

Partnerships for Sustainable Development in Small States

Cletus Springer and John L Roberts



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Commonwealth Secretariat

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Preface

Millennium Development Goal 8 calls for a global partnership for development. This goal sets targets around an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system, addressing the special needs of the least developed countries, landlocked developing countries and small island developing states (SIDS), as well as dealing comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries. This goal recognises the importance of a global effort to achieve development and also that developing countries such as small states cannot achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) without the assistance of the additional community.

The indicators which define MDG 8 fall into categories relating to official development assistance, market access, debt sustainability, access to affordable essential drugs and availability of information and communication technology. Absent from these indicators are the national, regional and international frameworks which are necessary to make an international development partnership possible and successful. This publication on partnerships for small states development explores how such a framework should operate.

The Mauritius Strategy for the further implementation of the Barbados Programme of Action remains the blueprint through which small island developing states pursue sustainable development. Owing to the inherent vulnerability that is a corollary of their size, small states lack the capacity to pursue the sustainable development agenda on their own. For this reason, the Mauritius Strategy called for ‘strengthened co-operation and partnership in support of sustainable development of small island developing states at the national, regional and international levels. Such partnership should be broad-based and ensure the involvement and participation of relevant stakeholders’.

This publication, designed for policy-makers in small states, suggests a number of options on how this partnership should work. The options presented in this publication include an integrated approach linking social, environmental and economic dimensions and a participatory process involving civil society, the private sector and the public sector at the national level. The regional dimension involves working with some well-established and some developing regional processes and engaging them in the pursuit of sustainable development at the regional and inter-regional level. Managing development assistance – including aid architecture – forms a major part of the international dimension of partnerships for development. The publication also sets forth a number of solutions to the various challenges experienced in forming partnerships for development.

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Abbreviations and acronyms

ACCP	Assembly of Caribbean Community Parliamentarians
AIMS	Atlantic, Indian Ocean, Mediterranean and South China Seas
CARICOM	Caribbean Community
CFTC	Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation
CSME	Caribbean Single Market and Economy
CSR	corporate social responsibility
DSP	Dominant Social Paradigm
IEG	Independent Group (of the World Bank)
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MEA	multilateral environmental agreement
NEP	New Environmental Paradigm
NGO	non-governmental organisation
NSDS	national sustainable development strategy
OAS	Organization of American States
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
S&T	science and technology
SIDS	small island developing states
WTO	World Trade Organization

Towards Effective Partnerships for the Development of Small Island States

Cletus I Springer

Introduction

Seminal UN Conferences over the past two decades have shown that a strong consensus has emerged globally about the special circumstances of small island developing states (SIDS). The conferences on Environment and Development (Brazil, 1992), Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States (Barbados, 1994) and its follow-up meeting in Mauritius (2005), as well as the Commonwealth Secretariat/World Bank Joint Task Force on Small States (2000) agreed that these circumstances are rooted in their economic, social and environmental vulnerability including:

- A high degree of economic openness that makes them highly susceptible to economic conditions in the rest of the world;
- Dependence on a narrow range of exports, giving rise to risks associated with lack of diversification;
- Dependence on strategic imports, in particular energy, construction and industrial supplies, exacerbated by limited import substitution possibilities;
- Insularity, peripherality and remoteness, leading to high transport costs and marginalisation from the main commercial centres (Briguglio, 2004);
- Small populations and thin markets which constrain their efforts to reap the benefits of economies of scale, and which lead to high infrastructural, administrative and other overhead costs, and pose additional constraints such as limited attraction for foreign direct investment (FDI);
- A high degree of susceptibility to geophysical events such as floods, droughts, storms, hurricanes, and earthquakes; and
- Vulnerability of biological resources to natural and industrial disasters.

Moreover, it is accepted that (i) small size engenders natural monopolies and oligopolistic structures in SIDS leading to high consumer costs and that (ii) transforming a government monopoly to private business may even make matters worse, due to the fact that private business is often less accountable to consumers than the public sector.

It is acknowledged within and among SIDS, as well as among actors in the international development community, that the development challenges facing SIDS cannot be addressed in a vacuum. Development requires an institutional architecture for integrated development planning that allows SIDS to manage their respective economic, infrastructural and environmental assets and spaces within a culture of co-operation, collaboration and partnership at local, national, regional and international levels.

This chapter reviews the progress that has been made nationally, regionally and internationally in promoting the practice of partnerships for small states' development. The chapter is set out in four sections. After the introduction the second section briefly explores the roots and branches of the partnership concept. The third section highlights select areas of progress and challenge with partnerships at the national, regional and international levels and offers some policy recommendations for overcoming such challenges and advancing progress. A fourth section concludes the chapter.

Notions of partnership

Partnerships are commonly defined as 'voluntary and collaborative relationships between state and non-state parties, in which all participants agree to work together to achieve a common purpose or undertake a specific task and to share risks, responsibilities, resources, competencies and benefits' (2005 Report of the UN Secretary-General, to UN General Assembly, A/60/214, para 8, pp. 4). Generally, partnerships seek to identify common interests between actors in the development process at the national, regional and international level and to combine the resources of these actors towards the attainment of agreed development objectives. Partnerships may focus on the many areas where private actors and public institutions can engage in mutually beneficial relationships, such as poverty reduction, health, education and environmental sustainability. Effective partnerships may enable development actors to:

- Overcome challenges that are too difficult or complex for one country, organisation or sector to address by itself;
- Increase the effectiveness and impact of policy interventions and resource inputs;
- Better achieve their own individual objectives through leveraging, combining and capitalising on complementary strengths and capabilities; and
- Leverage support for implementation of development programmes.

The UN identifies three broad types of partnerships:

- (a) **Core business** partnerships in which partners collaborate to create employment and foster entrepreneurship, contribute to economic growth, generate tax revenues, implement social, environmental or ethical standards and provide appropriate and affordable goods and services.

- (b) **Social investment and philanthropy** partnerships in which the private sector and non-profit organisations provide financial support, contribute volunteers or expertise, or make in-kind contributions, including product donations.
- (c) **Advocacy and awareness-raising** partnerships in which the private sector partners with other stakeholders such as NGOs to take a leadership role in championing, advocating for, and contributing to resolving different issues. In this arrangement, companies often partner with governments and regulatory bodies, and participate in legitimate dialogues and collective action with stakeholders from diverse sectors of the economy.

While recognising the importance of all of the above forms of partnership to the sustainable development of SIDS, this chapter focuses mainly on core business partnerships involving governments, the private sector, non-governmental organisations and international development partners.

The national dimension

The governance imperative

It has been theorised that the characteristics of smallness should naturally enable more effective partnerships between and among state and non-state actors and help to forge consensus on development objectives and the manner in which such objectives can be pursued. However, the strength and impact of partnerships at any level depends heavily on several factors such as political culture, and the quality and effectiveness of governance arrangements at the sub-national, national, regional and global levels. The reality is that in most SIDS these objective conditions either do not exist or are not mature enough to support strong and sustained partnership activities. As the Nobel Laureate, Sir Arthur Lewis, noted in his *Agony of the Eight*, various political, social and cultural tensions exist in small states that can severely weaken the foundation of governance on which effective partnerships are built.

‘In a small island dominated by a single party, it is very difficult to prevent political abuse. Everybody depends on the government for something, however small, so most are reluctant to offend it. The civil servants live in fear; the police avoid unpleasantness; the trade unions are tied to the party; the newspaper depends on government advertisements; and so on. This is true even if the political leaders are absolutely honest. In cases where there are corrupt and play with public funds the situation becomes intolerable’ (Lewis, 1965).¹

A review of the literature reveals greater clarity about how governance works than about what it is. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, n.d.) believes that governance and government go hand in hand and that:

‘Good effective public governance helps to strengthen democracy and human rights, promote economic prosperity and social cohesion, reduce poverty, enhance environmental protection and the sustainable use of natural resources and deepen confidence in government and public administration’.²

The most widely cited definition of governance is the one articulated by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 1997, p.5) as ‘the exercise of economic, political

and administrative authority to manage a country's affairs at all levels' (UNDP, 1997). In this perspective, governance comprises the mechanisms, processes, and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences (Singh, 2003, p.474).

From an aggregation of the various definitions it is clear that governance is a complex, long-term process whose successful outcome is dependent on a variety of factors including: (a) the national political culture; (b) the state of mind of the citizenry, in particular their capacity for self-actualisation, self-empowerment and innovation; (c) the flexibility and responsiveness of the policy and the institutional framework to internal and external stimuli; and (d) respect for human rights and for the rule of law.

This chapter does not set out to address these issues fully and focuses instead on those governance structures and processes that can best support partnerships that are integrated and participatory and that facilitate the requisite consensus building among partners engaged in the national and/or regional development process. Ideally, all partners should share the same vision and should be routinely engaged in a careful examination of development options and the design of clear strategies, programmes and plans for effective mobilisation and utilisation of human, financial, technological and natural resources.

It has been argued that traditional development planning arrangements do not provide adequate space for the active and sustained participation of state and non-state actors in the development process in SIDS. To correct this shortcoming, SIDS have been encouraged to consider Integrated Development Planning (IDP) described as 'a holistic, dynamic and fully participatory approach to development planning that integrates and co-ordinates economic, cultural, social, environmental, demographic, financial and spatial dimensions into the planning process to ensure the effective and sustainable use of available human, financial and natural resources for the benefit of all'.³ This approach incorporates social, environmental, physical and economic parameters with the direct involvement of local institutions, stakeholders and political leadership.

The adoption of an integrated approach, linking social, environmental and economic parameters is crucial to the promotion of sustainable development. The separate and combined effects of these parameters have not normally been considered during the planning process in SIDS. Chapter 10 of the Barbados Programme of Action on National Institutions and Administrative Capacity regards the integration of environmental considerations into the national decision-making process as the single most important step to be taken by SIDS to ensure that their environmental problems are addressed and that the principles of sustainability guide all future development. It asserts that economic imperatives must be evaluated from the perspective of socio-environmental considerations if the natural resource base is to be preserved. It advocates the adoption of interdisciplinary approaches to planning and decision-making, as well as the sustained public participation in the process.

Over the past two decades SIDS have attempted to identify and implement various modes of IDP. In most SIDS laws exist that require the participation of civil society representatives on management boards of statutory corporations. Several SIDS governments, including St Lucia, Antigua and Barbuda, Grenada, Barbados and Mauritius, have attempted to broaden participation by non-state actors in the decision-making process. One way in which

they have achieved this is through the establishment of national sustainable development councils. However, the effectiveness and influence of these arrangements on policy making, as well as their longevity, have tended to be highly sensitive to changes in government. It has been argued that the mere fact that changes in government should engender uncertainty about the fate of a national policy or plan that is the product of broad-based consultations is an indication that the tenets of participatory governance are not deeply rooted and widely shared among the citizenry.

At the same time, new governments have argued that they are under no obligation to continue with the policies or plans of preceding administrations. Neither argument is without merit. However, what is critical is an abiding commitment by all political actors to the principles of participatory governance. Adherence to these principles would oblige any new administration to seek to change existing policies through the same channels and procedures by which the original instrument was created.

Additional challenges to the process of participatory governance include:

- Perceptions among the political directorate that a commitment to consultation and collaboration with non-elected, non-state actors will weaken their political power;
- The influence of electoral cycles on policy and programme design and implementation;
- High levels of partisanship among the citizenry;
- The compartmentalised nature of decision-making in the public sector which does not allow for routine participation by non-state actors and which does not allow for proper analysis of the integrated effects of sectoral policies;
- Weak decision support systems that do not routinely take account of the contribution of natural assets to economic growth and social development and that do not properly track changes in the quantity and quality of these assets;
- Challenges in the use of sustainable development indicators, including a lack of data and development capacity, of international harmonisation efforts, of further indicator development in 'less advanced' substantive areas, and of training in integrated information management (Shah, 2004, p.4); and
- Low capacity among non-state actors to sustain their roles in participatory decision-making.

Non-state actors and the governance process

Civil society⁴ is probably the largest single factor in development, if not in terms of its monetary contribution, in its human contribution and its experience and history (Wolfensohn, 1999).⁵ The capacity of civil society actors and institutions can have a significant bearing on the quality of both the participatory governance process as well as on the outputs and outcomes of that process. To participate effectively in such processes, to reduce the likelihood of stalemates or lopsided outcomes and increase the prospect of consensus through compromise, civil society actors should have a sound grasp of the issues under consideration as well as appropriate negotiating skills.

Historically, there has been very little involvement of civil society in the design, implementation and evaluation stages of development policy. While there has been

some improvement in recent years, participation by civil society organisations (CSOs) in national and regional governance has tended to be restricted to unique events. Where institutionalised mechanisms for participation exist, the low capacity of CSOs has severely limited their ability to participate effectively in the planning and decision-making process. The heavy dependence of some of these organisations on government subventions has tended to weaken their legitimacy and independence. In addition, the civil society sector tends to be highly fragmented and past attempts to improve co-ordination have met with limited success.

The commitment of politicians to the involvement of civil society in planning and decision-making has frequently been questioned. In some cases, the level of politicisation within civil society itself has militated against sustained and effective civil society participation in planning and decision-making. Also constraining participation is the limited pool of competent participants. Given the small, island nature of SIDS, there has been a tendency for the same people to be repeatedly involved in consultations leading to complaints of consultation fatigue and a lack of post-consultation implementation. Efforts are underway in several SIDS to develop local democratic structures. However, concerns are often expressed as to whether such local structures would increase bureaucracy and costs. Encouragingly, many CSOs have taken steps to strengthen their capability in project design and implementation, which has in turn enabled them to access more financing from traditional and non-traditional sources. Further, many environmental non-governmental organisations (NGOs) at the national, regional and international level are making a more conscious effort to demonstrate the links between conservation, human wellbeing and development.

The private sector in many SIDS faces its own governance challenges which limit its overall impact on development as well as its ability to contribute to decision making. Generally the sector is in poor shape, as reflected by:

- A lack of enforcement of company laws;
- Limited stakeholder participation in companies;
- Limited human resource capabilities in the relevant areas;
- Inadequate treatment of the rights of minority shareholders;
- Ineffective and unclear guidelines for accountability by board members of corporations;
- Poorly equipped judicial systems; and
- A strong interlocking relationship between government and the financial sector.

In addition, the disposition of the private sector towards profit maximisation and its traditionally low regard for environmental sustainability and for workers' rights has tended to create an antagonistic relationship between it and environmental groups. In recent years the relationship between the private sector and governments on the one hand and NGOs on the other has begun to improve under a growing awareness that there is no inherent, absolute contradiction between corporate survival and human survival. Many businesses in SIDS have begun to embrace corporate social responsibility (CSR), defined by the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) as 'the continuing commitment by a business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving

the quality of life of the workforce, their families and the local community and society at large' (WBCSD 1998, p.3). Increasingly, CSR is being seen by firms and businesses as a formula for long-term success, a means of helping to create a more inspired workforce and a more rewarding working environment and as a means of bonding with consumers and host communities. However, CSR is deemed to have been achieved only when a business adapts its practices to ensure that it operates in ways that meet or exceed the ethical, legal, commercial and public expectations that society has of that business. In this regard, it can be said that the private sector in many SIDS has some way yet to go before it can be described as a firm adherent to the CSR ethic.

Given these significant challenges facing the development partners at the national level, it is perhaps unreasonable to expect anything more than measured, moderate progress in the formation of true and firm partnerships and in the establishment and effective functioning of IDP arrangements in particular and participatory governance in general in SIDS.

The regional dimension

Partnership is implied in the very notion of regionalism, that is, a process wherein two or more entities undertake to co-operate with each other, over one or more aspects of their individual and mutual development. The fact that many SIDS are embracing regionalism as a means of mitigating the constraints posed by smallness means that effective IDP at a supranational level is also critical. For example, member countries of the Pacific Island Forum (PIF) have committed to a South Pacific Regional Trade and Economic Cooperation Agreement (SPARTECA), a non-reciprocal agreement in which two developed countries – Australia and New Zealand – offer duty-free, unrestricted and/or concessional access for almost all products originating from other PIF Member States.⁶ Caribbean Community (CARICOM) SIDS have committed to the establishment of a Single Market and Economy (CSME), details of which are shown in Box 1.1.⁷

The same strictures and weaknesses identified with participatory governance and IDP at the national level also exist at the regional level. Regional intergovernmental arrangements in SIDS such as the OECS and CARICOM (in the Caribbean) and the PIF for the most part constitute partnerships among governments. The decision-making structures of these organisations provide limited opportunity for meaningful, sustained participation by civil society organisations. In the case of CARICOM, there is partial involvement of labour and the private sector in meetings of various organs such as the Council on Trade and Economic Development (COTED) and of heads of government. However, as Lewis (2003, p. 523–524) has noted, a deepening, widening and strengthening of participatory arrangements is now being demanded by the following circumstances:

- The changing nature of regional economic integration such that the creation of a single market in combination with market liberalisation of the wider environment calls for a larger role for the private sector as opposed to the state sector and for a more formal integration of this sector into the policy design and implementation process;
- The focus on labour and environment as significant issues within the World Trade Organization (WTO) negotiation process; and

Box 1.1 The Caribbean Single Market and Economy (CSME)

The centrepiece of CARICOM's trade and economic development policy is the CSME. It aims to reconstitute 15 formerly separate and distinct economies into a single economic space. In the process, it will alter the trajectory of their development and their relationship with each other and with other economic systems in the rest of the world. The *raison d'être* for the CSME is underpinned by the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas, which envisages that the respective markets of the Caribbean shall be reconstituted as a single market by the removal of existing barriers, not only to the trade in goods, but to the trade in services, capital flows, technology; the free movement of skilled persons; and the right of establishment of enterprise anywhere in the region. The Revised Treaty also provides for the reconfiguration of the separate domestic economies into a single economy through:

- The harmonised co-ordination and convergence of macroeconomic policy;
- The implementation of common external trade policy;
- The harmonisation and co-ordinated development of the productive economic sectors and small and micro-enterprises;
- Collaboration in relation to the management of monetary and exchange rate affairs;
- Joint regional actions in relation to the development of capital markets, standards setting and enforcement of a community-wide competition policy and consumer protection measures; and
- The creation of new regional institutions to implement regional policies in the related areas.

In pursuit of the objective of equitable development, the Revised Treaty makes specific allowance to accord special and differential treatment to those countries, especially in the OECS, that enter the process as less developed countries (LDCs). It also sets out the processes by which countries, regions or sectors which experienced disadvantages as a result of the workings of the regional integration process can seek and attain redress. To bolster consumer and investor confidence in the certainty, predictability and fairness in the application of measures relating to the CSME, new modes of mediation and dispute settlement have been embedded in the Revised Treaty, to be applied by the Caribbean Court of Justice (CCJ), which has been vested with the compulsory and exclusive jurisdiction to hear and determine disputes concerning the interpretation of the Revised Treaty. Chapter 4 of the Revised Treaty reflects the wide-ranging, intersectoral nature of the CSME. It outlines areas for co-operation in the articulation and implementation of policies and programmes for sectoral development, including:

- A charter for micro and small economic enterprise development;
- A common agriculture policy;
- A framework for regional human resources development;
- Regional technological programmes;
- A community investment policy;
- A policy for environmental and intellectual property protection; and
- Harmonised legislation in areas such as investment incentives, customs, taxation, companies and competition policy.

As part of the CSME process, a number of new regional institutions are required, including:

- A Regional Competition Commission;
- A Caribbean Regional Organisation for Standards and Quality;
- A Regional Accreditation Unit; and
- A Regional Development Fund.

- The continuing engagement of governments in international economic negotiations requires an established 'knowledge techno-structure' for providing appropriate information and for designing appropriate negotiating strategies, roles that to some extent have been fulfilled by the Caribbean Regional Negotiating Machinery (CRNM).

Lewis' observations are supported by Byron (2003, p.75) who calls for different models of political units to be explored to maximise community and societal participation including with diasporic communities and to strengthen the economic viability of SIDS. It is unclear how CARICOM intends to facilitate the sustained participation of civil society that is necessary to give full effect to the provisions of Chapter 4 of the Revised Treaty of Chaguaramas as they relate to initiatives such as the design of a charter for small and medium enterprises (SMEs). What is clear is that current avenues such as the COTED are not adequate for this purpose.

The absence of effective participation by opposition parties and civil society in regional governance arrangements has long been recognised as a serious constraint to the emergence of meaningful development partnerships in SIDS. Recognition of this fact is reflected in the adoption in 1997 by CARICOM Heads of Government of a Charter on Civil Society (COCS) and their decision in 1996 to establish an Assembly of Caribbean Community Parliamentarians (ACCP). The Charter is made up of 27 articles that define the civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights of Caribbean citizens, while generally promoting racial harmony, sustainable development and economic growth.⁸ In the document CARICOM heads pledged their commitment 'to create a truly participatory political environment within the Caribbean Community which will be propitious to genuine consultation in the process of governance'. Two major weaknesses in the Charter include its definition of social partners as those entities 'recognised by the State' - a requirement which the Centre for International Environmental Law (CIEL, 2003:5) rightly regards as a top-down, positivist definition which carries the potential for discrimination of disfavoured groups and marginalisation of groups without the means to institutionalise.⁹ A second weakness is its failure to address the participation of civil society within the governance of CARICOM itself. The Liliendaal Statement of Principles adopted at a Civil Society 'Forward Together' Conference held in Guyana in July 2002, tackles this weakness in acknowledging that 'Civil society has a vital role to play in the development of regional, political and social policies, the development of those programmes and frameworks currently in existence, their modification, where necessary, and the creation of new areas as required'.¹⁰

The ACCP has not fared much better. A Prime Ministerial Expert Group on Governance (PMEGG) established in 2003, recommended that (a) the ACCP should be strengthened to ensure that it functioned as an authentic regional body; (b) it should continue to function as a consultative and deliberative body; (c) its members should comprise both government and opposition parliamentarians; and (d) its observers should be expanded to cater for the participation of civil society organisations. However, by 2006 a Technical Working Group on Governance established by CARICOM Heads of Government encouraged that the recommendations of the PMEGG be implemented.¹¹

The weaknesses in the governance arrangements in CARICOM also apply, albeit in smaller measure to the member countries of the PIF, 14 of which have committed to the Pacific Island Countries Trade Agreement (PICTA) which aims to establish a Free Trade Area for goods. Under Initiative 12.3 of the Pacific Plan, the PIF aims to pursue a good governance programme that covers work on harmonisation of traditional and modern governance values and structures, traditional courts, media, freedom of information, parliamentary effectiveness, peace building and conflict resolution, landownership models, tenure and use, good governance education and governance indicators.¹² The PIF has recognised the importance of engaging in regular dialogue with the private sector and supported the design and implementation of a private sector development strategy, which in turn led to the formation in 1996 of a Pacific Islands Private Sector Organisation (PIPPSO) to represent the private sector at regional level, public-private sector dialogue, as well as to build the capacity of national private sector organisations and strengthen their role during in-country consultative processes.

The lack of effective private sector participation in national and regional governance accounts in part for the low level of public-private sector partnerships in financing the implementation of development programmes. The two sectors continue to function largely from separate domains. Examples of investments by the private sector in public sector investment projects are connected mainly with: Build, Own, Lease and Transfer (BOLT) and Build Own, Operate and Transfer (BOOT) schemes; joint financing of regional tourism marketing campaigns and in land-development schemes. However, even in these areas, private sector participation is led primarily by the banking sector. Public-private sector partnerships in non-financial spheres, such as education, social development, environmental conservation, and crime management are increasing, but primarily in a philanthropic context. The University of the South Pacific (USP) and the University of the West Indies (UWI) are prime beneficiaries of private sector largesse through endowments, research grants and funded chairs.

The private sector in SIDS is even less active in international sustainable development events and follow-up initiatives. This is partly due to the fact that such events are structured and promoted as government-only events. This is certainly the case with the Multilateral Environmental Agreements, which are negotiated in Conferences of the Parties in which the 'parties' are exclusively governments. Additionally, most private sector actors in SIDS are small businesspersons who are unable to devote the time and resources to attending meetings in distant world capitals. As a consequence, the private sector in SIDS has been slow to react to trends in many critical sustainable development issues such as climate change, sustainable manufacturing, and renewable energy technologies. This also accounts for the private sector's low uptake of the benefits of the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) – an environmental investment and credit scheme which is intended to spur low-carbon development by allowing a country with an emission-reduction or emission-limitation commitment under the Kyoto Protocol (Annex B Party) to implement an emission-reduction project in developing countries. Such projects can earn saleable certified reduction credits each equivalent to one tonne of CO₂, which can be counted towards meeting the targets of the Kyoto Protocol.¹³

The international dimension

Over the past two decades there have been encouraging developments on several fronts in global partnerships, involving and benefiting SIDS, triggered in part by global issues such as HIV/AIDS, environment, climate change and natural disasters, food security, water security and poverty, and sustained by seminal global events such as the UN Conferences on Environment and Development, on Sustainable Development and on Climate Change (which produced Agenda 21, the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation and the Climate Change Convention and the Kyoto Protocol respectively); and the Millennium Summit which produced the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Nearly all the major inter-governmental organisations have devised policies and mechanisms to promote the sustained involvement and participation of the private sector in regional and global initiatives. Included among these mechanisms are regional networks which increasingly playing important roles in sharing and harmonising best practices, and facilitating co-ordination among state and non-state actors.

Generally, these developments have helped to galvanise stronger global awareness of the relevant issues and a growing commitment by international development partners to respond in tangible ways including through new – though not additional – financing for various causes such as the Global Fund to Fight Aids (GFFA) and the Global Environment Facility (GEF). There is a growing recognition too, that in an era of increasing integration of financial markets and national and regional economies, through trade in goods and services, transfer of technology and production chains, that no single government has the power or the authority to impose a solution and that market forces alone will not solve the problem (Bhargava, 2006, p.2). With this recognition has come the notion of ‘global public goods’ defined by the International Task Force on Global Public Goods as goods and services that ‘address issues that: (i) are deemed important to the international community to both developed and developing countries; (ii) typically cannot be adequately addressed by individual countries or entities acting alone; and in such cases are best addressed collectively on a multilateral basis. Included among these goods and services are environmental assets such as a stable world climate, energy, clean and fresh water, fisheries and forests which are deemed to be part of the global commons.’¹⁴

Concomitant with the intensification and complexity of these global issues is the growing demand for reforms to make global governance systems within the UN and WTO, as well as within international financial institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank and Inter-American Development Bank (IADB), more effective and responsive. Embedded in this plethora of global issues are a host of challenges and opportunities for SIDS. Because decisions about the resolution or advancement of these issues are normally negotiated in global forums, SIDS are unable to participate effectively in these events and adequately to track emerging issues. The growing number and increasing complexity of international sustainable development agreements (ISDAs), and the amount of time consumed in their negotiation, are posing serious challenges for SIDS. While funding is normally made available to participate in these events, the opportunity cost of attending them is extremely high, especially for small and overburdened national delegations. SIDS delegations have argued that their ability to participate effectively in these conferences is

affected by the way the meetings are structured and by their inability adequately to cover the large number of simultaneous committee/working group meetings that characterise these conferences. In some cases, SIDS delegations are not able to match the amount of preparation undertaken by their counterparts from the developed countries.

These challenges have led to intra-regional and inter-regional partnerships among SIDS involving inter alia, pooling of their scarce human, technical and financial resources to ensure qualitative and quantitative representation in various negotiating theatres especially those dealing with trade, and sustainable development issues. Concrete examples of this response include the establishment of the Caribbean Regional Negotiating Machinery (CRNM) to represent the interests of the Caribbean in negotiations on the Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA) with the European Union (EU), in which the CRNM acted in concert with Pacific and African SIDS in the context of the ACP grouping. Of interest too is the fact that the work of the CRNM continues to receive support from several international development partners such as Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) and the EU.

The EPA marks a fundamental change in the character and structure of longstanding trade relations between the EU and ACP states. Essentially, it has replaced non-reciprocal trading arrangements for goods and services between states, which had existed for more than four decades, with a trade partnership. The EPA extends 100 per cent duty-free and quota-free market access to the EU from each region (with rules of origin provisions) while requiring ACP countries to open up their markets to a lesser extent, (on average 80 per cent) within 15 years. The agreement reached with CARIFORUM states has been roundly criticised in some quarters on legal, moral and technical grounds. More germane to the thrust of this chapter, however, are the concerns expressed about the rushed nature of the negotiations which did not allow for adequate consultation with partners at the national and regional level.

The EPA carries certain challenges for CARIFORUM states including a loss of tariff revenues (and thus requiring new forms of domestic tax and tax administration), complicated rules of origin that require simplification and liberalisation as well as fulfilment of EU standards and responding to enhanced market access. These criticisms and challenges suggest that the goals of a trade partnership between the EU and the CARIFORUM states will take some time to materialise.

Another concrete example of SIDS-SIDS co-operation is the Alliance of Small Islands States (AOSIS) details of which are shown in Box 1.2. Since its formation, AOSIS has played a critical and valiant role in negotiations of multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs) within the framework of the Conference of Parties (COPs) to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) as well as UN Conferences on sustainable development issues. With support from UNDP (Capacity 2015)¹⁵, the Commonwealth Secretariat and CARICOM, AOSIS has been able to forge effective partnerships in many related areas such as research on renewable energy policy and technology, vulnerability and resilience, science and technology, water resources management and human resources management. Further collaboration is promised through the University Consortium of Small States (UCSIS) which was launched in January 2005 at the Mauritius International Meeting to review the Implementation of the Barbados Programme of Action.

It is for its work on climate change that AOSIS is best known. Here partnerships have been forged at the political, diplomatic, technocratic and institutional levels, within and among SIDS. Inter-regional collaboration on climate research is on-going between the Caribbean Community Climate Change Centre (CCCCC) and the South Pacific Applied Geosciences Commission (SOPAC) and the Secretariat for the South Pacific Regional Environmental Programme (SPREP) (see Box 1.2 for background on the CCCCC). The CCCCC has built impressive technical and financial partnerships with a growing number of governments (including Japan, Italy, Greece and Trinidad and Tobago) and research institutions such as the UN Hadley Centre, INSMET of Cuba and Potsdam Climate Centre in Germany.

Box 1.2 The Caribbean Community Climate Change Centre (CCCCC)

The CCCCC was established in 2002, following a decision of the heads of CARICOM reached in July 2000. The Centre is a CARICOM institution whose purpose is to implement and co-ordinate activities for member countries stemming from the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). The Centre serves as an articulating mechanism for mainstreaming the climate change agenda into the way public and private institutions operate. Specifically, the Centre functions as:

- An advisory body to the CARICOM Secretariat and its member countries on climate change policy;
- A source of scientific and technical information on climate change and its potential impacts in the region;
- A co-ordinating body for climate change adaptation and mitigation activities, enhancing the institutional effectiveness and maximising synergies and cross-sectoral links among multiple stakeholders, national and regional institutions (public and private); and
- As a resource mobilisation and devolution institution for regional and national activities in the field of climate change.

Box 1.3 The Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS)

AOSIS is a coalition of small, island, and low-lying coastal countries that share similar development challenges and concerns about the environment, especially their vulnerability to the adverse effects of global climate change. It functions primarily as an ad hoc lobby and negotiating voice on climate change and sustainable development issues within the United Nations system.

AOSIS has a membership of 43 countries and observers, drawn from all oceans and regions of the world: Africa, Caribbean, Indian Ocean, Mediterranean, Pacific and South China Sea. Thirty-seven states and observers are members of the United Nations; close to 28 per cent of developing countries, and 20 per cent of the UN's total membership. Together, SIDS communities constitute some five per cent of the global population.

Member states of AOSIS work together, primarily through their respective missions to the United Nations. AOSIS functions on the basis of consultation and consensus. Major policy decisions are taken during plenary sessions at ambassadorial level. The Alliance does not have a formal Charter. There is no regular budget, nor a Secretariat. With the Permanent Representative of Grenada as its current chair, AOSIS operates, as it did under previous chairs, out of the chair's mission to the United Nations.

Effective participation in international meetings is, however, only a small part of the challenge. Most SIDS are experiencing extreme difficulty in creating the requisite policy and institutional framework to implement MEAs. The situation has not been helped by the fragmented nature of the institutional arrangements at the national level, nor by the lack of co-ordination and synergy among the various international conventions. While there are divergent views on the scope and seriousness of the implications of this fragmented governance for the effectiveness of MEAs, the Secretariats of the respective MEAs acknowledge that strengthened co-ordination has the potential to improve the output, outcomes and impacts of MEA effectiveness by promoting the coherence of rules and norms, sending mutually enforcing signals about behavioural change and ensuring the desired impacts of one regime on the environment do not undermine the impacts of another..

Addressing these problems will require aggressive legislative reform, a strong cadre of people trained in law, and strengthened technical capacity in the cross-sectoral demands of sustainable development. The situation also demands a sustained capacity-building effort to build a corps of competent negotiators in the mould of the CRNM to represent various SIDS regions at international environmental forums. The SIDS University Consortium should be invited to support this effort by designing and delivering modules in International Environmental Law and Environmental Diplomacy. Further, each region should design external relations strategies to facilitate the sustained involvement and the participation of regional diplomats assigned to international bodies, in negotiating ISDAs.

The challenges of managing development assistance

The heightened participation of SIDS in global negotiations has not brought about measureable increases in development assistance or in the transfer of appropriate technologies in key areas of vulnerability reduction and resilience building, such as renewable energy technologies (RETs). While new sources of funding have been created, including through the Global Environment Facility (GEF) and the Global AIDS Fund, development assistance to developing countries and to SIDS in particular has not met the target of 0.7 per cent of gross national income (GNI) pledged by members of the OECD and falls well short of the funding needed by the SIDS to build their resilience to climate change.

Ensuring the effective use of funds made available through bilateral, multilateral and global partnership arrangements has proven to be challenging for recipients and donors alike. Many SIDS do not have the requisite capacity simultaneously to handle multiple projects and to process the policy conditionalities attached to some types of development assistance. Many SIDS continue to insist that the totality and wide variety of donor requirements and processes for preparing, delivering and monitoring development assistance are generating unproductive transaction costs and deplete their limited capacity. Furthermore, the case has often been made that donor practices do not always fit well with national development priorities and systems including their budget, programmes and project planning cycles, public expenditure and financial management systems.

The international donor community has begun to heed these criticisms. The 2005 Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, which builds on the 2003 Rome Declaration and the 2004 Roundtable on Managing for Development, was endorsed by officials from about 90 countries

and 27 aid agencies. Consistent with the commitments given, the community has agreed to mutual accountability in carrying out the partnership agreements on both sides and has introduced a variety of measures to harmonise operational procedures at the highest standard. The key goals are to reduce transaction costs and make ODA and delivery more flexible, taking into account national development needs and objectives while emphasising country ownership, participation, partnership and a holistic approach to diagnosis and policy development. Aid for budgets and programmes rather than individual projects is also being stressed, coupled with the adaptation of instruments to deal with institutional capacity (OECD, 2003).

The Rome Declaration on Harmonisation conveys the acknowledgement of international donor agencies that, while their historical origins, institutional mandates, governance structures and authorising environments may vary, there is significant scope for simplifying and harmonising their requirements and reducing associated costs, while improving fiduciary oversight and public accountability as well as enhancing the focus on concrete development results.¹⁶ The agencies have committed to:

- Ensuring that development assistance is delivered in accordance with partner-country priorities, and that harmonisation efforts are adapted to the country context;
- Review and identify ways to amend individual countries' policies, procedures and practices to facilitate harmonisation;
- Work to reduce donor missions, reviews and reporting, to streamline conditionalities and simplify and harmonise documentation;
- Implement progressively, the good practices or principles in development assistance delivery and management, taking into account specific country circumstances;
- Intensify donor efforts to work through delegated co-operation at the country level and increase the flexibility of country-based staff to manage country programmes and projects more effectively;
- Provide support for country analyses in ways that will strengthen governments' ability to assume a greater leadership role and take ownership of development results;
- Work with partner governments to forge stronger partnerships and to improve the policy relevance, quality, delivery and efficiency of country analytic work;
- Provide budget sector, or balance-of-payments support where it is consistent with the mandate of the donor and when appropriate policy and fiduciary arrangements are in place; and
- Promote harmonised approaches in global and regional programmes.

However, the Independent Evaluation Group (IEG, 2007, p xvi-xvii) of the World Bank in a series of evaluations undertaken in 2007 found that, while many development issues call for partnerships among neighbouring countries, for example to manage water and other natural resources, to facilitate trade and transport, to provide for reliable sources of energy and to protect against the spread of disease, international development assistance is organised mainly to support programmes in individual countries with only 3 per cent of total aid devoted to regional programmes. Further, the IEG noted that, even though regional programmes are inherently more complicated than single country programmes, World Bank-supported programmes have been as effective in achieving their objectives as single

country programmes. The success factors cited by the IEG for the superior performance of regional programmes include:

- Addressing the political economy of relations among neighbouring countries;
- Clear delineation and co-ordination of roles of national and regional organisations;
- Strong country commitment to regional co-operation;
- Matching scope of objectives with national and regional capacities; and
- Planning for long-term sustainability of programmes.

This is not to say that regional programmes do not present significant challenges. The IEG found that some countries participating in World Bank-supported regional programmes have shown little interest in paying for continued regional level activities, except when costs can be covered by self-generating revenue such as rents and licensing fees. The Management of the Bank in its response to the IEG Report cited the ‘free-rider’ problem whereby countries try to reap benefits without meeting the costs. While overcoming these challenges will not be easy, significant progress can be made through regular dialogue between donors and recipient countries. The framework for such dialogue exists in both the Caribbean and Pacific regions.

Interaction between the Caribbean and the international donor community is facilitated through biannual meetings of the Caribbean Forum for Development (CFD) formerly called the Caribbean Group for Cooperation in Economic Development (CGCED). The CGCED/CFD has made an important contribution to the three major objectives of resource mobilisation, aid co-ordination and policy dialogue between, on the one hand, the Caribbean’s public and private sectors and the worldwide private sector. It has also helped to inform regional and national policy through the preparation of technical papers on a number of wide-ranging themes. Its analyses have helped to focus the attention of donors and governments alike on these core issues and have provided the necessary consensus for the emergence of successful regional programmes.

Box 1.4 Pacific Aid Effectiveness Principles

1. Country leadership and ownership of development through an accountable and transparent national development planning and financial management mechanism which is adequately resourced from the national budget including longer-term maintenance of donor sponsored development.
2. Multi-year commitments by development partners aligned to nationally identified priorities as articulated in national sustainable development strategies with agreement on performance indicators and monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.
3. Greater Pacific ownership of regional development.
4. Pacific development partners and countries pursue a co-ordinated approach in the delivery of assistance – encouraging harmonisation will be a priority for both.
5. Strengthen institutional mechanisms and capacity in countries to enable increased use of local systems by development partners.
6. Provision of technical assistance including for aid co-ordination in such a way as to ensure that capacity is built with tangible benefits to the country to support national ownership.
7. Use of an agreed monitoring framework that will ensure joint assessment of the implementation of agreed commitments on aid effectiveness.

The Pacific region also has regular dialogue with its development partners as part of annual meetings of the PIF. This interaction is conditioned by the Pacific Aid Effectiveness Principles which are fashioned after the Rome and Paris Declarations (see Box 1.4 for details). Since 1989, the Forum has held post-Forum dialogues with key dialogue partners at ministerial level. There are currently 14 partners – The EU, Canada, Peoples’ Republic of China, European Union, France, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand, United Kingdom and the United States.

Partnerships for bridging the technology divide

Successive ISDAs have acknowledged that access to appropriate technology is absolutely crucial to resilience building in SIDS. Several national science and technology (S&T) policies adopted in SIDS recognise that economic development and wealth creation activities, the development of agriculture, health systems, manufacturing and industry and the exploitation of natural resources, depend on the optimum use of appropriate technology. Yet apart from information and communications technology (ICT), SIDS have made very little progress in other areas of science and technology that might have a positive impact on disaster risk management, sustainable production and consumption, renewable energy technologies (RETs) and biotechnology and food production. With the exception of Mauritius, Singapore, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, very few countries in the Caribbean, Pacific and Atlantic, Indian Ocean and South China Seas (AIMS)¹⁷ regions have well-established, functioning institutional arrangements for S&T development. Jamaica has made steady progress towards the attainment of the objectives of its national science and technology

Box 1.5 Jamaica’s S&T model

The broad objective of Jamaica’s S&T policy is to increase the role of S&T in the attainment of economic and social development by:

- Fostering, promoting and sustaining the development and the co-ordination of S&T relevant to the needs and circumstances of the country;
- Establishing the conditions which will ensure scientific creativity and innovation and allow the talents of men and women to find full scope in scientific activity;
- Assessing, developing and managing the nation’s natural resources;
- Utilising the results of world-wide research and development to strengthen productive sectors such as agriculture, industry and manufacturing;
- Ensuring that scientific and technological development improves the welfare of citizens;
- Protecting and improving the quality of the environment;
- Increasing the nation’s competitiveness in trade;
- Enhancing the cultural, social and economic development of the country and contributing to programmes of self-reliance; and
- Supporting the integration of S&T in macroeconomic planning.

The Policy identifies the following priority areas:

- Human resource development, science education, scientific and technological information, agriculture and food, nutrition and health, biotechnology, natural resources including mineral and marine resources, energy, trade and industry, employment opportunity, efficiency and productivity.

policy (see Box 1.5), through the Science Research Council (SRC) and other entities such as the University of Technology (UT) and the International Centre for Environmental and Nuclear Sciences (ICENS). An impressive aspect of Jamaica's arrangement is the functional links between its S&T agencies and its manufacturing sector.

Recommendations

An appropriate starting point for the design of effective partnerships would be for governments to embark on national visioning exercises to guide the design of national sustainable development strategies (NSDS). Appropriate cross-sectoral co-ordination mechanisms should be undertaken to streamline sustainable development initiatives. In that regard, NSDS should be made an integrating mechanism for the various sectoral development plans, prepared within each country. Also, sustainable development issues should be integrated into the everyday operations of the public sector.

Governments should consider establishing national sustainable development councils (NSDC), or a similar body of manageable size to co-ordinate sustainable development initiatives, including the preparation of the NSDS. The experiences of those countries where such bodies are successfully operating could be used to guide other countries wishing to pursue the establishment of such a body. Further, efforts should be made to ensure that NSDCs, at a minimum, include representatives of the private sector, trade unions, women, youth, the physically challenged and religious groups. Ideally, these councils should be backed by legislation and they should be given the means to undertake research into various development issues and concerns.

Extensive and sustained capacity building and national education and awareness programmes will be needed at all levels if participatory governance is to be routinely practiced. Long-term commitment by regional and international development partners is needed to strengthen generally weak, institutional and human resource capacity of the civil society actors. Further, the design of such programmes will need to be flexible and responsive to national or regional needs and political realities. In addition to strengthening the capacity of SIDS in the traditional domains of economic planning, social planning and physical and environmental planning respectively, it will also be necessary to build capacity in non-traditional areas, including regional planning, energy planning and management, resource economics, labour economics, policy analysis and policy management, telecommunications planning, science and technology management, conflict resolution and meeting facilitation.

Governments should consider facilitating decentralised decision making through local government authorities and or community councils. Ideally, these councils should be bodies elected through means other than the first-past-the-post system such as proportional representation. As has been shown in several Commonwealth countries, local government can make a significant contribution to the attainment of participatory governance and sustainable development. Inter-regional technical co-operation programmes can greatly assist in strengthening the capacities of SIDS to:

- Establish the institutional and policy framework to undertake effective integrated development planning;
- Formulate inclusive and gender-sensitive social policies that can mitigate some of the social costs of globalisation; and
- Generate timely and reliable statistics on relevant economic, social, and environmental phenomena, including vulnerability indices.

The participation of developed countries with mature development planning capacity can be mobilised through regional and international intergovernmental organisations such as the Commonwealth Secretariat's Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation (CFTC), the UN's Technical Cooperation between Developing Countries (TCDC), and the Organization of American States' (OAS) Fund for Integral Development (FEMCIDI) within the context of triangular co-operation. The Commonwealth Secretariat might be encouraged to mandate its Governance and Institutional Development Division (GIDD) to design and implement public sector reform initiatives that would advance the goals of PG and IGP in SIDS.

Partnerships between government, the private sector, trade unions and other civil society organisations in pursuit of regional development could best be achieved in an environment of enlightened participatory governance. However, it is unreasonable to expect this form of governance to emerge at the regional level if it does not exist at the national level. On paper, the infrastructure appears to exist to achieve this but, as has been inferred, governance is equally (if not more) about disposition and commitment as it is about laws, charters and institutions.

Regional SIDS groupings may wish to consider including annual outcomes-oriented processes with representatives from the private sector, academia and civil society organisations to provide feedback to leaders and to offer a platform for wide debate on regional development priorities.

The Commonwealth Parliamentary Association (CPA) can assist SIDS groupings by identifying best practice and by exploring with them models of participatory governance. The CPA might also consider establishing a study group for this purpose. Further, the CPA model might be employed at regional level to strengthen the capacity of parliamentarians in CARICOM, AIMS and PIF to play a leadership role in educating their constituencies and making them more aware of emerging developmental issues and challenges such as climate change and disaster risk management, and sustainable production and consumption. A fund should be set up to allow private sector and worker representatives to attend international meetings dealing with matters of interest to SIDS.

It is recommended that the Commonwealth Secretariat through the Commonwealth Partnership for Technology Management (CPTM) and in collaboration with its Small States Department and those of CFTC, UC-SIS, United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), UNESCO and the OAS, undertake the design of a strategy aimed at achieving the objectives agreed at the Mauritius International Meeting on the review of the SIDS-Plan of Action (POA):

- Assisting SIDS in making critical technology choices;

- Providing information on previous experiences in SIDS;
- Providing technical assistance to SIDS to help them develop institutional arrangements conducive to the registration of intellectual patents and the identification of potential partners for full-scale commercialisation;
- Undertaking an assessment of critical S&T needs in SIDS that can be met in a cost-effective manner;
- Continuing to strengthen S&T collaboration through north-south and south-south co-operation; and
- Considering the establishment of a SIDS dedicated Technology Transfer Fund.

Conclusion

In examining the scope for effective partnerships for sustainable development of Caribbean and Pacific SIDS, this chapter has established the importance of seamless participatory governance at the national and regional levels, built around integrated development-planning principles and practice. The chapter argues that weaknesses at the national and regional levels in this area, in particular the absence of development plans that are designed with full participation by the private sector, trade unions and other civil society actors are at the root of slow progress and explain the minimal impact of policy interventions in critical areas of sustainable development in SIDS. The chapter calls for sustained commitment by all actors in the development process to establish firm and lasting partnerships aiming to reduce the vulnerability and to build the resilience of SIDS.

Notes

1. Quoted by D Venner in 'Sub-regional Governance: The OECS Experience' (2003). In *Governance in the Age of Globalization: Caribbean Perspectives* by K Hall and D Benn (eds.) Kingston Jamaica: Ian Randle Publishers.
2. Extracted from: http://www.oecd.org/topic/0,2686,en_2649_37405_1_1_1_1_37405,00.html [last accessed July 2011].
3. Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS), Castries, St Lucia (1998).
4. These include religions and religious organisations; not-for-profit foundations, trade unions and employee organisations; non-governmental organisations; community-based organisations and organisations of indigenous peoples.
5. See: <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/CSO/Resources/WorkingTogetherBooklet.pdf> [accessed July 2011].
6. The Forum's membership includes its original seven founding members (Australia, Cook Islands, Fiji, Nauru, New Zealand, Tonga and Western Samoa - now Samoa) and the Federated States of Micronesia, Kiribati, Niue, Republic of the Marshall Islands, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Tuvalu and Vanuatu. New Caledonia and French Polynesia, previously Forum Observers, were granted Associate Membership in 2006. Current Forum Observers include Tokelau (2005), Wallis and Futuna (2006), the Commonwealth (2006) and the Asia Development Bank (2006), with Timor-Leste as Special Observer (2002).

7. The member countries are Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Montserrat, St Kitts and Nevis, St Lucia, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname and Trinidad and Tobago.
8. Charter of Civil Society for the Caribbean Community (CARICOM Charter on Civil Society), preamble, 19 February 1997, available at: <http://actrav.itcilo.org/actrav-english/telearn/global/ilo/blokit/caricha.htm> [accessed July 2011].
9. See CIEL (2003). Participation, Information Justice, www.cedha.org.ar/docs/doc108-eng.doc [last accessed May 2011].
10. Caribbean Community Secretariat (2002). *The Liliendaal Statement of Principles on 'Forward Together'*, July 2002.
11. Report of Technical Working Group on Governance appointed by CARICOM Heads of Government, October 2006 available at: http://www.caricom.org/jsp/community/twg_governance_report.pdf [last accessed July 2011].
12. See www.forumsec.org.fj/resources/uploads/attachments/documents/PICTA.pdf [last accessed July 2011].
13. http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/mechanisms/clean_development_mechanism/items/2718.php [last accessed July 2011].
14. See International Task Force on Global Goods and Services at: <http://www.globalcollab.org/gps/applied-gps/global-public-goods-2/what-gpg> [last accessed July 2011].
15. Capacity 2015 is a global partnership mechanism assisting countries to develop the capacity of their professionals, institutions and systems to formulate and implement strategies for sustainable development to achieve local, national and international development goals. One of the components of Capacity 2015 is specifically focused on sustainable development challenges in small island developing states.
16. The Rome Declaration was endorsed in February 2003 by ministers, heads of aid agencies and other senior officials representing 28 aid-recipient countries and more than 40 multilateral and bilateral development institutions.
17. This title derives from the initial letters of the marine areas in which the islands in the AIMS region are located: Atlantic, (Guinea Bissau, Cape Verde, Sao Tome, Principe), Indian Ocean (Bahrain, Comoros, Maldives, Mauritius, Seychelles), Mediterranean (Cyprus, Malta) and South China Seas (Singapore).

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2

Exploring New Sources of Partnerships for Small States

John L Roberts

Introduction

There was a proverb that was often heard in the halls at international meetings during the 1990s:

‘Give a man a fish and he has food for the day
Teach him how to fish and he has food for life!’¹

The narrative here was clear. We can gain further insight if we re-examine the conceptual framework of fish for food, fishing for sustainability and further analyse it through reference to a little of the historical evidence. For example, in the eighteenth dynasty in ancient Thebes, about 1400 BC, we find (see Figure 1) that spear fishing then was well established and celebrated. Indeed, it is an ancient hunting method that has been used throughout the world for millennia. Early civilisations were familiar with the custom of spearing fish from rivers, streams and the sea using sharpened sticks. Spear fishing with barbed poles was widespread in Palaeolithic times. The Cosquer Cave at Cap Morgion in Southern France contains cave art over 16,000 years old, including drawings of seals which appear to have been harpooned.² There are references to fishing with spears in ancient literature although, in most cases, the descriptions do not go into detail. An early example is from the Bible in Job 41.7:

‘Canst thou fill his skin with barbed irons? or his head with fish spears?’

In his *Histories* the Greek historian Polybius, referring to the period about 203–120 BC, describes hunting for swordfish by using a harpoon with a barbed and detachable head.³ Thus, spear fishing is an ancient method that has been used throughout the world for thousands of years. Some of the civilisations in which it originated may have died out, and in others the practice has been overtaken by new fisheries technology, but have spear-fishing skills been entirely lost?

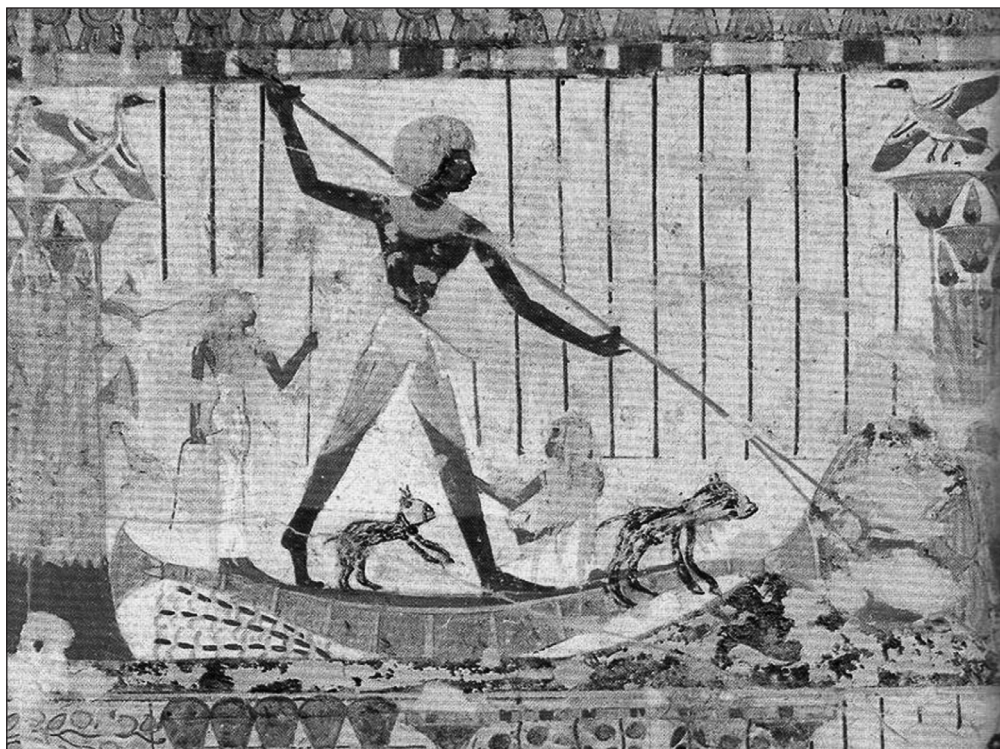


Figure 2.1 Spear fishing in eighteenth dynasty Thebes 1400 BC

Source: Sahrhage, D (1998) *Fischfang und Fischkultur im Alten Ägypten*, von Zabern, Mainz (Kulturgeschichte der Antiken Welt, Bd. 70 (Unknown photographer: copyright expired)

A few years ago, I was leading a field mission for the Government of Mauritius to one of its outer islands, Agalega, some 1,000 km north of Mauritius main island. There, after a day spent reviewing the health and education services and environmental protection facilities, I wandered in the evening onto the beach to collect shells washed up by the Indian Ocean swell. As the sun was fading fast, two young men came from the village with spears, stepped into the water and within minutes had speared two pan-sized fish, no doubt for supper.

Within the context of a plentiful supply of fish, the young men of Agalega do not need to be taught to fish by UN experts; their parents have already taught them – as had the parents of the fishermen of ancient Thebes 3,400 years ago – and well before that in prehistoric Mediterranean France 16 millennia ago.

Back on Mauritius main island – and, I suspect, in many developing countries – the skills of artisanal fishing are fading, with both the extinction of the ancient practices of these peoples and the loss of fish in the lagoons. Development presents the paradox that, while indigenous cultures have demonstrated the practice of sustainable development, at the same time they have become vulnerable from external and local factors. Now they have had to learn to adapt themselves and meld their knowledge and skills with those that are now more relevant and adaptable from beyond.

The purpose of this chapter is to highlight the need for small island developing states to form new partnerships with the international community to achieve sustainable development, since national practices alone would leave these countries unable to cope with the challenges they face. The chapter explores the different avenues through which the international community can assist small states through various partnership arrangements.

Old challenges, new partnerships

Fresh choices have to be made to meet the challenges of development. The Mauritius Strategy (MS) acknowledges that unsustainable exploitation of the non-renewable natural resources of developing countries has prompted the need for action for mitigation and adaptation. The SIDS cannot make this leap alone. Their concerns include the adverse impacts of coastal development, coastal tourism, intensive and destructive fishing practices and pollution, as well as the unreported and illegal trade in corals and its impact on the future health of coral reefs. To overcome these issues, the MS recommended the further development of partnerships to provide technical and financial support: for monitoring, research and development, for strengthening representative networks of marine protected areas, and for attention to the impact of coral bleaching, including enhancing resistance and recovery.

These tasks require skills and resources often beyond those available at local level in SIDS. The MS recommended working with relevant regional and international development partners on initiatives to promote the sustainable conservation and management of coastal and marine resources, drawing upon best practice from other regions, including the Pacific Islands Regional Ocean Policy. It recommended the designation of the Caribbean Sea as a special area in the context of sustainable development. It commended the ocean governance project involving all regions, and the establishment of related initiatives in other small island developing states regions. Such programmes of mitigation and adaptation are being pursued with the establishment of specialist international support such as through the Global Programme of Action for the Protection of the Marine Environment from Land-based Activities, and particularly with the support of the United Nations Environment Programme, recognising the fragile ecologies and economic, environmental and social vulnerability of SIDS.

We may use this story of the fishers as a metaphor for partnerships for the future. These partnerships cannot build simply on indigenous knowledge and skills; instead they must recognise that the opportunity to offer solutions for local people must be seized so those skills can continue. Island people do not need to be taught how to fish but do need help to develop the skills and equipment to fish in new ways. New paradigms of partnership in these initiatives are being tried and tested. New forms of partnerships are evolving in the Pacific Islands, the Caribbean, as they are in the African villages where Jeffrey Sachs and his team are conducting the Millennium Villages Project with local people.⁴

But to extend and enrich sustainable development we shall need other new forms of partnership with local people, together with a revived conceptual framework to underpin and shape the development. This requires both learning about the value and the shortcomings

of practices of indigenous culture and the added value of development of fresh approaches to education and training of managers and leaders.⁵ This is emerging through studying the knowledge and skills of local people, hearing their views and offering relevant support based on evidence of what can work well.

Those island fishermen and their families who have migrated from the seashores did not do so because they do not know how to fish. Many of the Pacific SIDS people have moved for economic opportunity, education for their children and the ability to have and make choices. Population pressure has also been a factor in migration in places like Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, Kiribati, Tuvalu and in Mauritius, one of the most densely populated countries in the world. Sustainable fishing in small islands has been adversely affected both by illegal intrusion of alien fishing fleets and by local population pressure on the dwindling stock of edible fish.

A further factor of concern in sustainable development in SIDS and many other small states has been the impact of unequal exploitative partnerships as part of a broader Dominant Social Paradigm (DSP).⁶ This development model is a vestige of colonial times. In the past, it underpinned much of the work of, what Richard Peet has called the 'unholy trinity' - the IMF, the World Bank and WTO.⁷ It is based on the belief that progress is best achieved by exporting proven western technical advances that have determined that western marginal productivity can continue to increase for the same levels as the factors of production, but which places no value at all on untraded cultural, social and natural assets. Its use is now being overtaken by the New Environmental Paradigm (NEP) which acknowledges the environmental impact of development and seeks to redress it by preventive and mitigating measures which value natural resources and include them explicitly in the system of social welfare accounts. This transition in development values is emerging in the practices of both local people and their international partners in the public and the private sectors and in civil society.

In the sociological literature partners are functionally divided into two groups: first, those deriving from primary community relationships; and second, those derived from association (such as through employment, professional associations or professional bodies).⁸ The community-type relationships are linked by blood, family, neighbourhood and other wider, largely geographically defined ties. The members of these partnerships share cultural and moral values and their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviour are affected by these determinants. By contrast, partnerships derived from association arise from commercial, company, professional, legal and corporate links. The members of these partnerships share corporate objectives, the acceptance of specialisation and corporate business management frameworks which strongly reflect and influence the beliefs, attitudes and behaviour of the members.

This separate classification of the nature of partnerships is less distinctive in small states because of their limited size and the close melding of community and association-type relationships in public and private sector activity. This in turn affects the responsiveness of people and corporate bodies in small states to the acceptance of the need from transition from DSP as the core of the development process to the more sustainable NEP.

Moreover, for those small states seeking progress through sustainable development, the NEP attributes value to natural resource access at local level, but for it to succeed requires the

development of a new partnership with social welfare, law and environmental accounting at national level and in the operation of the international financial institutions. These two elements at the periphery and the centre are essential for the transition to NEP, but have yet to operate in harmony in many SIDS.

Without such new approaches to conceptual, social, economic and legal frameworks, the threat of the Tragedy of the Commons becomes a pervasive reality.⁹ The Millennium Development Goals can be seen as a step along this adaptive pathway, despite their many shortcomings.¹⁰ Some analysts, however, even see the pursuit of MDGs as a mechanism for reinforcing colonial style welfare paternalism, keeping the developing countries in a continued state of dependency aided by the international financial institutions who show scant regard for sustainability in the exploitation of natural resources.¹¹

Cutting through these dilemmas the Commonwealth Heads of Government meeting of November 2009 agreed 'The Declaration of Port of Spain: Partnering for a More Equitable and Sustainable Future'. The Declaration included in particular a joint recognition of the need for reform of the international financial institutions, in the following terms:

'We [...] give our full support to the process of reform of international financial institutions and call for the urgent and comprehensive implementation of reform that responds to the needs of all countries. We should also seek to create mechanisms within established institutions that can assist small and vulnerable states.'

The Declaration went on to say:

'The Commonwealth is a platform for its membership to communicate, share ideas and co-ordinate action across large geographical and cultural distances. It can therefore generate and sustain effective international action on global challenges. As a result of its diversity and representativeness, the Commonwealth can strengthen old partnerships and forge new ones in order to play a leadership role in the international arena for the promotion of a more equitable and sustainable future for all, and particularly to work as an advocate for small and vulnerable states. Together, we pledge to act as a catalyst for positive change in the international community in these challenging times.'

The Declaration thus recognised the advocacy role of the Commonwealth for its member state partners in promoting sustainable development with special emphasis on the needs of small and vulnerable states. While being economically, culturally and environmentally vulnerable, many small states have other common positive characteristics that should be recognised as a key to effective partnerships for sustainable development. They have a low ecological footprint, which is essential to maintain as their ecologies are fragile.¹² Smallness puts people close to government but, with family, clan and geographical communities acting as a brake on forms of development, indigenous values can be undermined.¹³ In many cases, fragmentation across many islands can provide protection against unilateral development processes that are not well adapted to local needs and values.

Without more local awareness and understanding by development partners, small states are especially vulnerable to ecosystem decay and collapse, more so now in the face of the prospects of climate change, invasive alien species and sea level rise.¹⁴ Technical support for sustainable development for small states has to be adapted and well attuned to their special needs if it is to work well.

Regional, inter-regional and international partnerships

In small states, smallness itself presents severe limitations on the development of association-type partnerships. It inhibits, for example, local specialisation requiring large numbers to provide adequate demand which few small states even at national level can generate. Large numbers of students are also required for the sustained supply of education and training of specialists and their proper regulation to ensure high performance standards. Small states may tend, therefore, to rely on importing outside experts as there may be no suitable local people to send away for training abroad. Orientation and training of experts may be necessary to ensure their support is adapted well to meet the needs and challenges of remote small states. This problem is not always evident, and inappropriate advice may frustrate real progress in small states where even ideologically inspired international NGOs may be found merely exporting alien perspectives and values in trying to establish effective partnerships with their local counterparts.¹⁵ Even with the best will, international NGOs, when promulgating their perspectives and values, can have an adverse impact on trying to establish counterpart relationships in countries in which they work. At the same time local people can make similar mistakes and worse. The essential issue is the acceptance of evidence-based development by all partners at local level.

Recent developments in international, regional and inter-regional partnerships across the three regions of small island developing states (SIDS) provide a promising means for overcoming this obstacle by adapting specialist technical and professional development to the local needs of specific island states. Regional associations focused on specific themes of sustainable development have been flourishing, especially in the Caribbean (see Box 2.1).

International technical associations such as the World Meteorological Association (WMO), the World Resources Institute (WRI), the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) and the International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD) provide valuable evidence for partnership support. Partnerships in policy development come through links with inter-regional and intergovernmental bodies such as the Indian Ocean Commission (IOC) and The Commonwealth Secretariat who have done much to provide a forum for debate and a channel for providing technical co-operation.¹⁷

Emerging capacity development models including mentoring and peer-learning networks have shown success, especially in the Pacific region including Pacific Invasives Learning Network, Micronesians in Conservation and the Pacific Islands Managed and Protected Area Network.

The contribution of these partnerships to development varies. Some are involved mainly in methodological and data reference services, others more in the supervision of large research and development projects and some in the management of direct action arising from methodological advances, reference data and regional development projects.

Over the past decades, the UN and other international bodies have supplied extensive support to provide frameworks for partnership in promoting and establishing common policies for sustainable development with the needs of small states in mind. The process of policy development has been widely accepted and has provided the basis for SIDS in particular to plan to move forward in defined stages. The process has typically entailed consultation, the formulation of international strategies, the formulation of treaties,

Box 2.1 CARICOM partnerships for development

The Caribbean Community (CARICOM) was formed under the Treaty of Chaguaramas which established the Caribbean Community including the Caribbean Common Market. The Treaty was signed in 1973, in Chaguaramas, Trinidad and Tobago by Barbados, Guyana, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago. The Treaty was revised in 2001, establishing the Caribbean Community including the CARICOM Single Market and Economy.

The Caribbean Community is a partnership of Caribbean states with a well developed array of institutions. The main policy bodies of CARICOM are:

- The Conference of Heads of Government (and its Bureau)
- The Community Council of Ministers (The Community Council)

CARICOM (www.caricom.org) has a Secretariat and the following principal policy organs:

- The Council for Finance and Planning (COFAP)
- The Council for Trade and Economic Development (COTED)
- The Council for Foreign and Community Relations (COFCOR)
- The Council for Human and Social Development (COHSOD)
- The Council of Ministers responsible for National Security and Law Enforcement

In addition, CARICOM has developed a series of institutions to provide partnership arrangements for the region across the principal thematic fields identified under the Barbados Programme of Action and the UN 2005 SIDS Mauritius Strategy, notably:¹⁶

- **Climate change:** Caribbean Community Climate Change Centre (CCCCC)
- **Disasters:** Caribbean Disaster Emergency Response Agency (CDERA)
- **Coastal and Marine:** Caribbean Regional Fisheries Mechanism (CRFM)
- **Land:** Caribbean Agriculture Research and Development Institute (CARDI)
- **Transport:** Caribbean Aviation Safety and Securing Oversight System (CASSOS) (2008)
- **Science and technology:** Caribbean Regional Organisation for Standards and Quality (CROSQ); University of the West Indies (UWI)
- **Trade:**
 - The Council for Trade and Economic Development (COTED)
 - Caribbean Association of Industry and Commerce
 - CARICOM Competition Commission]
 - Caribbean Association of Industry and Commerce
- **Development and Education:** Caribbean Examinations Council (CXC)
- **Health:** Caribbean Environment Health Institute (CEHI) (Agreement establishing the Caribbean Health Institute); Caribbean Food and Nutrition Institute (CFNI)
- **Information:** Caribbean Telecommunications Union (CTU)
- **Culture:** The Council for Human and Social Development (COHSOD)

accords and regulations and their subsequent ratification by national governments. Progress with this process has been facilitated by national conferences, the drawing up of formal documents of accord and the commitment at national level to the establishment of national legislation. This has been undertaken principally by international bodies, such as the UN and its technical agencies (UNDP, UNEP, WHO), ministers, national parliaments and their supporting legal officers. The next stage of implementation and enforcement has been more problematic, especially for those small states who now find themselves overwhelmed with international commitments to which they have real difficulty in responding.¹⁸

Partnership through international aid has operated for over 50 years and now provides an international aid programme which is annually in excess of US\$45 billion. This has been the subject of detailed scrutiny following years of concerns from both donors and recipients over its focus, its constraints and its effectiveness. The principles of the Paris Declaration of 2005 and the follow-up High Level Forum in Accra in 2008 have both provided new principles for development aid and fuelled the debate on the value and impact of international programmes (see Boxes 2.2 and 2.3).¹⁹

Box 2.2 Guiding principles for improving the effectiveness of partnership through international aid

2002 International Conference on Financing for Development in Monterrey

The Monterrey Conference marked the first quadripartite exchange of views between governments, civil society, the business community and the institutional stakeholders on global economic issues. These global discussions involved over 800 participants. The conference recognised the link between financing development and attaining internationally agreed development goals and objectives, including those contained in the Millennium Declaration.

2005 Rome Declaration on Harmonisation

This declaration set out an ambitious programme of activities to:

- Ensure that harmonisation efforts are adapted to the country context and that donor assistance is aligned with the development recipient's priorities;
- Expand country-led efforts to streamline donor procedures and practices;
- Review and identify ways to adapt institutions' and countries' policies, procedures, and practices to facilitate harmonisation; and
- Implement the good practices principles and standards formulated by the development community as the foundation for harmonisation.

2005 Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness

This declaration expressed the international community's consensus on the direction for reforming aid delivery and management to achieve improved effectiveness and results. This third High Level Conference produced 100 signatories to the declaration from partner governments, bilateral and multilateral donor agencies, regional development banks, and international agencies, committing to specific actions that would promote the effective use of aid funds.

Principles. The Paris Declaration is grounded on five mutually reinforcing principles:

- **Ownership:** Partner countries exercise effective leadership over their development policies and strategies, and co-ordinate development actions.
- **Alignment:** Donors base their overall support on partner countries' national development strategies, institutions, and procedures.
- **Harmonisation:** Donors' actions are more harmonised, transparent, and collectively effective.
- **Managing for results:** Managing resources and improving decision-making for development results.
- **Mutual accountability:** Donors and partners are accountable for development results.

Commitments. The Paris Declaration contains 56 partnership commitments to improve the quality of aid. For example, under ownership, partner countries commit to exercise leadership in developing and implementing their national development strategies, and donors commit to respect partner countries' leadership and help strengthen their capacity to exercise it.

Indicators and Targets. The Paris Declaration also sets out 12 indicators to provide a measurable and evidence-based way to track progress, and sets targets for 11 of the indicators for the year 2010.

Increasing concern has emerged through the financial crisis 2008–2011 and its impact on the global aid programmes. In addition, challenges have emerged about the functioning of international NGOs and the bias that is introduced when donor support is linked to a commitment to purchase donor country goods and services.²⁰ Equally, consultants may have little understanding of the developing country needs and capacities. As a result, many international programmes to improve the relevance and effectiveness of their partnerships have developed stricter guidelines and procedures, including independent evaluation of achievements.

The response to these international accords for more effective partnerships has been trailing and so far has proved of only marginal benefit to small and island states. The MSI has set out 20 priority areas for development in SIDS, with thematic and management guidelines on improving current practice, monitoring process linked through the UN General Assembly, linking the programmes of the UN agencies to the priority areas for action, and with oversight by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), the UN Conference on Sustainable Development (UNCSD) and AOSIS. While SIDS are small in size, population, wealth, and political power, their sensitive ecologies do offer the opportunity for low-cost initiatives in sustainable development which could yield rapid results; they also present, in the absence of more conservation, the source of immediate evidence of the adverse impact of human development on natural resources as small islands are host to some of the most endangered species worldwide.²¹ These principles are echoed in a further initiative for developed states aimed at providing better governance for the development process. It has been pursued by the OECD through its Development Assistance Committee. This embraces various dimensions of the partnership for development agenda through dedicated networking groups including:

- Poverty reduction;
- Development evaluation;
- Gender equality;
- Governance and capacity development; and
- Environment for development.

In the Environment for Development Network in 2009, the OECD published guidelines for mainstreaming environmental issues in the development process.²² These sought to ensure that programmes for development take into account the implications of climate change, the impact on water supplies and sanitation, and the management capacity for low carbon development. Much of this has relevance to the welfare of countries, including SIDS, beyond the ambit of OECD.

One further initiative to improve partnerships for small states and islands has been in the development of academic and professional partnerships through regional university institutions such as the University of the West Indies, the University of the South Pacific and the University of the Indian Ocean. Business schools are also re-orientating their programmes to take account of sustainability issues.²³

Under the Economic Partnerships Agreements, the European Union (EU) has been working with 75 African Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries since 2002 to negotiate

Box 2.3 Accra Forum on Aid Effectiveness

2008 Accra High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness

The high level engagement at Accra helped bring about agreement on the Accra Agenda for Action which expresses the international community's commitment to further increase aid effectiveness. The Accra Forum in Ghana took place with the participation of about 1,700 participants, including more than 100 ministers and heads of agencies from developing and donor countries, emerging economies, UN and multilateral institutions, global funds, foundations, and 80 civil society organisations. The Forum produced 12 indicators for monitoring progress:

Accra Indicators of Progress

To be measured nationally and monitored internationally:

1. Partners have operational development strategies
2. Reliable country systems
3. Aid flows are aligned on national priorities
4. Strengthen capacity by co-ordinated support
5. Use of country public financial management systems
6. Percentage of aid flows
7. Strengthen capacity by avoiding parallel implementation structures
8. Aid is more predictable
9. Use of common arrangements or procedures
10. Encourage shared analysis
11. Results-oriented frameworks
12. Mutual accountability

A fourth high-level meeting is planned for November 2011 in Busan, the Republic of Korea, to review progress with increasing aid effectiveness in the light of concerns for delays in meeting targets.

For details on the accords on effective partnerships for international aid see:

www.un.org/esa/ffd/ffdconf/, www.oecd.org/dataoecd/11/41/34428351.pdf and www.accrahlf.net/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/ACCRAEXT/0,,contentMDK:21690872~menuPK:64861438~pagePK:64861884~piPK:64860737~theSitePK:4700791,00.html

agreements to remove barriers to trade and to open up new opportunities.²⁴ These forms of agreement have not been without controversy, raising questions on the neo-colonial interest of the EU countries and the impact of the process on poor people.²⁵ Despite these concerns, the more developed countries in the ACP such as Mauritius are negotiating similar agreements with the emerging market economies including Brazil, China, Russia, Malaysia, Singapore and Turkey.

How far partnership through development programmes has succeeded in changing the prospects and progress of poor communities and countries has been the focus of new styles of support initiatives in the last decade, notably the Millennium Villages Project in Africa, the effective Interventions Programme of the London School of Economics, and the process of micro-finance being promoted in many countries following its popular development in Asia.²⁶

These initiatives have aroused considerable controversy, both at the level of the validation of local results and in the credentials in economic and development theory (see Box 2.4). The critical reviews of the value of such partnerships in development range from the doubts of sustaining probity in political and managerial supervision to the logical and ethical constraints in establishing valid scientific frameworks for evaluating results. The attempts to design studies in line with the rigours of clinical, scientific, random, controlled trials have largely proved elusive but, in some cases, may offer opportunities for tightening methodology and responding to the doubts.

Box 2.4 Millennium Villages Project through community partnerships

Through the Earth Institute, under the direction of Professor Jeffrey Sachs, the project includes 80 villages in sub-Saharan Africa.

The objectives are to:

- Promote sustainable, scaleable, community-led progress toward the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals through the use of scientifically validated interventions –one village at a time;
- Ensure African ownership of the Millennium Development Goals, and work in partnership with African governments and regional groups;
- Increase capacity and community empowerment in Africa through training and knowledge sharing with local African governments, NGOs, and village communities;
- Partner with the public and private sectors, innovative NGOs, universities and leading experts, and the international donor community throughout Africa and the world continually to improve and co-ordinate development strategies (funding amounts to \$US110 per person per year for 5-10 years in the project villages); and
- Transform rural sub-subsistence farming economies into small-scale enterprise development economies and promote diversified entrepreneurs.

Results

Results after three years show income levels rising; malnutrition falling; school enrolment up; gender participation improved; malaria incidence halved; better communication and intravillage trade. See: www.millenniumpromise.org/site/DocServer/Executive_SummaryUSE.pdf?docID=861

Critical points of view

The project has been attracting much interest – and inevitably critical views. For example:

- Slow pace of support from local government;
- Cluster concept for linking villages constrained by lack of enough aid workers;
- Scaling-up to a marketing phase for products is proving difficult;
- Timescale needs to be extended to 2015 and beyond to achieve reduced aid dependence;
- Another example of central UN planning that will fail;
- Has not diversified its agricultural sector to promote sustainability; and
- Has no plans for how the project will become sustainable after the initial aid programme pulls out.

For new effective partnerships for sustainable development, what is perhaps more important than the distribution of cash in accordance with these principles, is the development of professional and technical capacities in each of the thematic areas for action. Such capacity building is a prerequisite for effective development partnerships. But it needs to be defined in terms of the technical requirements of each thematic area. This requires:

- Definition of the basic evidence for action with the supporting conceptual theory;
- Guidelines of best practice;
- Accredited syllabus for basic and continuing education;
- Professional body for training, examinations and professional discipline;
- Monitoring and evaluation;
- Research and development; and
- Accredited scientific literature, journals and professional communication systems.

The EU has for many years adopted logical frameworks for planning projects, despite the limitations of such frameworks as development tools and their inflexibility in operational management. To resolve some of these issues the EU, working with many partners, has added regulations arising from recommendations from the Paris and Accra Declarations. In the medium term, however, these do not resolve the issues of programme continuation beyond the immediate external funding and the assimilation of project findings within the mainstream of country development policy.

More recently, the EU has started agreeing EU MDG contracts which link projects to the results base implicit in the pursuit of MDGs and their country-specific targets.²⁷ Parallel to this initiative is the focus on sustainable development of EU funding in the support programme for East and Southern Africa and the Indian Ocean countries.²⁸ This programme provides for inter-country linkage between SIDS, and the adaptation of inter-regional best practice for local use, building on flagship models which have been agreed through expert panels and national consultation. This incorporates the concept of working with centres of excellence. In this initiative the centre is developing support functions for small states relating to education, training, consultation, expert networks, information analysis, publications and research and development. Thus, the focus for partnership development is moving here to the knowledge base and the technical services support, rather than emergency and life support or trade in goods.

Singapore has adopted another model of partnerships, the cluster model (CM), for promoting innovation.²⁹ This is based on the idea that progress is made through linking together people with complementary skills and technologies, rather than trying to spot potential success by nurturing niche industries, products or services (see Box 2.5). The cluster concept has been adopted by UNDESA as a means of linking complementary elements of the MDG programme. This aims to ensure that critical elements in sustainable development are not neglected, by promoting partnerships between programmes that are thematically inter-related but previously not necessarily closely linked.³⁰

The recent re-examination of economic and development strategy emerging from the 2008–2011 financial crisis has stimulated many small countries to review their partnerships policies. Asian countries are increasingly looking to local partnerships for trade as a

Box 2.5 Singapore Cluster Partnership Model

South-south linkages through clusters

Singapore has been noted for its practical application of the concept of development clusters in its promotion of industrial innovation, and this has attracted worldwide interest. Its clusters, developed in the petrochemical industry and in marine logistics, have served as models for development elsewhere.

In May 2009 in Singapore, 30 senior officials from Africa and the World Bank were exposed to Singapore's experience in developing special economic zones and competitive clusters. Small country representatives at this meeting included The Gambia and Mauritius. The leading institution in this field in Singapore is International Enterprise Singapore (IE). IE is linked to World Bank's Africa department to help Singapore-based companies navigate the African continent, working with the International Finance Corporation and African Development Bank expertise, which have extensive networks and business knowledge of the continent. In this context, Singapore has been offering in particular core competencies in its cluster of marine logistics, which are relevant to coastal and small island states.

The cluster concept

A **business cluster** is a geographic concentration or agglomeration of interconnected business suppliers and associated institutions in a particular field. Clusters serve to increase the productivity across groups of companies working in close contact, enabling them to compete, nationally and globally.

The term **industry cluster**, also known as a **business cluster**, **competitive cluster** or **Porterian cluster**, is a generic term popularised by Michael Porter in *The Competitive Advantage of Nations* (1990) and 'Economics of Competition' (1998) in the *Harvard Business Review*. The importance of economic geography, or more correctly of geographical economics, was also brought to attention by Paul Krugman in *Geography and Trade* (1991), MIT Press. Cluster development has since become a focus for many government programmes.

There can be different types of clusters, including:

- **Geographical clusters**: such as Silicon Valley, Paris Haute Couture, Hollywood and Bollywood;
- **Sectoral clusters** (a cluster of businesses operating together from within the same commercial sector);
- **Horizontal clusters** (interconnections between businesses at a sharing of resources level, e.g. knowledge management); and
- **Vertical clusters** (i.e. a supply chain cluster).

The underlying concept of clusters, which economists have referred to as 'agglomeration economies', dates from the nineteenth century work of Alfred Marshall. The concept explains the economic benefits of urban areas, but beyond a certain point further agglomeration gives rise to diseconomies of scale due to congestion or pollution and, according to classical Marxist dialectic theory, the concentration (or clustering) of political and industrial power in the underclass of the proletariat and the collapse of the state through revolution.

The experience of Singapore's petrochemical sector suggests that government, as a facilitating partner, is not a master strategist, but creates opportunities for cluster participants to organise, identify and solve common problems, and then the private sector leadership will emerge to drive the process.

See: Jayarethanam Pillai (2006) Importance of Clusters in Industry Development: A Case of Singapore's Petrochemical Industry. See <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/EASTASIAPACIFICEXT/SINGAPOREEXTN/0,,contentMDK:22029117~menuPK:272837~pagePK:1497618~piPK:217854~theSitePK:272832,00.html> [last accessed July 2011].

hedge against the uncertainties of East-West alliances. While regional economic integration and even monetary union have had their attractions and adherents, many countries are operating on policies of variable geometry in their development partnerships, combining regional, historical and fresh bilateral elements in their search for long-term sustainability.

These new wide ranging patterns of partnerships initially incur heavy costs through establishing and maintaining diplomatic and technical linkage. These costs can be accommodated to some degree within regional intergovernmental arrangements. But the cost-effectiveness of compromising national sovereignty has to be continually assessed.

The interest in environmental issues such as climate change, sea level rise, water security, energy efficiency, the spread of invasive alien species, sustainable fisheries and forest management is not, of course, limited to SIDS. Moreover, many large developed states have direct responsibilities for their own small dependent islands of which there are thousands worldwide. These two factors will give rise to a closer understanding of sustainability issues in island territories, a widening evidence base and will give SIDS more confidence in relevance, specificity and value of partnerships with larger developed states. Both SIDS and such partners will become more expert in evidence-based assessments of initiatives and more inclined to share experiences on an equal footing.

This can be seen in the development of global partnerships on coral reef rehabilitation involving large countries such as the USA with its many islands including those of the state of Hawaii. These countries are now linking with SIDS to explore the most cost-effective interventions in this field.³¹ In these partnerships the relationship is mutually advantageous. The traditional fishers and the new technology fishers can learn much from each other. Through this process the value of indigenous knowledge could rise and the hierarchy of knowledge-based partnership be transformed. The rapid evolution of ICT could facilitate this transformation of partnerships, allowing rapid knowledge transmission on a wider scale and in an increasingly expert form, with small developing states leap-frogging through the traditional development process.

For many countries it is important to review the opportunities for international finance and technical support in the light of local priorities relating to, for example, poverty reduction, education development, and water and sanitation. For as Roy Bridger has perceptively observed:

‘Man aspires to the stars, but if he can only get his sewerage and refuse distributed and utilised in an orderly fashion he will be doing well.’³²

The population pressure on land continues to present challenges for new partnerships to focus on humanity’s impact on the ecosystem on which all life depends. In 1900 this planet offered eight hectares of land per person on which to thrive. By 1950 the population had increased to the point where the planet had only five hectares of land per person. In 2005 the ratio was two hectares of land per person. The present world population is about 7 billion and is expected to increase to over 9 billion by 2050, shrinking the available space to just 1.5 hectares per person.³³

In 2001 the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment found that 60 per cent of ecosystem services had been degraded and are unsustainable in the face of a growing demand for

food, fresh water, timber, fibre and fuel.³⁴ This degradation, principally from over-use, is exacerbated by pollution and by the process of climate change intimately linked to current patterns of production and consumption.

Since 1900 the global economic development gains have been immense in terms of income, trade, increased expectation of life and improved standards of living. These gains, however, have been unevenly distributed and with inadequate concern for the impact of such transformation on the ecosystems. Those moving away from the DSP and favouring the NEP as a framework will need to promote new partnerships to address inequity in the inter-regional sustainability, conservation of natural resources and the impact of this on human welfare.

Conclusions

The economic and environmental vulnerability of small states combined with their light ecological footprint presents them with a special opportunity to be global study areas for new partnerships for sustainable development initiatives and sensitive locations for monitoring ecological decay. For many small states, despite high transport costs for external goods and services, their small scale makes it relatively cheap to undertake initiatives, and the vulnerability of their ecosystems means that results are directly and rapidly evident. The big issue is how far new partnerships in sustainability management can succeed in rescuing such fragile ecosystems making them resilient in the face of all the threats they face from within and without. The MSI is one model that is being tried with varied results. The leadership of the Micronesia Challenge and Caribbean Challenge in terms of commitment to conservation and livelihoods could serve as models if the commitment made by leaders of these countries and the resulting interest by development partners and others in supporting these commitments is sustained and delivers the best results. The design and principles inherent in the Millennium Village Project provide lessons for adaptation of this model to small and island states ensuring that the community at local level are equal partners in the process of management. Clusters offer synergy between linkable activities which have proved effective in a variety of endeavours. Whichever will prove best in each location, it is too early to judge.

New patterns of regional and international partnerships are emerging as small and island states become more mature in their response to available local and external technical and financial support. Moreover, the policies of international agencies themselves are increasingly adapting to the need for independent evaluation of effectiveness of aid and pursuit of results-based design. This is a slow process with many setbacks. The closer monitoring that is now involved should allow initiatives to emerge that are based more on the evidence of their impact rather than merely the logic of their design and the principles adopted in their management.

These changes in the mode of international partnerships may well benefit from a transformation of the architecture for international financial institutions to give a more effective voice to the developing and emerging economies. The UN system and other organisations that work with small island states need to be more co-ordinated in their support across the whole range of the agencies involved. Professional and technical development in those fields

most relevant to sustainable development in SIDS, should be accelerated as the university consortia in the three regions establish increasingly relevant programmes and centres of excellence for education, training and professional development to meet the local needs.³⁵ Other critical factors include political leadership at all levels and in all sectors, plus community-based training and capacity building.

The new variable geometry of partnerships is encouraging fresh linkage between countries and is especially giving greater influence to the emerging economies. The greater use of ICT is allowing the concept of partnerships through clusters to progress less in terms of geographical location and more in terms of conceptual linkage.

Much work in sustainable development and environmental management is at present at the margin of science and more in the field of research and development, from which many of the established forms of partnership, financial and technical control, struggle to promote useful results. New trends in partnerships are giving more dominance to community knowledge and support and revisiting the evidence base for action by setting up initiatives in ways which more readily give rise to results of their impact. What is emerging from these new ways of working is that the more that can be learned by all partners melding indigenous and new high-technology knowledge, the more workable and effective action can be undertaken to save the planet from ecological, economic and social decay.

Notes

1. Probably an ancient Chinese proverb.
2. Guthrie (2005).
3. Polybius (1889).
4. See www.millenniumvillages.org [last accessed 26 May 2011].
5. Edelman (2010).
6. Nath (2010).
7. Peet (2009).
8. Notably contributed by Ferdinand Torres and Max Weber. See Weber (1920) and Carnie et al. (eds) (2005).
9. Derived from an iconic paper in 1968 by Garrett Hardin, this metaphor identifies the disastrous end result of unrestrained freedom in the use of common pool resources such as common land and the sea, in which people become trapped by their own competitive impulses and ultimately destroy the use of the common inheritance. The common resource can be sustained only by agreed regulation which limits the freedoms previously enjoyed. Examples are to be found in the use of common grazing, forest land and marine resources. In these cases, as demand increases with population growth, so the carrying capacity is reached and limitations have to be placed on use through some regulatory control such as price, rationing by volume or the introduction of new forms of property rights.
10. Roberts (2010).
11. Reinart (2007).
12. See www.wiserearth.org/resource/view/db64c421772954f3d6d9ef1f93ab88cb/group/weversity [last accessed May 2011].

13. This, however, may have some paradoxical effects where people are operating at clan or family level as the primary group where they support action against broader community values. Thus, in some island cultures where there is strong traditional leadership, if that leadership decides on action which damages the environment, there may be no one who speaks up against it.
14. Quammen (1997).
15. Higgins (2004).
16. Details of the remit of all these organisations can be obtained on the CARICOM website www.caricom.org/sitemap.jsp.
17. See www.wri.org, www.iucn.org, www.iisd.ca, www.coi-ioc.org and www.thecommonwealth.org [all accessed May 2011].
18. On 8 February 2010, Dr the Hon Arvin Boolell, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Regional Integration and International Trade in Mauritius, chaired the first Steering Committee at ministerial level on the review of International Agreements and Memorandums of Understanding (MoU). A list has been compiled of over 500 MoUs and agreements out of which some 200 are currently effective and require no particular attention, while the rest (more than 300) have either lapsed or are dormant. The Minister has called for these international obligations to be reviewed and re-activated and to ensure concrete results and follow-ups are undertaken. See www.facebook.com/note.php?note_id=303227614384&comments&ref=mf [last accessed May 2011].
19. See www.oecd.org/document/18/0,3343,en_2649_3236398_35401554_1_1_1_1,00.html, and www.oecd.org/document/3/0,3343,en_2649_3236398_41297219_1_1_1_1,00.html [both accessed May 2011].
20. Agg (2006).
21. Quammen (1997) op. cit.
22. See www.oecd.org/dac/environment [last accessed May 2011].
23. Edelman (2010).
24. See www.acp-eu-trade.org [last accessed May 2011].
25. See Action Aid's reservations and call for opposition to the policy process, which it claims favours the rich countries and multinationals, www.actionaid.org.uk/index.asp?page_id=101017 [last accessed May 2011].
26. See www.aideffectiveness.org [last accessed May 2011].
27. See www.eurostep.org [last accessed July 2011].
28. Comoros, Madagascar, Mauritius, Seychelles.
29. See Porter (1998); Krugman (1991).
30. UNDESA (2005).
31. See www.coralreef.gov/international/mainb.html [last accessed May 2011].
32. Roy Bridger, *New York Times* correspondent: See *Oxford Dictionary of Quotations* (2005), Oxford.
33. Schomaker et al. (eds).
34. See www.millenniumassessment.org [last accessed May 2011].
35. Caribbean, Pacific, and the AIMS regions.

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Appendix 1

Partnerships in the Pacific Region¹

1. The World Summit for Sustainable Development (WSSD) – Rio+10, held in Johannesburg in 2002 had as its major outcomes the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation (JPOI) and the Declaration for Sustainable Development but it also initiated partnership/initiatives between governments and non-state actors called Type II Partnerships. It represented a fundamental shift in the governing of sustainable development from the top-down, state centred approach favoured at the 1992 Rio Summit to a more collaborative, multi-stakeholder approach. It was hoped that establishing such participatory multi-stakeholder governance mechanisms would increase flexibility and enhance the implementation of sustainable development policy in collaboration between states, international organisations and other non-state actors.
2. Pacific Leaders launched 14 Pacific Umbrella Initiatives part of these Type II Partnerships. Concurrently facilitators for each of these Partnerships were assigned and each would develop their respective initiatives by developing individual ‘roadmaps’ for their long term development.

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Pacific Partnerships Launched in Johannesburg, 2002

1. Pacific Island *Adaptation* Initiative to Climate Change, Variability and Sea level rise
 2. Pacific Islands *Energy* for Sustainable Development (PIESD)
 3. Pacific Islands *Health* for Sustainable Development
 4. Sustainable *Land Resources* Development for the Pacific
 5. Pacific Islands *Oceans* Initiative
 6. Sustainable *Tourism* Development for the Pacific
 7. Pacific Islands *Waste Management* Initiative
 8. *Capacity Building* and Distance Education
 9. Pacific Islands *Governance* Initiative
 10. Pacific Islands *Information Communication & Technology* for Development
 11. *Mainstreaming Conservation* (Biodiversity, Genetic Resources and Traditional Knowledge) in the Pacific
 12. *Planning for Sustainable Community Lifestyles* in the Pacific
 13. Managing *Vulnerability and Resilience to Natural Disasters* in the Pacific
 14. Sustainable *Water Management* in the Pacific
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6. Development of Type II partnerships significantly marked the emergence of a broader managerial process within environmental governance. The introduction of a 'Transnational Governance Network' which combines actors from the public, private and civil society sectors pursuing a common goal through shared novel mechanisms was pioneering on a global scale. On a Pacific scale it was targeted at addressing a number of shortcomings namely:
 - The more effective exchange of information between partners. In particular when such information requires a degree of technical expertise to deliver, such as the transfer of specialised knowledge from the private sector to industry groups regarding sustainable business practices.
 - The leveraging of additional resources to include those that exist within the private sector and non state actors.
 - To facilitate the implementation of global strategies at the local level facilitating local ownership of environmental governance by involving private and civil actors in decision-making processes.
 - It also represented a further shift in the governing of sustainable development whereby rather than consider environmental issues in isolation, as had previously been common practice within sustainable development policy, Type II partnerships would reframe the sustainable development discourse, reconceptualising sustainable development as a dynamic interaction between the three interdependent pillars of society, environment and the economy.

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Four successful partnerships from the Pacific Region are:

8. The Pacific Islands Roundtable for Nature Conservation addresses Initiative 11 (Mainstreaming Conservation). Formed by SPREP in 1997 on request from Pacific island countries and territories for stronger for collaboration and coordination of conservation initiatives and activities. The Roundtable is the Pacific's largest cross-sectoral coalition of organizations working to increase effective conservation action in the region. This partnership mechanism is the only forum in which key stakeholders come together to discuss and develop new ways to address the main issues of nature conservation facing the Pacific Islands. The Roundtable exists as the coordination mechanism of organizations and governments that have a role in implementing the Action Strategy for Nature Conservation in the Pacific Islands Region. The Roundtable's mandate is to increase effective conservation action in the Pacific islands by fostering greater coordination and collaboration among national, regional and international organizations; Identifying critical gaps in the Action Strategy and developing new conservation activities in the region; communicating and linking with countries through NBSAPs or alternative processes to promote implementation and monitoring of the Action Strategy;

strengthening linkages with CROP agencies to promote multi-sectoral mainstreaming at the regional level; CROP agencies to promote multi-sectoral mainstreaming at the regional level; regional and national NGOs for more effective coordination; countries through NBSAPs or alternative processes to promote the Action Strategy. The coordination of the Roundtable has since been taken over by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), another key evolution of this partnership.

9. The Pacific Partnerships Initiative on Sustainable Water Management addresses initiative 14 and is a voluntary partnership of water and wastewater stakeholders in the Pacific region, with a common goal of achieving sustainable water and wastewater management in Pacific Island Countries. The global water community acknowledged the special vulnerability and particular needs of small islands by the inclusion of “Water in Small Islands Countries” as a special theme at the 3rd World Water Forum held in Kyoto, Japan in March 2003. SOPAC and the Asian Development Bank (ADB) jointly led this Water in Small Island Countries session as well as its preparation through a regional consultation whose major outcome was the Pacific Regional Action Plan on Sustainable Water Management (Pacific RAP), which details priority actions of the water sector in the region. This action plan, endorsed by 14 Pacific Island Countries at Ministerial level, and subsequently by 16 Pacific Countries (including Australia and New Zealand) at Heads of State level, has been incorporated into a Type II Partnership Initiative. The objectives of the Partnership are: to strengthen existing and build new partnerships on water and wastewater; to create a regional water network; to implement the Pacific Regional Action Plan on Sustainable Water Management; and to implement the Pacific Wastewater Policy Statement and the Pacific Wastewater Framework for Action, in the most effective and efficient manner possible.
10. The Pacific Disaster Risk Management Partnership Network addresses initiative 13 and was established by SOPAC, at the behest of Pacific Leaders, facilitated the establishment of the Pacific Disaster Risk Management Partnership Network in 2006 to provide a collaborative and cooperative mechanism to support disaster risk management capacity building in the region and assist Pacific Island Countries and Territories adapt and implement the Pacific Disaster Risk Reduction and Disaster Management Framework for Action 2005 - 2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters. The Partnership is an “open-ended, voluntary” membership of international, regional and national government and non-government organisations, with comparative advantages and interests in supporting Pacific countries toward mainstreaming DRM through addressing their disaster risk reduction and disaster management priorities. The partnership has a charter that sets out that disaster risk reduction and disaster management are sustainable development issues within the broader context of economic growth and good governance; recognises the critical role of national governments in developing programmes and plans that reflect the needs of all stakeholders in an all of country approach; that regional efforts should be responsive to, support and complement national programmes and plans; commit regional partners to coordinating activities under the guidance of the Pacific Plan. The work on the partnership focuses on

assisting Pacific Small Island Developing States with the development and implementation of Disaster Risk Management National Action Plans (NAPs). The Partnership established its own web based portal to facilitate exchange of information and sharing of experiences, this portal has since developed into a wider partnership within the Asia Pacific region through collaboration with the Asian Development Bank, who now hosts the Asia Pacific portal.

11. The Pacific Climate Change Roundtable (PCCR) addresses initiative 1 (adaptation to climate change). The establishment of the Climate Change Roundtable in 2008 was modelled around the success of the Nature Conservation Roundtable. SPREP the lead CROP agency on climate change issues first coordinated the development of the Pacific Islands Framework for Action on Climate Change (PIFACC). The PCCR was formed as a key element to the effective implementation of the Action Plan being the consultative forum for consensus building and decision-making. The PCCR in this context seeks to bring together different stakeholders such as technical staff and policy makers from national and regional institutions, regional offices of international organisations, NGOs, Churches and key experts from the region involved in climate change issues. Fundamentally the climate change roundtable facilitates the exchange of experiences (lessons learnt, good practices, impacts and benefits) and the use of these experiences as a basis for longer term strengthening of national, regional and inter-regional collaboration on climate change adaptation and disaster risk management. The PCCR is also used as a consultative forum to coordinate implementation of activities of climate change programmes such as the Pacific Adaptation to Climate Change (PACC) and the Pacific Islands Renewable Energy Program. A climate change web based portal has recently been established to assist in the exchange of information.
12. There are a number of key characteristics of these successful partnerships:
 - A clear mandate and ownership from national governments;
 - All have time a bound action program to guide implementation;
 - There is a regular roundtable for coordination and consultation;
 - Implementation is focussed on national action;
 - Regional initiatives complement these national actions;
 - A commitment to the effective sharing of information and experiences;
 - Cooperation amongst members;
 - Pooling of resources to effectively achieve results;
 - All are learning partnerships.
13. There are two encouraging recent developments regarding these Partnerships. The first is the development of what could be termed as a subsidiary partnership to address specific issues that fall within the umbrella partnerships mandate. The Nature Conservation Roundtable recently convened and formed the Pacific Mangrove Initiative – a partnership focussed on addressing the issue of conservation and sustainable

management of mangroves in the Pacific. These more focussed “subsidiary” partnerships allow for concerted effort to address priority issues while still working within the wider umbrella partnership framework.

14. The second is the emergence of joint initiatives between partnerships. The Disaster Risk Management Partnership and the Climate Change Roundtable have recognised the commonalities between the issues they address and the need to rationalise implementation at the national level to ease the burden on small Pacific island administrations. The two partnerships have formulated an approach for Joint National Action Plans for Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction. This approach has been successfully implemented in a number of countries and is being promoted for other countries.
15. Under the auspices of the CROP Sustainable Development Working Group (SDWG), and including NGOs and the UN system in the Pacific, a Pacific National Sustainable Development Strategy (NSDS) Regional Support Partnership has been formed to provide coordinated assistance to Pacific SIDS. The Partnership of development partners has been endorsed by Pacific Ministers during the ESCAP Asia Pacific Ministerial Conference on Environment and Development in 2010. Some PIC governments have also expressed an interest in being part of the partnership. The Partnership has a linked subsidiary partnership on Green Growth.
16. The Goal of the partnership is to provide support to the SIDS in the Pacific to improve the formulation and implementation of their NSDSs. The primary objectives of the partnership are: Effective coordination of initiatives to support NSDS development and implementation in Pacific SIDS; Mainstreaming sustainable development issues into national, sectoral and sub-national planning and resource allocation; Mobilization of resources for support to Pacific SIDS NSDS development and implementation.

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Notes

1. Reprinted with permission from UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) Pacific Regional Office, Fiji. This information originally appeared as part of a paper on Partnerships for the Rio+20 Pacific Regional Preparatory Meeting (Rio+20/Pacific/2011/3-3) held in Apia, Samoa on 22 July 2011.

Appendix 2

Global Island Partnerships (GLISPA)¹

The Global Island Partnership (GLISPA) assists islands in addressing one of the world's greatest challenges – to conserve and sustainably utilise invaluable island natural resources that support people, cultures and livelihoods in their island homes around the world. Recognising that islands have unique and isolated natural systems and are particularly vulnerable in a rapidly changing world, GLISPA brings together island countries and countries with islands – small and large, developing and developed – to mobilise leadership, increase resources, share solutions and catalyse action on island priorities in a cost-effective and sustainable way.

Achievements

Since its inception in 2005, the Partnership has engaged leaders all over the world. More than 60 governments of small islands developing states (SIDS), large island countries, countries with islands, overseas territories, multi and bilateral agencies, and international, national and regional organisations have worked with GLISPA to advance high-level commitments and on the ground action for island conservations and sustainable use of natural resources. Without formal structure or dedicated staffing, GLISPA has helped catalyse more than US\$70 million in commitments to island conservation.

GLISPA's role

Each government and organisation active in the Global Island Partnership shares goals articulated in the CBD programmes of work and other international, regional and national plans. Each partner comes with its own priorities and mandates, which drive the GLISPA commitments that partners make. GLISPA's role is to provide a mechanism for achieving, accelerating and leveraging partner efforts and achievements.

GLISPA's main goals are to

1. Support successful implementation of commitments to island conservation and sustainable livelihoods.
2. Catalyse commitments to address critical island issues.
3. Establish and maintain a flexible and efficient Partnership responsive to its participants' needs and aspirations.

GLISPA Strategies

GLISPA was created to help bridge local and global initiatives, build upon existing networks and programmes and share knowledge among all islands. The Partnership defines its unique niche in the following way:

1. Inspire and recognise leadership and commitments to action for island conservation and sustainable livelihoods.
2. Strengthen partnerships to support implementation of commitments and to build local long-term conservation capacity.
3. Facilitate increased public and private funding for island priorities
4. Promote targeted and cost-effective collaboration and exchange among islands.
5. Engage in effective communication strategies on island issues.
6. Build linkages between all islands, regardless of political status.
7. Track progress on GLISPA commitments.

GLISPA principles

1. GLISPA is an open partnership, available to any national or local government, agency or organisation that shares its mission and supports the advancement of its objectives.
2. GLISPA commitments are based on global, national, regional and/or organisational priorities, including helping countries accelerate and improve action on key international policies and agreements.
3. Partners are responsible for implementing and funding their commitments, while the Partnership assists through its global network and capacity to facilitate action.
4. Collaboration is encouraged and facilitated by the Partnership but is always voluntary.
5. GLISPA concentrates on adding value to existing networks and initiatives.

GLISPA has assisted participant countries and organisations in conceiving, launching or strengthening more than 12 major island commitments. The following are examples of island commitments and initiatives that are utilising GLISPA to advance their collaboration, planning and implementation.

- **Micronesia challenge:** Five Micronesian governments – the Federated States of Micronesia, the Republic of Palau, the Republic of the Marshall Islands, the US Territory of Guam, and the US Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands – came together in a joint commitment to effectively conserve at least 30 per cent

of the near-shore marine resources and 20 per cent of the terrestrial resources across Micronesia by 2020.

- **Caribbean challenge:** With leadership from Grenada and The Bahamas, and involving Antigua and Barbuda, St Kitts and Nevis, St Vincent and the Grenadines, the Dominican Republic, St Lucia, and Jamaica the Caribbean challenge is an ambitious regional framework of conservation commitments and sustainable financing for national systems of protected areas including the establishment of a Caribbean Biodiversity Fund.
- **Phoenix Islands protected area:** In January 2008, the Government of Kiribati expanded the Phoenix Islands Protected Area and declared it the world's largest marine protected area, encompassing an ocean wilderness the size of California.

Partnerships for Sustainable Development in Small States examines measures through which small states can work together with the international community to strengthen their ability to pursue economic and social development. Due to their size and vulnerability, national practices alone would leave these countries unable to cope with the pressing challenges they face in areas such as climate change, sustainable manufacturing and renewable energy technologies.

In chapter one, development planning specialist Cletus I Springer examines the scope for effective partnerships and reviews the progress that has been made nationally, regionally and internationally. In chapter two, John L Roberts, Associate Professor at the University of Mauritius, highlights the need for new partnerships and notes new trends, such as the greater use of technology, that can be developed to address challenges more effectively.



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