of European Municipalities and Regions	1951 www.ccre.org	More than 100000 local and regional authorities in Europe, represented through 40 national authorities in 29 countries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - channel for dialogue with the European Union in order to articulate interests of the regions and cities - to guarantee that interests of communities are taken into consideration in decision-making - dealing with issues related to regions and cities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - establishment of different working groups and committees dealing with main areas of interest for local and regional authorities - public hearings - institutionalized cooperation with European Commission
The Cities Alliance	May 1999 www.worldbank.org	Global partnership of UNCHS (Habitat), World Bank and other UN-Organizations, regional development banks, bilateral agencies, local authority associations, NGOs and the business community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to foster new tools, practical approaches and knowledge sharing - to define visions for investment strategies - support city-based consensus-building to establish priorities, strategies and actions for development - identify and prepare citywide and nationwide slum upgrading programs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - City Development Strategy - Scaling-up - Slum upgrading <p>These projects are currently undertaken in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East</p>

Name of Program	Established/Time period/Contact	Cooperating partners/ Funding/Implementation	Objectives	Activities
LIFE	Established: 1992 www.undp.org		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - continuous dialogue and participation at six levels: local, municipal, national, inter-regional and global - to develop an overall national strategy and the criteria for project selection - to facilitate dialogue to bring together communities, local authorities and the private sector in order to raise and resolve local issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - projects for participatory governance all over the world, for example: Pakistan: Life has initiated 21 projects in Pakistan addressing urban sanitation, recycling, solid waste management and environmental education issues. In the Programme for Livelihood Improvement in Urban Settlements (PLUS) in which NGOs play a significant role in managing projects.
INTA-AIVN – Association Internationale des Villes Nouvelles	1974 www.inta-aivn.org	47 countries – elected representatives, government agencies, state ministries, regional and provincial authorities, cities, public development corporations, land developers...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - promoting and improving urban development - to create an international forum for the collection, exchange and sharing of information on development of urban areas - to promote effective planning, financing and managing urban development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - conferences - study tours - publication of documentation and advisory issues on urban development issues - assists in establishing relations with their counterparts throughout the world
UNITED CITIES	1957 La Federation Mondiale des Cites Unies 9FMCU): e-mail: Cities.Unies@wanadoo.fr Le Bureau de la Federation Mondiale des Cites Unies au Proche-Orient: e-mail: FMCU.OR@cyberia.net.lb	Program for Middle Eastern Cities *(1996 established): cooperation between European and Arab cities in Jordan, Lebanon and Syria. Programs financed by UN and EU, METAP...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to enable Arab municipalities and local authorities to realize own development projects by expertise exchange 	<p>Examples of current projects:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Urban Planning and Development (Aleppo) - Socio-economic rehabilitation and development (Tartous) - Observation of environment (Tripoli) - Rehabilitation and revitalization (Saïda)

Name of Program	Established/Time period/Contact	Cooperating partners/ Funding/Implementation	Objectives	Activities
WACLAC	1996: www.camval.org/ www.unhabitat.org/partners	Alliance of international associations of cities and local authorities - Arab Towns Organisation - Eurocities - United Towns Organization - Union of African Towns - International Union of Local Authorities Initiated and in cooperation with UNCHS/Habitat	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Promoting local autonomy - Strengthening the voice of cities and local authorities on the international stage - Advancing the role of cities and local authorities in international cooperation - Enhancing the negotiating capacity of cities and local authorities 	<p>Internet facility to retrieve information on local plans of action as well as on policy issues affecting local authority capacity and performance</p> <p>Local authorities are encouraged to submit information to UNCHS (Habitat):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the content of their local plans of action - current local legislative mandates, roles and responsibilities - legislative, institutional and policy constraints affecting local capacity and performance - successful social, economic and environmental practices
IULA	1913 www.iula.org	400 members in 110 countries Cooperation with World Bank, UN and EU	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to develop and maintain a strong democratic political organization - to be an advocate and voice of democratic local government - to be a worldwide source of information - to facilitate learning and capacity building for local democratic governance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - global charter on local autonomy - reporting and monitoring on developments in decentralization and local democracy - "Decentralization for Development" (1966-1991) - promoting and facilitating training and capacity building programs - the establishment of a special Task Force on Decentralization

GLOSSARY OF TERMINOLOGY

The following glossary presents working definitions of terms, which repeatedly appear in the text and are widely used in the literature on development. As there is still no standardized usage for these terms interregional or even internationally, their use may lead to some confusion when attempting to cross-reference definitions or compare them with different contexts.

Community-based organizations (CBOs): Non-profit and/or not-for-profit organizations involved in the delivery of services/goods of a public nature. CBOs can also be considered non-governmental organizations (see definition below), but they specially operate at a local level, targeting beneficiaries at the level of the locality. They are also referred to as grass-roots organizations.

Capacity building: The approach targets to improve, professionalize and strengthen human resource management and technical capabilities as well as institutional capacities and financial viability within public institutions – governmental, administration, local governance -, and at the level of non-governmental organizations (see definition below). Capacity building implies as well networking among institutions with a common interest.

Civil Society: A form of associational life linking individuals to the state. It comprises a variety of non-State actors such as political parties, trade unions, professional associations, non-governmental organizations and community-based organizations. In some context, it is extended to include organizations of the private sector.

Decentralization: Four major forms of decentralization can be identified.

Devolution – transfer of responsibility for governing, understood more broadly – i.e. the creation or strengthening, financially or legally, of sub-national units of governments, whose activities are substantially outside the direct control of central government;

Delegation – assignment of specific decision making authority – i.e. transfer of managerial responsibility for specifically defined functions to public organizations (e.g. local governments or parastatals) outside the normal bureaucratic structure of central government;

Deconcentration – spatial relocation of decision making – the transfer of some administrative responsibility or authority to lower levels within central government ministries or agencies;

Divestment – best treated as decentralization and it occurs when planning and administrative responsibility or other public functions are transferred from government to voluntary, private, or non-governmental institutions with clear benefits to and involvement of the public.²⁵

Empowerment: The process of facilitating a transfer of, or access to, resources for disadvantaged groups or individuals in society. This involves access to economic, social and political power, and has clear implications that beneficiaries have control over the decision-making process concerning the use and allocation of these resources.

Municipalities and Local Governance:

Municipalities and Local Governance are considered as the most decentralized unit of national government at the local level in charge of delivering public services to individuals and businesses. This is

²⁵ Definition according to Cheema and Rondelli (1983), see: Decentralized Governance Monograph: A Global Sampling of Experiences, p. 9.

closely linked to good governance implying inclusion and representation of all groups in urban society, as well as accountability, integrity and transparency of local government.

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs): Organizations within Civil Society involved in the delivery of services/goods of a public nature. They are non-profit or not-for-profit and usually operate on a mixture of voluntary and paid work. NGOs are extremely in structure, scope, level of organization, agendas, sources of funding and constituencies. They are sometimes referred to as voluntary or charitable organizations.

Sustainable development: Promoting economic development while safeguarding natural resources; ensuring that social, environmental, political, economic and institutional development are pursued on equal footing. Increasingly, the concept of sustainability has been consolidating around the theme of human resource development, which advocates incorporating human welfare into any measurement of growth, notably economic growth.

Urban governance: A partnership among the different actors intervening in the production, provision, and allocation of urban services. It implies that the urban environment in all its complexity can only be managed in a multi-institutional framework. Therefore, although it is wider in scope than government, it has an element of good government practice embedded in it, with the aim of promoting democratic, accountable and transparent institutions. At the urban level, governance translates into decentralization of planning, finance and decision-making authority to the municipalities, with enough leeway for community groups to take action and be partners in development.

Urban Management: The concept of Urban Management is closely linked to urban planning, economic development planning and municipal affairs. Is concerned with immediate operations of a range of public services, and with a wide variety of public interventions, which affect urban conditions as a whole, aiming to mobilizing human and financial resources through government and non-governmental organizations. Urban management assumes that policies have already been determined, being in charge of implementing those decisions and guidelines.

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المراجع العربية

فهيمة الشاهد النموذج الإرشادي لتقييم وتوفيق الإدارة الحضرية الفعالة ورقة قدمت لاجتماع الخبراء في منتدى البيئة الحضرية الثاني - للدول العربية ١٩٩٩.

رندة أنطون، بول سالم، عصام سليمان، ملحم شاوول، أنطوان غصين، نواف كبارة، حسن كريم، واقع البلديات في لبنان وعوائق المشاركة المحلية والتنمية المتوازنة.

الأمانة العامة للإدارة المحلية قانون نظام الإدارة المحلية ولائحته التنفيذية ١٩٨٩ جمهورية مصر العربية.

فايز لحدود لحدود معاً نحو مستقبل أفضل من أجل عمشيت وأبنائها والمقيمين فيها "قانون البلديات" ما رأيت من القانون ألترم به أمامكم "نعمل ونحاسب".

عمر عبد العزيز الحلاج الإدارة العمرانية لعملية الحفاظ على المدن التاريخية. ورقة قدمت لاجتماع الخبراء في منتدى البيئة الحضرية الثاني - للدول العربية ١٩٩٩.