

Annexes



Annex A

Guidance Note on Institutional and Context Analysis

A.1 Background

Political processes, informal institutions and power relations all play vital roles in the success or failure of development interventions. A development programme succeeds when key players have an incentive to make it succeed. When a society's principal actors are threatened by a development programme, they have an incentive to oppose it. Understanding how different actors in society have differing incentives to enable or oppose development interventions is critical to successful programming. Illuminating this mixture of incentives and constraints is the aim of institutional and context analysis at the country level.

ICA refers to **analyses that focus on political and institutional factors, as well as processes concerning the use of national and external resources in a given setting and how these have an impact on the implementation of programmes and policy advice**. ICA can help development practitioners become more strategic in their engagement with different actors and sectors.¹

¹ This annex includes excerpts from the UNDP *Institutional and Context Analysis Guidance Note*, which contains detailed guidance on carrying out an ICA.

A.2 Key ICA Assumptions and Questions

ICA is conceptually grounded in a set of assumptions of how development works, from which we derive distinctive questions. These can be summarized as follows:

1. **Human development often requires a change in power relations and/or incentive systems.** Groups establish systems that protect their privileges. Expect actors to support changes in the socio-economic and political order only when it does not threaten their own privileges. Many development interventions seek exactly such change. Ask:
 - ✿ What past conditions have led to historic pro-development or pro-poor policies in the country, such as laws relating to universal primary schooling, the enfranchisement of women, or the loosening of restrictions on the media?
 - ✿ Did these advances occur following major social movements or a post-conflict settlement, as a result of major electoral changes or for some other reason?
2. **The powerful reward their supporters before anyone else.** ICA focuses on the logic of political survival. Those in power must reward those who put them there before they can reward anyone else. Ask:



- On whom do the powerful depend to keep them in power? How are supporters rewarded?
 - What is the ability of those out of power, and those they represent, to protect their rights and have their voices heard? What other fault lines exist among those out of power?
3. **All actors in society have interests and incentives.** Rather than assume that everyone in society wants development, ICA assumes that some actors face incentives that potentially create conflict between their private and public interests. Broad groups (such as civil society or industrialists) often have opposing interests, as do groups within those categories. Some interests will be more easily discernible and will make more sense to outsiders than others. These include interests such as perpetuating the gender status quo, which may appear irrational or even harmful, but reflects deeply held views and emotions. Ask:
- What incentives exist for major actors to put public interests over their private interests?
 - What incentives could make actors put public interests before private interests? Can these private interests be leveraged for public gain?
4. **Resources shape incentives.** Sources of revenue shape the incentives of power holders to be more responsive to some groups than others. Ask:
- On what sources of revenue do power holders depend, and how does that dependence shape their incentives in responding to claim makers?
 - How does a development agency's presence affect the relationship between power holders and claim makers?

5. **All stakeholders in society have constraints.**

The mere presence of an incentive does not mean an ability to act on that incentive. Traditions and institutions, both formal and informal, shape actors' ability to act on their incentives. Ask:

- Are major actors constrained by formal rules, or do informal rules seem to matter more? How do gender relations influence the choices that individuals and institutions make?
- If a group or organization has an interest in an issue, is there evidence of their ability to act collectively? Do they have a history of effective activism?

The assumptions may not always be correct, but they can be useful in providing guidance.

A.3 Conducting an ICA

An ICA should be tailored to the specific area the project seeks to address, such as poverty-environment mainstreaming or gender mainstreaming. The analysis could draw on the findings of a country context analysis, which identifies the historical trajectory of the country and what has led it to where it is in broader terms. A well-designed country analysis focuses attention on incentives, relationships, and the distribution of and competition for power between groups and individual women and men, and includes data and information that are disaggregated by sex, age and other important variables. An understanding of a patriarchal political system, for example, may help make sense of gender inequalities in the economy; understanding corruption may require an appreciation of how it is fed by outside forces (e.g. in extractive industries). A country analysis can provide a good understanding of why certain reforms are difficult in the local context, which is useful in designing a project-level ICA. It can also improve the chances that the inclusion of a

pro-poor or gender-mainstreaming orientation is successful by pre-empting possible negative responses and addressing the best ways to work towards buy-in and cooperation from those who perceive their situation to be adversely affected, or their interests badly served, by such a project.

Before any analysis is carried out, decide on who will do the analysis, when it will be done and which methods will be used for data collection. Interview questions should be drawn up for different stakeholders and an ICA team set up. It is important at this stage to decide whether to involve partners and how to communicate findings. Detailed practical guidance on these steps can be found in UNDP's ICA guidance note (UNDP 2012).

The steps for carrying out an ICA are:

1. Defining the scope of the analysis
2. Institutional analysis
3. Stakeholder and engagement analysis:
 - Mapping the key actors, their incentives and the rules that constrain them, including gender relations
 - Identifying how to engage with different sets of stakeholders
4. Identifying entry points and risks:
 - Given the findings from Steps 2 and 3, what are the most promising entry points?
 - What are the risks, and how can they be mitigated?
5. Potential for change and areas to be prioritized

Step 1: Defining the Scope of the Analysis

The scope of the ICA should be determined based on project goals and available resources. Define the scope of the ICA in terms of the

specific development problem to be addressed. An ICA is intended to shed light on the causes of problems, so it is important that the motivating question asks why rather than who or what, because the latter call for descriptions rather than explanations. When the scope of the ICA has been determined, the terms of reference for a research team can be drawn up. See the template in the UNDP ICA guidance note.

Step 2: Institutional Analysis

An institutional analysis is used to identify the roles, responsibilities and structure of relevant institutions responsible for implementing the project. It helps identify constraints within an institution that may undermine policy implementation.² Such constraints may exist at the level of internal processes, relationships among institutions or system-wide. Institutional analysis evaluates formal institutions, such as rules, resource allocation and authorization procedures. It also evaluates "soft" institutions, such as informal rules of the game, power relations and incentive structures that underlie current practices. In the latter sense, it identifies organizational stakeholders likely to support or obstruct a given reform.

To understand the enabling (or disabling) environment in a certain area, it is important to map and analyse the formal and informal rules and institutions that influence the issue. This can be done through desk reviews, focus group interviews, stakeholder analyses and validation workshops. An ICA asks, "what are the rules, and who are the actors?" Rules refer to institutions, which can be formal or informal. Formal institutions include, for example, constitutions, which describe the division of governing power between the executive, legislative and judicial

² World Bank, "Institutional Analysis," <http://go.worldbank.org/ZMWHGHR2V0>, accessed 26 January 2015.



branches; the electoral system; local government units; and citizenship laws. Like formal institutions, informal institutions are also rule systems. They differ in that they are usually unwritten, although widely known. Examples include household and family structures, and kinship and patronage systems. All are heavily influenced by gender, which is expressed through social norms and attitudes.

In the context of poverty-environment mainstreaming, an institutional analysis helps:

- Provide an assessment of the local context in terms of economic and environmental issues, policy and planning frameworks, political drivers, key institutions, governance processes and actors.
- Provide an understanding of the “machinery of government”—i.e. how the government makes its decisions—relevant to poverty-environment objectives (e.g. government development policy and planning processes at the national and sectoral levels related to ENR, including identification of links or lack thereof between institutions).
- Identify and analyse institutional incentives, opportunities and obstacles that influence reform in ENR management, taking into account the range of relevant institutions, legislation, policies and plans, and key stakeholders.
- Identify potential government, civil society, private sector, media and donor champions for improved integration of sustainable ENR management.

The main institutions relevant to poverty-environment mainstreaming include:

- Finance and planning ministries
- Environmental ministries
- Sector ministries and subnational bodies

- Office of the head of state
- Parliament
- National statistics office
- Media
- Civil society organizations

The ICA should include the following in poverty assessments:

- Poverty levels, degree of inequality, trends, geographical spread
- How poverty is measured
 - Household survey (frequency, contents)
 - Poverty indicators
 - Single or multidimensional
 - Level of disaggregation
- Identification of poverty drivers
- Identification of poverty impact
- Identification of poverty-environment linkages
- Assessment of poverty awareness e.g. number of articles in principal newspapers

In terms of assessing how poverty reduction is included in policies, plans and programmes, the focus should be guided by the question, “What is actually being done to reduce poverty?”

- Macrolevel poverty reduction targets (e.g. as in a PRSP or national development plan)
- Inclusion and application of poverty indicators and poverty-environment indicators in national monitoring frameworks
- Identification of specific poverty reduction policies, strategies, plans, etc., and overview of effectiveness (based on existing data)
- Degree of inclusion of national-level poverty reduction targets in other relevant policies, plans, programmes and projects (e.g. does the agriculture sector plan include a focus

on rural poverty reduction? Do women have equal rights over access to land? If not, is the government going to introduce land rights for women?)

- Degree of inclusion of poverty-environment objectives in policies, plans, etc., at different levels
- Determination if sufficient budgets are being allocated to poverty reduction efforts
- Determination of whether donors prioritize support for poverty reduction and if so how

The tools used to incorporate poverty reduction in national planning, policy, programme and project decision-making should be identified. For example:

- What poverty assessment tools are applied in the design and monitoring of policies, plans, programmes and projects?
- Are tools to measure sustainability-poverty linkages applied?
- Do the standard government manuals for programme and project design, including cost-benefit analysis, require distributional analysis?
- Is distributional weighting in favour of poorer or more vulnerable groups applied?

PEI experience in a number of countries suggests that the ICA will probably find weaknesses in national efforts to assess poverty and that efforts to reduce poverty require substantive strengthening. It is necessary to identify both why these weaknesses exist and steps to strengthen efforts to measure and address poverty. This will most likely require a specific focus in a related study—e.g. a study identifying the economic cost of unsustainable ENR could include a specific focus on poverty. Such a study should achieve the following:

- Identify the main methodological, institutional, legal and budgetary barriers to the adequate measurement of poverty and to the design and implementation of actions to reduce poverty, particularly ENR-related poverty.
 - **Methodological.** Are the tools used by government, donors and other development decision-makers, planners, economists, etc., appropriate for assessing the multidimensional nature of poverty in a disaggregated manner? Are appropriate tools used for poverty reduction in the design, implementation and monitoring of policies, plans, programmes and projects?
 - **Institutional.** This includes development planning and implementation institutional structures, design, mandates and processes, as well as how effectively these operate in general and specifically how effectively these integrate include poverty assessments and reduction. For example, if poverty reduction is a national priority, how is this reflected in sector policies and plans? What are the mechanisms for cross-ministry and cross-sector coordination with respect to poverty reduction? Are there capacity constraints that create bottlenecks?
 - **Legal.** For example, do laws governing forestry include provisions designed to contribute to poverty reduction? Do land tenure laws discriminate against women?
 - **Budgetary.** Do annual and medium-term budgets include adequate allocations to support poverty reduction efforts? If not, identify the reasons: e.g. is there inadequate coherence between national poverty reduction targets and budgetary allocations? What causes this incoherence?



- Recommend actions (methodological, institutional, legal and budgetary) to remove those barriers, and improve national capacities to implement and sustain the actions. These recommendations should be results based and realistic.

Step 3: Stakeholder and Engagement Analysis

Stakeholder analysis is related to institutional analysis, but places far more emphasis on individual motivation and/or collective interest than on structures and procedures. It is used to identify actors or stakeholders within the rule systems or institutions (both formal and informal) that can influence a particular process and to understand their interests, constraints and ability to influence the outcome of a project. Stakeholders can be individuals, organizations or other groups and can include international actors (e.g. donors), government officials, civil society or faith-based organizations, interest groups and citizens in general. Gender relations play an important role both in identifying actors (for instance, by specifying groups of men or women within a larger group) and determining the relative position of these actors within a given context.

A stakeholder and engagement analysis provides information about different types of actors, how project staff should engage with them and what types of interactions can be promoted. It has three parts: (i) stakeholder mapping, (ii) understanding stakeholder incentives and constraints and (iii) identifying the best way to engage with different types of stakeholders and foster coalitions for change.

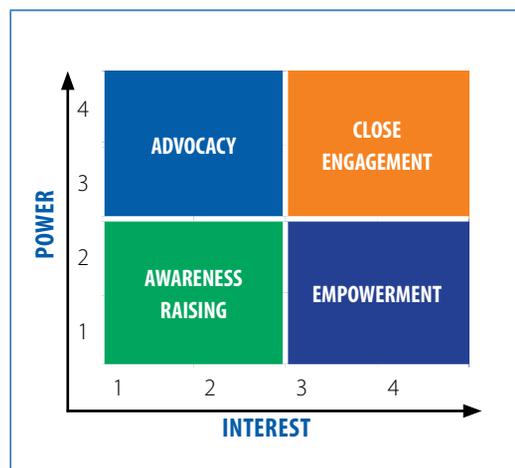
- **Stakeholder mapping.** This mapping can cover a description of actors who can influence the project focus area. This can be followed by a more detailed analysis of their power, interest in achieving the objectives stated in the project proposed, incentives and constraints.

- **Understanding stakeholder incentives and constraints.** Once key actors are mapped to their roles, a more detailed assessment can be made of their interests and the degree of influence they have on the project.

- **Identifying the best way to engage with different types of stakeholders and foster coalitions for change.** Completion of the first two steps enables a good understanding of the individuals or groups that are potential allies of the project objectives and those that can block the project. Additionally, enough information will be gathered to identify which stakeholders may find an alliance mutually beneficial, and to foster dialogue and coalition building towards change.

It can be useful to draw a diagram ([figure A.1](#)) to help visualize the types of stakeholders that may affect the project and the best way to engage with them. This technique is particularly useful in validating the findings of the analysis with others who may or may not have been part of the ICA exercise. To do this, list all key stakeholders and answer these questions:

Figure A.1 Power/Interest Matrix for Determining Methods of Stakeholder Engagement



- How much formal or informal power does each stakeholder have (i.e. to what extent can they influence the outcome of the project concerned) on a scale from 1 to 4?
- How much interest does each stakeholder have in the success of the proposed project on a scale from 1 to 4?

Based on the answers, determine how project staff should engage with different sets of stakeholders:

- Those who have a high degree of power will require more engagement on the part of senior project staff, albeit of a different kind. Stakeholders with **high power and high interest** in the success of the project are potential champions, and senior project staff should engage closely with them. Those who have **low power but high interest** are potential allies of the champions identified. Project staff can work to empower them through project activities and, at the same time, facilitate dialogue and coalition building among like-minded stakeholders in order to foster coalitions for change.
- Stakeholders with a low degree of interest in the success of the project will require a different type of engagement. Those with **high power and low interest** have the potential to block or slow the project, and project staff should therefore engage with them through advocacy whenever possible. In some situations, there will be no change in the behaviour or attitude of these stakeholders, as the project may not be of interest to them or may go against their interests. In such cases, the analysis is still useful, because it will reveal realistic paths that can be pursued with different sets of stakeholders and thus help project staff make informed decisions when prioritizing actions and allocating resources. Finally, stakeholders with **low power and low interest** may simply be unaware of the

project's potential benefits. Engaging with this set of stakeholders can primarily entail raising awareness.

Step 4: Identifying Entry Points and Risks

Identifying entry points and risks are key goals of an ICA at the project level, so that the knowledge gained from the exercise can add value to development effectiveness. When considering entry points, it is useful to consider a human rights-based approach to programming and develop strategies to support both claim holders and duty bearers. Circumstances affecting entry points and stakeholders may change during project implementation, so it is important to consider risk mitigation strategies. Stakeholder groups may be affected by informal rules that privilege some group members over others and result in layers of different interests (for instance, women farmers will often have more gender equality concerns than their male counterparts, whose agenda may be confined to agricultural or land issues). When stakeholder interests and incentives are identified through stakeholder analysis, it becomes easier to monitor issues that may have an impact on these interests and change them over time.

Step 5: Potential for Change and Areas to Be Prioritized

Based on the information collected in the previous steps, an ICA can help identify the potential for change as well as actions to prioritize adequate responses and ways forward. This is the ultimate objective of the ICA and can help reveal unintended but potentially harmful effects which should be considered when formulating a project. It is particularly relevant in the context of promoting gender equality, as projects may unintentionally have negative effects on women (or men) if no proper analysis of gender relations was done at the start or if the conclusions from such an analysis were ignored. When project



interventions touch on power differentials, such as gender inequalities or deeply ingrained traditions, project success is more likely if an ICA includes such questions from the outset and aims to identify and implement practical win-win solutions.

A.4 Practical Considerations

A key challenge in a project-level ICA is operationalizing the findings. For this reason, it is important to take a practical rather than academic approach when working on the analysis so that recommendations can focus on specific issues. These may

include identifying the most promising entry points for programming, national partners (from government, civil society, the private sector) with whom development agencies can engage, as well as areas where change may not be realistic in the short- to medium term.

Planning the design and execution of an ICA raises a number of practical questions. Who will conduct the analysis? How long will it take? What will it cost? Should the analysis be treated as an internal document or should it be shared with partners? The answers to these questions will vary according to resources, context and the type of analysis in question.



Annex B

Guidance Note on Integrating Environment-Linked Poverty Concerns into Planning, Budgeting and Monitoring Processes

B.1 Background

The contribution of ENR to the wealth of nations and to human well-being, particularly in low-income countries, plays a vital role in promoting pro-poor economic growth. In 43 countries classified as low-income, natural capital makes up 36 per cent of total wealth (WAVES 2012). In lower-middle-income countries, natural capital makes up 25 per cent of total wealth (Canuto and Cavallari 2012). Significant percentages of the population, particularly the poor, in these low- and lower-middle-income countries depend on ENR for their livelihoods and income (WAVES 2012). With rapid economic growth over the past two decades, increasing pressure on ENR is eroding the natural asset base of the poor. The vulnerability of the poor is further magnified by the high and increasing incidence of natural disasters such as droughts and floods, and the impacts of climate change. If these trends continue, the significant development gains made by countries over the past two decades will be reversed.

To address these challenges, governments need to invest in more sustainable ENR use that contributes to achieving poverty reduction and other development goals. Poverty-environment mainstreaming efforts should thus:

- Assess and measure the links between ENR use and poverty

- Demonstrate how more sustainable use of ENR can help reduce poverty
- Identify and implement actions to improve ENR sustainability such that it contributes to the reduction of poverty and the achievement of related development goals such as food security

The purpose of this note is to provide development practitioners and policymakers with guidance to meet these three requirements. This guidance is based on PEI experience in supporting countries to quantify identified ENR-poverty links in terms of the impact on poverty and to identify policy options to accelerate poverty reduction through more sustainable use of ENR. More detailed guidance is available on the [PEI](#) website.

B.2 The Concept and Measurement of Poverty

Poverty is not a self-defining concept. A wide range of poverty literature includes a number of definitions of poverty. For example, Lipton and Ravallion (1995) state that

...poverty exists when one or more persons fall short of a level of economic welfare deemed to constitute a reasonable minimum, either in some absolute sense or by the standards of a specific society.



The World Bank defines poverty as deprivation in well-being, where well-being can be measured by an individual's possession of income, health, nutrition, education, assets, housing and certain rights in a society such as freedom of speech (Haughton and Khandker 2009). Frankenberger (1996) defines absolute poverty as when one is unable to meet basic needs requirements such as adequate food, safe water, health care, shelter, primary education and community participation.

Despite universal acknowledgement of the multidimensional nature of poverty, there has been a tendency by policymakers and development practitioners to focus primarily on income or consumption levels when defining poverty. While one-dimensional measurements of poverty have their uses, no single indicator alone can capture the multiple aspects that constitute poverty—such as poor health, lack of education, inadequate standard of living, lack of income, lack of access to clean water and sanitation, disempowerment, poor quality of work and threat from violence. For instance, earning \$1.25 per day is unlikely to mean the end of the many overlapping deprivations faced by poor people, including malnutrition, poor sanitation, a lack of electricity or inadequate schools (Alkire and Sumner 2013).

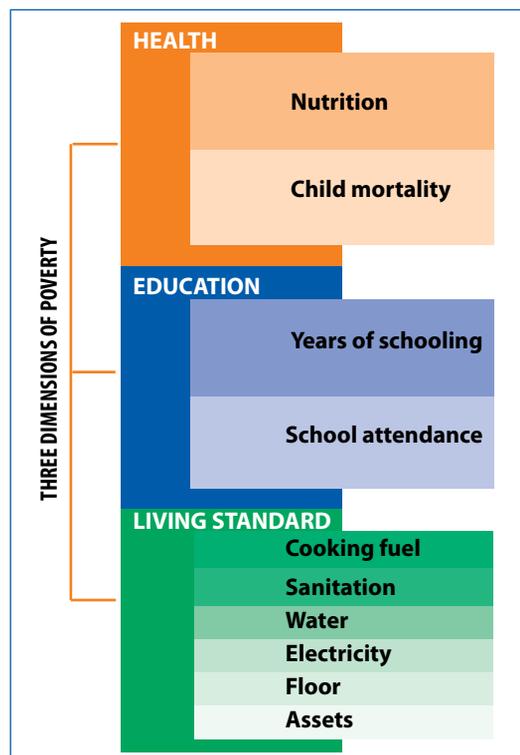
A multidimensional measure can incorporate a range of well-being, social and economic indicators to capture the complexity of poverty and better inform policies to address it. The Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) methodology developed by the Oxford Poverty & Human Development Initiative is an example of a multidimensional measure of poverty. It identifies multiple deprivations at the household and individual level in health, education and standard of living. It can be broken down by indicator to show how the composition of multidimensional poverty changes for

different regions, ethnic groups and so on, with useful implications for policy (figure B.1).

The MPI reflects both the prevalence and intensity of multidimensional deprivation—how many deprivations people experience at the same time. It can be used to create a comprehensive picture of people living in poverty. MPI indicators can be adapted to the country level, where the multidimensional poverty approach to assessing deprivations at the household level can be tailored using country-specific data and indicators to provide a fuller picture of poverty at the country level.

Whether one-dimensional or multidimensional, poverty or relative poverty can be measured in terms of income, consumption and assets.

Figure B.1 Multidimensional Poverty Index



Source: OPHI, <http://www.ophi.org.uk/multidimensional-poverty-index/>, accessed 21 March 2015.

Consumption measures of poverty are not ideal but have substantive advantages over income measures. For example, income measurement may be substantively inaccurate if informal markets, bartering and non-paid work are involved: people may be unwilling to reveal income data. Consumption provides a more accurate indication of actual well-being, although consumption figures collected in one year may not provide an accurate indication of long-term well-being. Assets, however—either outright ownership or access rights—are a key indicator of longer-term well-being and also reduce vulnerability to economic and other shocks.

There are quantitative and qualitative measures of poverty, which include monetary and non-monetary measures. Income and expenditure in dollars are quantitative monetary measures; caloric intake is a non-monetary quantitative measure. Distance to water and time taken to collect water and firewood are other non-monetary quantitative measures. Qualitative measures rely on both visual and anecdotal information to describe poverty as it is experienced by individuals and groups. Qualitative methods include a focus on how poor people identify their deprivations and provide greater depth and understanding of dimensions of poverty and how they interact. For example, a PEI Rwanda study on the economic consequences of unsustainable ENR use that included discussions with poor people identified how the lack of alternatives to fuelwood was leading to deforestation and worsened child health indicators (Government of Rwanda and UNDP-UNEP PEI 2014). The link between these two points was that to save on fuelwood, caregivers were reducing the time they spent on boiling water and cooking food—resulting in increased rates of water-borne diseases and decreased nutritional absorption by very young children.

Another aspect of measuring poverty is the unit of observation chosen. Many surveys focus on

the household level, but focusing on individuals is necessary to obtain disaggregated data. Gender-disaggregated data are important, for example, since well-being can vary widely between men and women in a household.

B.3 An Approach to Poverty-Environment Mainstreaming

While the links between poverty and ENR have been explored in many PEI and other poverty-environment-related studies,¹ those linkages need to be quantified more systematically in terms of impact on poverty and other development goals. Further, proactive and comprehensive efforts to identify policy options need to be undertaken to accelerate poverty reduction through more sustainable use of ENR.

The PEI programmatic approach to poverty-environment mainstreaming detailed in chapter 3 answers to these needs, enabling improved inclusion of poverty elements in successful poverty-environment mainstreaming, as described below.

Finding the entry points and making the case. This component sets the stage for focusing on the poverty dimension of poverty-environment mainstreaming. Preliminary assessments should provide an overview of national poverty levels and drivers, including poverty-ENR linkages. This includes identifying the poor and understanding their priority needs. These findings can then be used to raise awareness, highlighting how more sustainable ENR use could help reduce poverty.

¹ E.g. in Burkina Faso, Malawi and Mozambique; see <http://www.unpei.org/economic-valuation-and-analysis-%E2%80%93-a-building-block-towards-inclusive-green-economy>.



With respect to poverty elements, quantifying the linkages involve an analysis of how unsustainable natural resource use and environmental degradation affect poverty levels—e.g. how soil erosion contributes to poverty. A multidimensional approach should be taken into account in this analysis of linkages, including indicators such as income and access to assets such as land, health, food security, water, energy and education. The quantification should be disaggregated by gender to identify, for example, differences in incomes, the time women spend on water and firewood collection, children's access to education, etc.

It may be advisable and more practical to first prepare a general economic assessment of economic-ENR linkages which includes some poverty-ENR linkages and then to carry out a detailed disaggregated assessment that quantifies poverty-ENR linkages. In this manner, an overall picture of economic-ENR linkages is obtained to generate support across a range of ministries, departments, agencies and other stakeholders in poverty-environment mainstreaming.

Mainstreaming into national planning and budgeting processes. This component focuses on integrating poverty-environment objectives into a policy, national development planning or budget process. While most developing country governments state that poverty reduction is a top priority, this may not be adequately reflected in the design and implementation of policies, strategies and programmes. Government may not include an assessment of the poverty reduction impacts of different policy, strategy and programme options. This may reflect an implicit assumption that economic growth will reduce poverty and/or a lack of tools and capacity to adequately include poverty reduction objectives in policies, strategies and programmes. Thus, the degree to which poverty reduction is focused on, as well as the

capacity to use poverty reduction tools and analysis, should be assessed. Relevant tools, such as poverty and social impact analysis, are outlined below. The results of the assessments should then be used to identify specific actions to improve the inclusion of poverty reduction in government policies, strategies and tools relevant to poverty-environment mainstreaming.

Mainstreaming into sectoral and subnational planning and budgeting, monitoring and private investment. This component focuses on (i) operationalizing poverty-environment objectives in national policies and plans through engagement in key sector and subnational planning and budget processes; (ii) integrating and applying poverty-environment indicators in associated monitoring processes to ensure that intended outcomes are achieved and that the well-being of targeted beneficiaries improves; and (iii) integrating poverty-environment objectives in mechanisms to guide private sector investment.

Activities include assessments of how well sector and subnational policies and plans include pro-poor ENR sustainability. Influencing and assessing sector policies require substantive engagement with sector working groups; the collection of more sector-specific, detailed evidence of poverty-ENR linkages; and inputs to sector policy and strategy drafts that include actions to improve ENR sustainability and reduce poverty. At the subnational level, it includes working with ministries of local government to better include pro-poor sustainability in district and provincial planning and budgeting mechanisms. For example, in Nepal, the government has developed an environmentally friendly local governance framework to mainstream sustainable ENR management into local development planning to achieve multiple benefits, including poverty reduction. With PEI support, the change needed to implement this framework has been

identified and will be rolled out to national, district and village governments down to the household level.

Increasing budget, donor and other financial allocations for pro-poor sustainable ENR investments, such as sustainable agriculture or strengthening resilience to climate change, is a key focus under this component. This includes supporting the preparation of sector and subnational budgets for pro-poor ENR sustainability investments. To do so may require more specific economic evidence, and it is critical that such evidence identifies the poverty-reduction benefits of sustainable ENR use. Influencing budgets will also require substantive engagement in budget processes—both annual and medium-term budget frameworks.

It is also important to highlight the potential for increasing government revenues through more investment in sustainable ENR—e.g. through improved royalties from sustainable forestry—which could be coupled with analysis of pro-poor revenue-sharing mechanisms. In this regard, PEI Mozambique has supported the government in reviewing benefit-sharing mechanisms for the forestry, gas and mining sector.² Similarly, in the Philippines, PEI has supported the government in managing assets and revenues from environmental and mineral resources for local development and poverty reduction through improving national systems and regulatory frameworks, and building the capacity of local government to collect and utilize natural resource revenue. As with the previous component, monitoring of delivery and results is important, as is integrating poverty-environment indicators into sectoral and subnational monitoring systems

² <http://www.unpei.org/latest-news/mozambique-reviews-benefit-sharing-mechanisms-for-the-forestry-gas-and-mining-sector>.

B.4 Methodologies and Tools

There are a number of tools to assess ENR-poverty linkages at the macro, sector, local and household levels. These include general equilibrium modelling at the macro level which can measure the impact on GDP, adjusted net savings, institutional and context analysis, mapping of ENR-poverty linkages, vulnerability assessments, and household surveys. Poverty impact assessment, PSIA, the Multidimensional Poverty Assessment Tool (MPAT), and cost-benefit analysis are methodologies and tools to support the integration and operationalization of poverty assessments and environment-linked poverty reduction concerns into the design, revision and implementation of policies, plans, programmes and projects. These are briefly discussed below. For further guidance on the use of these tools, see the [Guidance Note on Poverty available on the PEI website](#).

General equilibrium modelling is a quantitative method to estimate the impact of policy, budgetary and other changes, including external shocks, on the economy as a whole. It is used if an economic or other policy change is expected to have significant impacts throughout the economy and is the best option in analysing the static/dynamic, direct/indirect and short-/long-term effects of a change or proposed change. For example, it is used to estimate the impact of fiscal policy, trade policy, climate change shocks and changes in international prices. In the ENR context, it was used in Malawi to estimate the economic impacts of unsustainable natural resource use on GDP and the impact of soil erosion on poverty (Yaron et al. 2011).

Adjusted net savings, or genuine savings, measures the true rate of savings in an economy after taking into account investment in human capital, depletion of natural resources



and damage caused by pollution.³ It seeks to provide national-level decision-makers with a relatively simple, clear indicator of how sustainable their country's investment policies are. In standard national accounting, only the formation of fixed produced capital is counted as an investment in the future and thus as an increase in the value of the assets available to society. Similarly, standard calculation of net savings rates only includes depreciation in the value of human-made capital as a decrease in the value of a nation's assets. The adjusted net savings framework takes the broader view that natural and human capital are assets upon which the productivity and therefore the well-being of a nation rest. Since depletion of a non-renewable resource (or overexploitation of a renewable one) decreases the value of that resource stock as an asset, such activity represents a disinvestment in future productivity and well-being. In Malawi, the World Bank estimated adjusted net savings for 2006 to be 12.24 per cent of gross national income, indicating that national wealth was increasing (Yaron et al. 2011). However, this estimate excluded the latest evidence on deforestation from woodfuel use, the cost of soil nutrient losses, estimates of the costs of indoor air pollution or any estimates for the fisheries or wildlife subsectors. By including these items in a PEI-supported economic study, the Government of Malawi found that its adjusted net savings for 2006 falls to 7.14 per cent of gross national income (Yaron et al. 2011).

Institutional and context analysis focuses on political and institutional factors, as well as processes concerning the use of national and external resources in a given setting and how these have an impact on the implementation of programmes and policy advice (UNDP 2012).

³ Source: World Bank, <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/environmental-accounting>.

It can help development practitioners become more strategic in their engagement with different actors and sectors. When carrying out an ICA or its equivalent at the start of the poverty-environment mainstreaming process, an assessment of how the country assesses poverty and what it is actually doing to reduce poverty should be carried out, including on whether poverty-ENR links are reflected. With PEI support, the Government of Botswana undertook an institutional analysis to better understand the dynamics of environmental and development issues (UNDP-UNEP PEI 2009). Further guidance on ICAs can be found in [annex A](#).

Mapping ENR-poverty linkages is a way to move beyond the aggregate, national-level indicators that can mask important differences between regions or areas. To analyse poverty, its determinants and poverty-reducing interventions requires a focus on poverty information that is geographically disaggregated and—further—enables examination of its many dimensions and multiple determinants (e.g. geographic and agro-climatic factors, services, etc.). Poverty mapping—the plotting of such information on maps—is a useful way to display information on the spatial distribution of welfare and its determinants. It is also useful to simultaneously display different dimensions of poverty and/or its determinants. Mapping can help pinpoint areas where development lags and highlight the location and condition of infrastructure and natural resource assets that are critical to poverty reduction programmes. Poverty-environment mapping has been undertaken in Rwanda and Tanzania, with PEI support, and has proved to be a useful tool not only for analysis and presentation of poverty-environment concerns but also as an advocacy tool to raise awareness on key poverty-environment issues.

Vulnerability assessments are essential for shaping climate change adaptation decisions.

They help define the nature and extent of the threat that may harm a given human or ecological system, providing a basis for devising measures that will minimize or avoid this harm. They provide a means to understand how different groups—including women—will be affected by climate change and to identify adaptation measures based on needs and priorities. There are various methodologies available to assess climate risk and vulnerability at various scales; these should incorporate climate data and local knowledge. For local vulnerability assessments, local communities should be involved in a participatory manner—especially the poor, as they may provide access to a broader knowledge base, which in turn can improve problem definition and strengthen the analysis.

Household surveys are a significant source of socio-economic data. Important indicators to inform and monitor development policies are often derived from such surveys. The surveys are administered at the household level and collect information related to a household's consumption of goods and services as well as about the individuals living in those households. They are a rich source of pertinent information such as size and structure of households, education levels, health status, livelihood and income sources and levels, consumption, access to natural resources, access to public services, and so on. These surveys sample carefully selected households, and are designed to yield results that are representative at national and selected subnational (provincial or rural/urban) levels. Based on household survey data, poverty can be measured through income or consumption. In developing countries, where it is often not possible to accurately measure income, measuring consumption is the preferred alternative, as it provides accurate information on how well households are actually able to meet their basic needs. Household survey data can include consumption from

both own production and common property resources, which can be a significant component of the consumption of rural households. Furthermore, the survey data can provide important insights in understanding the poor. For example, the dependence of the poor on ENR can be measured quantitatively, and thus a measure of benefits determined. Such analyses could be done to compare the dependence of non-poor with poor households on natural resources, and ascertain the type and level of uses important to different income groups, and better targeting of the poor.

Poverty impact assessment helps decision-makers determine strategic choices for public actions so as to have the greatest impact on reducing poverty and achieving pro-poor growth (OECD 2007). It aims at informing operations at the project and programme level, and provides decision-makers with a better understanding about potential winners and losers of an intervention, thus supporting a results-oriented approach. Poverty impact assessment is best used prior to assessing the impacts that can be expected from planned reforms and programmes. It can thus leave room for different options, identify mitigating measures and needed modifications, and support decision-makers in choosing appropriate solutions. Poverty impact assessment can also be applied to adjust and fine-tune implementation and, after implementation, to support evaluations and identify lessons learned.

Poverty and social impact analysis is an analytical approach used to assess the distributional and social impacts of policy reforms on different groups (World Bank 2013). PSIA can be carried out ex ante or ex post policy reform. If conducted before or during the reform process, it can provide a sound empirical basis to inform the design and sequencing of alternative policy options. If conducted after the reform, PSIA can help assess the actual impacts of the policy;



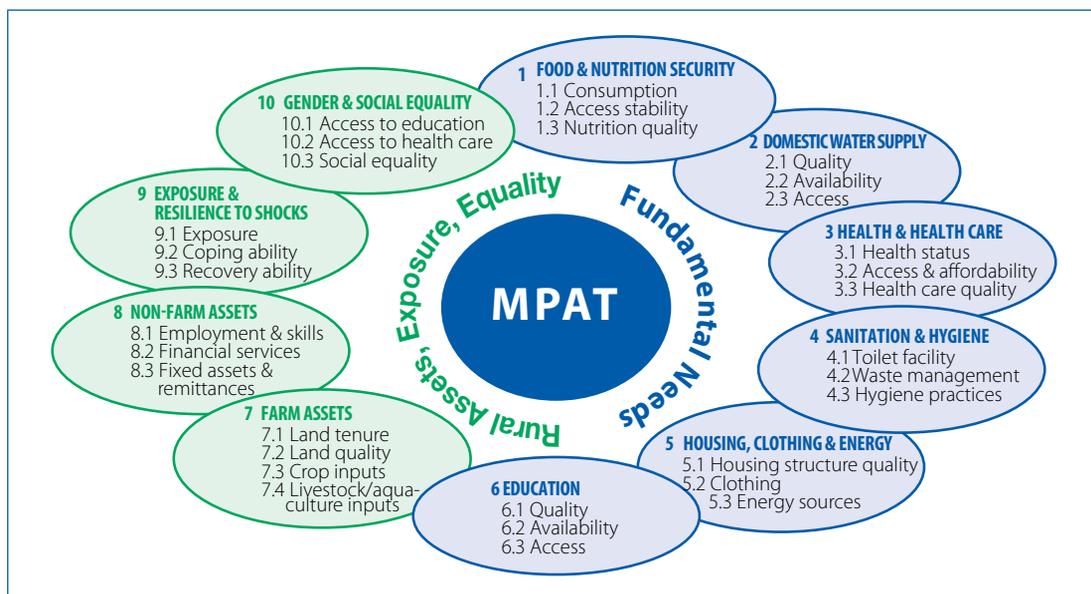
this can suggest ways to mitigate any adverse effects and help decision-makers understand the likely impacts of future reforms. While PSIA and poverty impact assessment are tools for analysing the distributional impacts of policies, programmes and projects on the well-being of poor women and men, the main difference between these tools is the level of intervention; this has implications for the scope of the analysis and for the required time and resources. PSIA often requires a considerable effort of specific data collection for thorough social, political and economic analysis, comprising a whole range of quantitative and qualitative tools including micro- and macroeconomic modelling. As a less resource-intensive version, poverty impact assessment draws predominantly on existing data and analyses. It provides an estimation of effects and a quick overview.

Gender is a relevant dimension of policy reform impacts, as different groups of women and men have different needs and roles in society;

each group is affected differently by economic, social and political processes. PSIA that recognizes the gender dimensions of reforms can inform policy interventions, so they can take these gender differences into account. This in turn has the potential to improve policy effectiveness and impact. In Botswana, PEI supported the government in undertaking a PSIA of the Integrated Support Programme for Arable Agriculture Development. It aimed to analyse programme performance, with a particular focus on key programme activities and their impact on poor people, vulnerable groups and the environment. Based on the results of the analysis, the government is working to modify the programme to enhance its overall arable productivity and effectiveness and to further contribute to rural poverty alleviation and food security.

IFAD's **MPAT** presents data that can inform all levels of decision-making by providing a clearer understanding of rural poverty at

Figure B.2 Multidimensional Poverty Assessment Tool



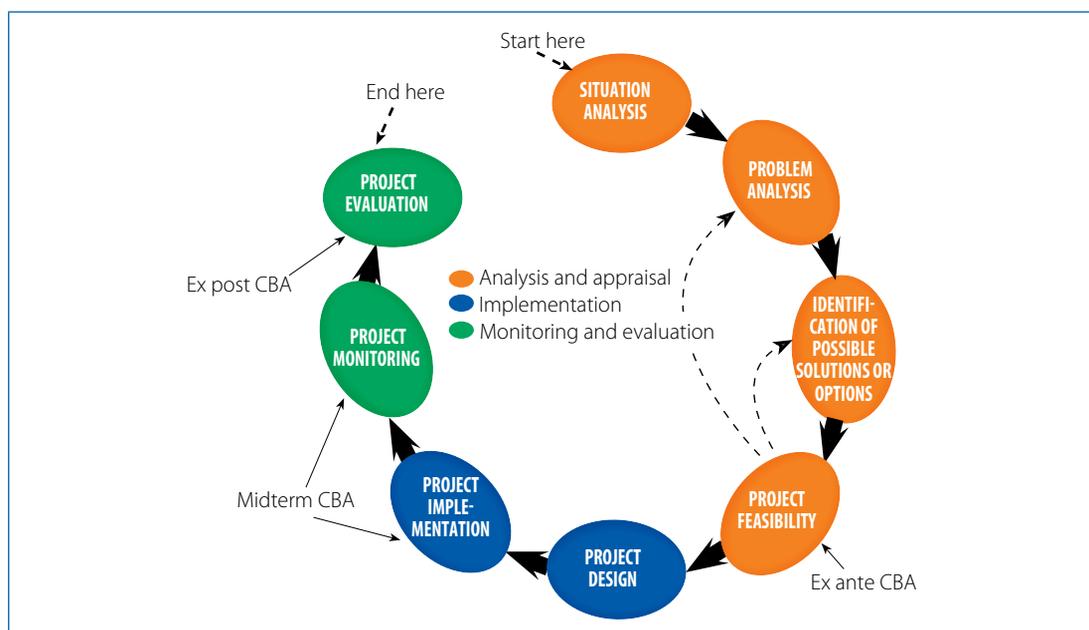
Source: IFAD 2014.

the household and village levels (figure B.2). It uses purpose-built surveys to gather data on people's perceptions about fundamental and interconnected aspects of their lives, livelihoods and environments. The data are then combined, distilled and presented in an accessible way through standardized indicators, developed through a comprehensive participatory process. The tool collects a variety of data through household and village surveys, which are then organized along 10 MPAT dimensions, or components: food and nutrition security; domestic water supply; health and health care; sanitation and hygiene; housing, clothing and energy; education; farm assets; non-farm assets; exposure and resilience to shocks; and gender and social equality. An important contribution of MPAT is that the values and weights assigned to each response and subcomponent have been standardized across countries and contexts, resulting in scores that permit cross-situation analysis and

comparisons across projects, places and time (IFAD 2014). MPAT can be employed at various points in the project cycle: at the beginning, for baseline poverty studies, situation analysis and project design; during project implementation, to support mid-course correction; and at project end, to track long-term community outcomes and poverty alleviation.

Cost-benefit analysis is a systematic process for identifying, valuing and comparing the costs and benefits of a given project (Buncle et al. 2013). CBA helps determine whether the benefits of a project outweigh its costs, and by how much relative to other alternatives (figure B.3). The objective is to determine whether the proposed project is (or was) a sound decision or investment; and/or compare alternative project options and make a decision on the preferred option. Ultimately, a CBA helps inform decisions about whether to proceed with a project, and to choose which project

Figure B.3 Cost-Benefit Analysis



Source: Buncle et al. 2013, as adapted from Lal and Holland 2010.



option to implement where there are several options. The key features of a CBA are:

- All related costs (losses) and benefits (gains) of a project are considered, including potential impacts on human lives and the environment.
- Costs and benefits are assessed from a whole-of-society perspective, rather than from the perspective of one particular individual or interest group (i.e. a public and not a private perspective is taken).
- Costs and benefits are expressed to the extent possible in monetary terms as the basis for comparison.⁴
- Costs and benefits that are realized in different time periods in the future are

⁴Costs and benefits that cannot be quantified in monetary terms are still considered during decision-making.

aggregated to a single time dimension (discounting) (Buncle et al. 2013).

CBA may be used at a number of points during the project cycle. These are ex ante (before project implementation), mid-term and ex post (after project implementation). Applied at different stages, CBA can serve slightly different functions. The “ideal” time to undertake a CBA depends on what analysts want from the findings. For example, a CBA will be most informative about project design if it is carried out before implementation, but the values estimated will only be projections. For certainty about actual achievements, an ex post CBA would be needed. However, this would be too late to influence the design of the finished work, although it could inform future work. With PEI support, a CBA drawing on valuation of ecosystem services has been used to assess various land-use options in northern Lao PDR.

Annex C

Guidance Note on Integrating Natural Wealth in GDP

C.1 Background

Since the Bretton Woods Conference in 1944, the globally accepted measurement of a country's economy has been based on gross domestic product.¹ GDP measures the gross output of an economy, and trends over time give an indication of whether an economy is growing or shrinking. Thus, it is also used to assess the effectiveness of current economic policies. However, GDP was neither established as a measure of wider societal well-being nor of the state of a country's natural wealth. Natural wealth, together with human and manufactured capital, provides the inputs necessary for the production of a country's outputs ([figure C.1](#)). When a country exploits its forest or mineral resources, it is depleting its assets and forgoing future use—a circumstance not reflected in GDP. GDP does not capture the loss of natural areas that provide ecosystem services (e.g. regulatory, provisioning services), or the depletion of renewable natural resources (forests, fisheries, etc.) and mineral resources; nor does it capture future losses that might arise from climate change and pollution.

¹ GDP as defined by the OECD as “an aggregate measure of production equal to the sum of the gross values added of all resident institutional units engaged in production (plus any taxes, and minus any subsidies, on products not included in the value of their outputs” (<http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=1163>).

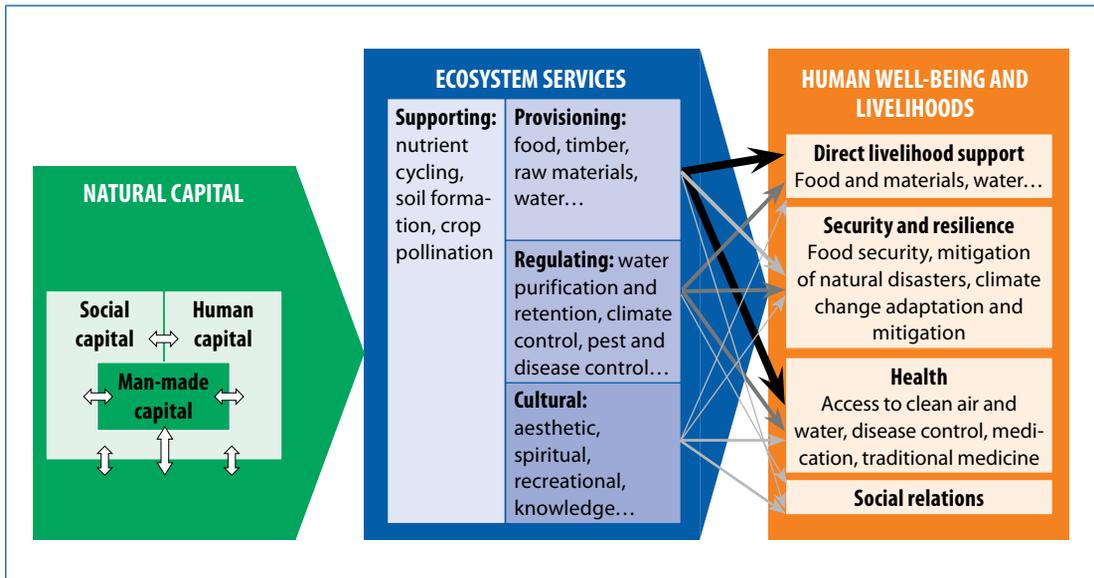
Since the 1980s, there has been a growing body of research and global efforts to value natural capital in monetary and economic terms and to integrate it into economic theory and decision-making (e.g. Pearce and Turner 1989). This guidance note aims to provide an overview of key concepts and recent developments in this regard, along with references for additional information.

C.2 Importance of Natural Capital Valuation and Accounting

Natural capital includes the major contributions to society and the economy of forests, wetlands, agricultural land, etc., that are not fully captured in traditional systems of national accounts. Natural capital matters: it makes up 36 per cent of the wealth of low-income countries (WAVES 2012). For example, globally more than 250 million people depend on ocean fisheries and aquaculture for their livelihood; in Madagascar, 75 per cent of the population depends on terrestrial and coastal ecosystems (WAVES 2012). Often, the full economic value of an ecosystem is not recognized in economic theory and decision-making. The timber value of forests, for example, can account for less than a third of the actual total economic value of all forest ecosystems. This is because forests' non-market goods (e.g. non-timber forest products, woodfuel, etc.) and regulating services (water and climate regulation, pollination, etc.) are not sufficiently valued and are largely absent from economic analysis and national accounts.



Figure C.1 Relationship of Natural Capital, Ecosystem Services and Human Well-Being



Source: TEEB 2013.

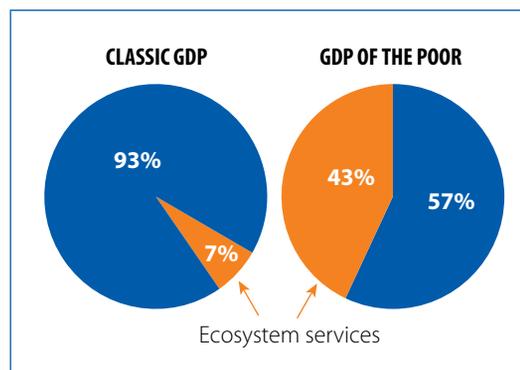
Note: Arrow colour indicates potential for mediation by socio-economic factors; the lighter the arrow, the lower the opportunity. Arrow width indicates intensity of linkages between ecosystem services and human well-being.

There is growing recognition of the need for more holistic measurements that help determine the full extent of a country's natural assets such as water, forests and ecosystems which underpin a country's economy and people's livelihoods. By fully accounting for these assets, countries can provide more accurate information to their policymakers—which in turn can result in better economic decisions about development priorities and investments.

Poor and vulnerable groups are disproportionately dependent on ecosystem services for their livelihoods, and therefore can be most affected by ENR degradation and ecological shocks. A determination of a "GDP of the poor" that draws on the contribution of ecosystem services to livelihoods shows that such services constitute a substantially larger component of GDP compared to classic national GDP calculations (figure C.2).

Integration of ecosystem services into economic theory represents an increasingly important area of work directed at ensuring environmental sustainability. It also involves the statistical community in consultation with scientific and policymaking communities to

Figure C.2 Ecosystems and Poverty in India



Source: Sukhdev 2009.

pursue broader measurement frameworks for environmental assets that provide goods and services. These include services not fully recognized by markets, such as carbon sequestration and water regulation, and their links to other areas influencing the well-being of families and communities.

This work entails building institutional capacities and strengthening evidence-based policy processes that draw on quantitative and qualitative data from integrated social, environmental, and economic assessments and surveys; valuation of ecosystem services; elaboration of indicators and indexes; and inclusion of ecosystem accounting in a system of national accounts. It also involves building effective collaborations and communication channels between a range of institutions—including ministries of finance and planning, national statistics offices, ministries of environment and natural resource-related ministries (e.g. land, water, agriculture), and national research institutions and civil society organizations. Getting the work done requires multidisciplinary teams of practitioners and researchers in economic, social and environmental disciplines.

C.3 Efforts Towards Integration of National Wealth in Economic Decision-Making

The Rio+20 outcome document and the discussion on the post-2015 SDGs are furthering the push for ecosystem valuation and integration of natural wealth into economic decision-making and systems of national accounts. Numerous global and national initiatives are engaged in this work; several of these are highlighted below, along with sources and links for further information.

The Inclusive Wealth Index: Moving Beyond GDP

The Inclusive Wealth Index was launched at Rio+20 by UNEP and the United Nations University International Human Dimensions Programme as a means to measure progress more holistically. The index incorporates changes in human capital (as measured by the Human Development Index) and natural capital alongside existing measures of produced capital (GDP). Under the overarching premise of sustainable development, the Inclusive Wealth Index seeks to complement existing measures of national-level development by taking into account these two integral components of inclusive well-being and progress—components that have so far been ignored in human and economic development measurements. The index can thus be used to address the major policy gaps in growth and development that exist when issues of sustainability, natural resource depletion and human well-being are not taken into account. The December 2014 Inclusive Wealth Report, based on index data, showcases the changes in produced capital, human capital and natural capital in 140 countries from 1990 to 2010. The aggregate data indicate that, while GDP and the Human Development Index have made significant strides, natural capital has declined in 127 countries. The analysis available from the Inclusive Wealth Index enables countries to be aware of their holistic capital pool and thus push for greater action and accountability in moving towards sustainable development.

The Inclusive Green Economy

The inclusive green economy approach focuses on getting the macroeconomics “right” so as to enable sustainable and inclusive growth and development. Through active intervention aimed at reforming existing market structures, institutions, production and consumer



behaviours, and incentives architecture, the approach advocates for a greater integration of economics for better environmental and social outcomes. Several initiatives and partnerships have been mobilized to implement the inclusive green economy approach. Among others, the Partnership for Action on Green Economy (PAGE) has a mandate to support 30 countries in building national green economy strategies by 2020; and the Green Economy Coalition of non-governmental organizations, research institutes, UN organizations, corporations and trade unions is providing multidimensional strategies towards greening economies. The approach recognizes that both developed and developing countries should do their part in greening their economies. Developed countries should take the lead in changing their own production and consumer practices while providing finance, technology transfer and other mechanisms to support greening in developing countries. Developing countries, for their part, should continue to pursue their development goals while adopting greener and more sustainable practices in so doing.

The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity (TEEB)

Through numerous reports issued since 2010, UNEP's TEEB initiative has greatly increased decision-makers' understanding and awareness of the values of biodiversity and ecosystem services to economies and human well-being, as well as of the growing costs of biodiversity loss and ecosystem degradation (TEEB 2010, 2011). While acknowledging the challenges of estimating the total value of ecosystem services in monetary and non-monetary terms, the TEEB approach assesses the consequences of changes resulting from alternative management options affecting ecosystems and biodiversity, in particular the benefits of taking action to reduce loss and degradation. It also demonstrates the importance of

assessing ecosystem and biodiversity values and applying these in economic analysis as an aid to achieving more efficient use of natural resources by determining the trade-offs of various options.

Through its publications and support, the TEEB initiative aims to integrate ecosystem services and biodiversity into policymaking. At the country level, it highlights ways to work with nature to meet specific policy priorities. It thus provides an example of a focused approach to integrating pro-poor environmental sustainability in development policy, planning, budgeting and monitoring processes. The TEEB initiative supports countries, at their request, in undertaking TEEB country studies; in 2013, it issued a guidance manual which supports these studies by providing the following (TEEB 2013):

- Definition of TEEB and how it integrates into the policy landscape
- Explanation of how to determine the scope and objectives of the TEEB country study and set up the process
- Delineation of a six-step main study phase
- Information on how to use the study findings and recommendations

The guidance manual includes examples of country studies and how findings and recommendations can support the integration of ecosystem services and biodiversity values into economic decision-making. More guidance on TEEB and its application at the country level can be obtained from the following websites: <http://www.teeb4me.com/> and <http://www.teebweb.org/>.

System of Environment and Economic Accounts (SEEA)

The SEEA is an internationally agreed upon framework of the UN Statistical Commission

for producing comparable statistics on a country's environment and its relationship with the economy. It builds on the system of national accounts framework that has been in place since 1953 as an international standard for measuring national income and savings. The SEEA provides a framework to account for material natural resources including minerals, timber and fisheries. It consists of the following:

- The Central Framework, the first international standard for environmental-economic accounting
- Experimental Ecosystem Accounting
- Applications and extensions of the SEEA

The SEEA looks at such sectors as energy, water, fisheries, land and ecosystems, and agriculture. In conducting their accounting, countries can focus on one or more SEEA sectors.

SEEA accounts are also relevant to poverty, since the accounts can include data on household costs for energy, water, etc. Integrated data, including social, economic and environmental accounts based on agreed-upon classifications and methods, are central to efforts to help countries design more inclusive, equitable, low-emission, climate-resilient development strategies. Comparable data over time and across countries are needed to track performance across the MDGs, SDGs, and related goals and objectives. Without such data, the development community cannot be as effective in supporting countries in moving towards greener, more inclusive economies that reduce poverty, advance social well-being and support sustainable development.

The SEEA can be expanded to include additional environmental and social information needed to better inform sustainable development policies that seek gains across the social, economic and environmental strands

of sustainable development—so-called triple wins—while considering trade-offs. More information on the SEEA can be found at <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/envaccounting>.

Natural Capital Accounting and Valuation

Natural capital accounting and valuation is closely related to and an essential component of the SEEA and integrating environmental sustainability in the system of national accounts. Following are descriptions of major initiatives in this area.

Wealth Accounting and the Valuation of Ecosystem Services (WAVES). The World Bank-led WAVES partnership aims to promote sustainable development by ensuring that natural resources are mainstreamed into development planning and the system of national accounts. The partnership brings together a coalition of UN agencies, governments, international institutes, non-governmental organizations and academics to implement national capital accounts where there are internationally agreed-upon standards, and develop approaches and tools for ecosystem service accounts. Its work is centred on ecosystem services and natural resources that are not traded or marketed and are therefore difficult to measure. Examples of such services and resources include forest services such as pollination and water resource management, wetland services in reducing the impact of floods, and mangroves in coastal protection.

In Botswana, WAVES supports efforts by the government and stakeholders to update relevant sectoral accounts to better capture these ecosystem services and resources. Since 2012, efforts have addressed the national water sector accounts, with an emphasis on water use efficiency (water supply to be complemented by demand management and integrated water resource management;



wastewater strategies to improve reuse and recycling within sectors; rethinking of water subsidies) and water allocation (provide water to sectors and users that add most value, social protection to secure basic water needs and keep water bills affordable; environmental protection to secure ecological water requirements). More recent efforts are addressing national accounts for minerals, energy, land, ecosystems and tourism. WAVES is providing similar sector-based account updating support in Colombia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Indonesia, Madagascar, the Philippines and Rwanda. More information on WAVES can be found at <https://www.wavespartnership.org/>.

Valuation and Accounting for Natural Capital for Green Economy (VANTAGE). This UNEP initiative supports valuation of natural capital and inclusion in SEEA implementation at the regional and country levels. In particular, VANTAGE focuses on the following:

- Economic valuation of ecosystem services
- Natural capital accounting
- Macroeconomic policy and ecosystem linkages
- Economic instruments and incentives
- Capacity development in valuation and accounting
- Advisory services

Country-based pilot studies on ecosystem service assessment are carried out by applying valuation and accounting methodologies.

The assessment findings aim to inform and influence development planning and policies, so policies such as food security and poverty alleviation are aligned with the goals of environmental sustainability. To build and develop capacity, especially in developing countries, the VANTAGE programme engages with scientists, scientific communities and academic fora, universities and international non-governmental organizations. By so doing, it aims to fill the gap between science and policy in the application of economic approaches to management of ecosystem services for enhanced human well-being. For more information, see <http://www.es-e-valuation.org/index.php/es-e-unit/vantage>.

The Natural Capital Project (NatCap). A partnership involving Stanford University, the University of Minnesota, The Nature Conservancy and the World Wildlife Fund, NatCap aims to integrate the values of nature into decision-making affecting the environment and human well-being. NatCap develops simple, use-driven approaches to valuing nature; works closely with decision-makers; and provides free, open-source ecosystem service software tools to a broad community of users. One of the tools is INvest (Integrated Valuation of Ecosystem Services and Trade-offs), a free, open-source software suite that enables users to quantify natural capital in biophysical, socio-economic and other dimensions; visualize the benefits delivered today and in the future; assess the trade-offs associated with alternative choices; and integrate conservation and human development aims. For more information, see <http://www.naturalcapitalproject.org/>.

Annex D

Guidance Note on Promoting Gender Equality

D.1 Background

Environment and gender are cross-cutting issues that need to be addressed jointly to advance environmental sustainability and address existing inequalities. Mainstreaming gender in the ENR sector is important, as men and women have differential opportunities in accessing natural resources and related technology and information. Thus women and men have different skills, experiences and knowledge that can help inform environmental and climate change policies for poverty reduction. Studies have shown that increasing women's access to and control over natural resources in development planning and budgeting can have a positive impact on sustainability, economic growth and poverty reduction (FAO 2011b).

Women's empowerment is critical in helping to achieve successful poverty-environment mainstreaming and gender equality. The majority of the world's poorest people are women; they account for two-thirds of the 1.2 billion people currently living in extreme poverty (UN 2013). Poor women are further disproportionately affected by environmental degradation and climate-related natural disasters that reduce the rate of economic growth as they tend to depend on natural resources for their livelihoods. Women are not only victims, but also agents of change in development and addressing environmental concerns. However, the links between gender equality, poverty reduction and environmental sustainability, in terms of access to natural resources, credit, information and technology, still lack a common framework

of tools and knowledge to influence related policies.

The information presented here draws on existing practices and tools that can easily be adapted in line with the poverty-environment mainstreaming approach to effectively promote gender equality and women's empowerment. For more detailed information, see the Guidance Note on Mainstreaming Gender Equality in the Work of the PEI available on the PEI [website](#).

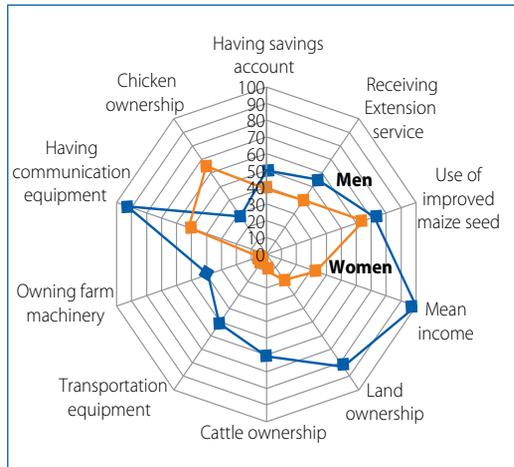
D.2 Why Promote Gender Equality in Poverty-Environment Mainstreaming?

The case for promoting gender equality is generally predicated on two arguments. The first is a rights-based, or normative, approach, which posits that gender equality concerns ought to be mainstreamed because gender equality rights are human rights. Yet, despite long-standing conventions and other instruments of international human rights law, gender inequality still prevails, including in access to and control over ENR ([figure D.1](#)).

The second argument, and the one espoused here, is that integrating gender into poverty-environment mainstreaming efforts can help improve the efficiency, efficacy and long-term sustainability of ENR policies. Environmental and climate policies cannot be considered in isolation from poverty and equity considerations. In fact, strong evidence demonstrates



Figure D.1 Access to Resources of Rural Women and Men in Kenya



Source: World Bank 2012a.

that promoting gender equality and investing in resources to increase the opportunities for and participation of women and girls has resulted in progress across all the MDGs (UNDP 2010). As this handbook illustrates, climate and the environment are no longer the exclusive concern of environment ministries but of government as a whole, including ministries of finance, economy and development, which are responsible for identifying and addressing the differentiated opportunities and challenges of their male and female populations (World Bank 2012b).

D.3 How to Integrate Gender into Poverty-Environment Mainstreaming

There are myriad guidelines and checklists for gender mainstreaming in development planning and budgeting, but case studies specific to gender and ENR management for poverty alleviation are more limited.

The programmatic approach to poverty-environment mainstreaming described in

chapter 3 can be used as an approach to integrate gender in ENR policies and development plans at different levels. Basic principles of gender mainstreaming must be integrated into the approach to help bring the voices and priorities of both women and men into the incorporation and implementation of poverty-environment objectives in development planning and budgeting. This supports the application of gender analysis in poverty-environment assessments, gender-responsive budgeting, and the integration of gender-environment-related indicators in monitoring frameworks for sustainable development.

Component 1: Priority Setting, Finding the Entry Points and Making the Case

In finding the right entry points, it is critical to understand the different needs and strategies of women and men at the household level with regard to livelihoods and ENR management. Gender analysis is integral to understanding the social relations and decision-making processes that govern access to and management of natural resources. These factors must then be placed within the broader political, socio-economic and environmental context.¹ Descriptions of Component 1 activities for integrating gender equality principles follow.

- ✿ **Identify and determine the poor and their gender-differentiated impacts of environmental change on human well-being.** Understanding and changing natural resource tenure and governance, as well as unequal patterns of access to and control over natural resources, are crucial to addressing gender inequalities in

¹ The Global Gender Office of the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) provides a range of tool and methodologies; these are available at <http://genderandenvironment.org/work/developing-tools-and-methodologies/>.

ENR management. Gender analysis must involve men and women, young and old, rich and poor, in urban and rural settings, as producers and consumers of the planet's resources and as drivers and recipients of environmental change to fully understand gender-poverty-environment linkages to maximize policy effectiveness.

For example, PEI Nepal found that men were prioritizing local investments in capital and heavy machinery—intensive road construction. It was only once Nepalese women in poor rural communities were invited to participate in the development of local development plans that the Ministry of Federal Affairs and Local Development realized that water source conservation to ensure sustainable access of irrigation facilities for the poor, women and indigenous communities was their priority; local plans were revised accordingly.

Different frameworks can be used to undertake a gender analysis in the context of this component. Among these are the Harvard Analytical Framework (<http://go.worldbank.org/T6TMWPLVN0>), the Moser Framework, the Women's Empowerment Framework, and the International Union for Conservation of Nature's (IUCN's) gender analysis framework (http://cmsdata.iucn.org/downloads/framework_gender_analysis.pdf). The World Bank provides details and checklists on how these frameworks can be applied; this information is available at <http://info.worldbank.org/etools/docs/library/192862/annexes/Annex6.pdf>.

- ✿ **Analyse current and potential impacts of policies, processes and institutions on women's and men's livelihood strategies and outcomes.** This analysis should be in line with policies, legislation (land and intellectual property rights), incentives,

institutions and culture (i.e. the norms and practices that influence access rights, participation and decision-making) and should ideally be part of a broader institutional context analysis as discussed in annex A. Tools to use include the Gender and Land Rights Database from the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO).² Also useful is the Global Land Tool Network's training package *Improving Gender Equality and Grassroots Participation through Good Land Governance* (UN-Habitat 2010). [Box D.1](#) describes how Malawi and Mali used the findings from such preliminary analyses of policies and systems to identify needs and entry points.

- ✿ **Identify and cost the gender gap.** Gender gap analysis can be used to identify gaps between men and women—e.g. in terms of earnings; productivity; and access to resources, information and technology in various sectors—as well as the underlying reasons for these gaps. When making the economic case, studying the cost of the gender gap to the relevant sector is an effective way to promote gender equality. For example, a study by PEI, UN Women and the World Bank is examining the implications of the gender gap in agriculture productivity on GDP and poverty reduction efforts in three countries in East and Southern Africa.
- ✿ **Raise awareness and build partnerships.** Ensure that the relevant gender focal point/ministry is included in any government coordination mechanisms and is in regular and ongoing communication with the environment and finance ministries. Equally important is to ensure that staff members of the ministries of finance and environment

² This resource generates up-to-date information on gender and land rights and is available at <http://www.fao.org/gender/landrights/en/>.





Box D.1 Key Findings of Preliminary Assessments on Gender and Environment in Mali and Malawi

Mali and Malawi have taken steps to advance integration of gender in their poverty-environment mainstreaming efforts. A study on the integration of gender into work concerning the poverty-environment nexus was undertaken in Mali in 2013. The study found that, unlike in other sectors such as health and education, the natural resource sector in Mali does not have targeted objectives

and budgets allocated to gender. This is partly due to the low level of understanding of gender and human rights issues among natural resource development officials.

A rapid assessment of gender-ENR relevant data and indicators were concluded in Malawi in 2014. The assessment found that data and indicators on women's roles and access to ENR are not compre-

hensively collected and reported. The assessment highlights that there is a need to enhance awareness about the importance of gender-environment-linked statistics for policy-making and strengthen national capacity through partnerships with relevant institutions for the collection of both qualitative and quantitative gender-environment data.

Sources: UNDP-UNEP PEI 2014b; UNDP-UNEP PEI, n.d. ("Evaluation environnementale stratégique").

understand the links between environment, gender and development. National and subnational steering groups should also promote equal participation of male and female representatives of vulnerable groups in line with findings and recommendations from the assessments conducted earlier.

Component 2: Mainstreaming into National Planning and Budgeting Processes

This component focuses on integrating poverty-environment objectives into a previously identified and ongoing policy, national development planning and budget process. Gender-sensitive activities build on previous work and include the following.

- ✦ **Promote gender mainstreaming in institutions dealing with the environment and sustainable development.** Several resources are available to help in this promotion effort. The Global Gender and Economic Policy Management Initiative provides a capacity-building package for policymakers, available at <http://www.undp.org/content/>

undp/en/home/ourwork/povertyreduction/focus_areas/focus_gender_and_poverty/gepmi.html. Chapter VI, "Towards Gender Mainstreaming in Environmental Policies," of UNEP's *Women and the Environment* (UNEP 2004b) provides a strategic model to promote gender in environmental institutions. The Global Gender and Climate Alliance works to ensure that climate change policies, decision-making and initiatives at the global, regional and national levels are gender responsive—an approach that is critical in successfully addressing the climate crisis. Tools and experiences are available at <http://gender-climate.org/>. [Box D.2](#) discusses promoting gender in institutions dealing with ENR.

- ✦ **Support gender-responsive budgeting (GRB).** GRB is a methodology that analyses the impact of actual government expenditures and revenues on women and girls as compared to men and boys.³ The five-step

³ The Gender-Responsive Budgeting web portal features articles, research papers and training tools

Box D.2 A Practical Approach to Integrate Gender in Cross-Sector Coordination Mechanisms

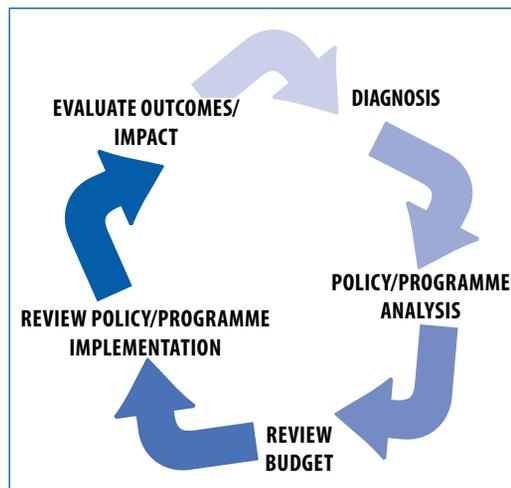
Promoting sector environmental focal points and cross-sector environment unit planning meetings under the joint leadership of the ministries of gender and environment could be an effective way to ensure the integration of both issues in development planning and budgeting. Mozambique and Rwanda have successfully promoted such an approach in the framework of their respective PEI country programmes. As a result, 16 sectors in Rwanda and 9 in Mozambique—among them, agriculture, private sector, development, transport, energy, information, communication, environment and natural resources, health and state administration—include poverty-environment-related objectives in their 2015 annual and social economic plans. A similar approach can be used for gender mainstreaming in this context.

methodology consists of the following (figure D.2):

1. **Diagnosis:** Identify needs/interests of men and women (diversity, intersectionality, age)
2. **Policy/programme analysis:** Identify gaps, strategies, etc.
3. **Review budget:** Study budget coherence to respond to gaps and strategies analysed.
4. **Review policy/programme implementation:** Review against objectives, targets and budgets.

for specific areas of work and countries, and offers resources in Arabic, French, Portuguese and Spanish; go to <http://gender-financing.unwomen.org/en/resources>.

Figure D.2 Gender-Responsive Budgeting



5. **Evaluate outcomes/impact:** Determine to what extent identified needs have been addressed and which have emerged. These findings will inform the development of the next budget beginning again at Step 1.

A government's budget guidelines, in most cases issued by the ministry of finance, can be used as an avenue for promoting GRB. For example, Malawi's 2014/15 budget guidelines include a GRB chapter (Malawi Government 2014). Capacity building on gender-responsive budgeting should be supported in environmental ministries and departments. Gender could be explored as an aspect to be included when undertaking CPEIRs and PEERs (see chapter 5) since these are effective ways of supporting government in tracking and allocating budgets for climate change and sustainable ENR management.

- **Ensure that access to climate change funds is equal for men and women, girls and boys.** Climate change finance mechanisms often have complex application processes and



significant upfront costs, making benefit sharing and access by women's, grassroots and civil society organizations difficult. To implement a gender-responsive approach in climate change financing (see UNDP 2011b for further guidance and tools), special efforts should be made to facilitate and support women's and small-scale initiatives. For example, streamline fund processes such as application, registration, approval, implementation, evaluation and monitoring; earmark reserve funds for women and marginalized groups; and establish gender-based criteria in fund allocations (see box 6.5 for an example from Tajikistan). Additionally, UNDP has developed specific resources for the Africa and Asia-Pacific regions; These are accessible from http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/librarypage/womens-empowerment/gender_and_environmentenergy.html.

- Ensure gender integration in ex ante and ex post poverty, environmental and social assessments.** Tools to be used in these assessments include Socio-economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA; available at <http://www.fao.org/gender/seaga/seaga-home/en/>), poverty and social impact analysis, strategic environmental assessment and economic appraisals (e.g. cost-benefit analysis) of policies and plans with a view towards strengthening pro-poor environmental sustainability. Since these tools do not automatically use a gender approach, gender integration must be ensured. Gender-disaggregated baseline data are essential to this work. (See [annex B](#).)
- Enhance gender equality through a coherent strategy of gender mainstreaming in the environment.** In this process, the use of gender analysis (including gender gap analysis), gender assessment tools and gender indicators ([table D.1](#)) should be promoted among environmental actors across

ministries and departments.⁴ To this end, the national monitoring system should collect and disaggregate data by gender. Unpaid care work and opportunities for women to engage in income-generating activities should be taken into account. A useful resource in this regard is the previously mentioned Global Gender and Economic Policy Management Initiative that provides specific training modules for gender mainstreaming in monitoring processes.

Component 3: Mainstreaming into Sectoral and Subnational Planning and Budgeting, Monitoring and Private Investment

This component focuses on operationalizing poverty-environment objectives through engagement in key sectors, subnational planning and budgeting processes, associated monitoring processes, and private investment. Related activities can contribute more effectively to gender equality by highlighting the positive effects of inclusive/gender-sensitive planning and budgeting.

- Conduct ex ante assessments.** Utilizing previously mentioned gender analytical tools (e.g. gender analysis, gender indicators, sex-differentiated data sets, costing the gender gap in relevant sectors, gender monitoring, GRB and gender auditing) when conducting environmental, social and economic assessments of sector policies and plans will help highlight gender gaps to be addressed to ensure that both women's and men's needs, concerns and perspectives are incorporated into programme and policy frameworks. These efforts will facilitate equity in the delivery of programme and policy benefits.

⁴ For sources of gender indicators related to ENR and climate change, see the gender guidance note available on the [PEI website](#).

Table D.1 Monitoring and Evaluation Indicators for Gender and ENR Management

Indicator	Sources of verification and tools
Percentage of women and men actively participating in ENR management committees	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Committee meeting minutes • Interviews with stakeholders • Local traditional authorities (e.g. chief, local council) • Programme or project records
Number of women and men actively participating in local-level planning and policy-setting processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Citizen scorecards • Community meeting minutes • Participatory monitoring records
Percentage of women and men actively involved in committees writing national development plans, national policies, etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government minutes • National development plan records
Use or otherwise of gender-disaggregated monitoring in national development plans, national budgets, project logical frameworks, government socioeconomic development plans, etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Documents: national development plans, budgets, etc. • Gender analysis of budgets • Public expenditure reviews
Average number of hectares of land owned by women- and men-headed households	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Land registration department records
Percentage of women and men actively participating in land allocation committees	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Committee meeting minutes • Interviews with stakeholders • Programme or project records
Community satisfaction (disaggregated by gender) with changes in ENR management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews, before and after • Group interviews or focus groups
Number of women and men receiving training in ENR management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programme and project records • Training records
Percentage of time spent daily in household on paid and non-paid activities, disaggregated by gender and age	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender analysis • Time use studies
Satisfaction of entrepreneurs with access to government services (e.g. land titles and business registration), training, information and infrastructure, disaggregated by gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Average time taken by government offices to issue certificates • Focus groups • Stakeholder interviews
Satisfaction of women and men entrepreneurs with access to agricultural inputs, training, credit and markets, measured annually	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus groups • Stakeholder interviews
Among surveyed women and men in target group, percentage that rate their access to land, and land titling and dispute resolution procedures, as having improved during the period covered by the programme or project	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interviews with women in target groups (e.g. a sample of women in the defined area); ideally, the interviews should be conducted before and after any programme/project activities
Number of training sessions provided to relevant authorities for gender-sensitive land mapping and titling and for dispute resolution processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Land registration authority records • Programme and project records

Source: World Bank, FAO and IFAD 2009.



- Integrate poverty-environment indicators into the national and subnational monitoring systems.** By measuring changes in the status of women and men over a period of time, gender-sensitive indicators assess progress towards achieving gender equality in line with government commitments. Progress has been made in recent years in the area of gender-sensitive indicators with regard to the ENR management, see, e.g. IUCN's Gender and Environment Index at <http://genderandenvironment.org/egi/> and PEI's rapid assessment of gender-environment indicators in Malawi; more work in this regard is needed. To select an appropriate indicator, the cost of collecting and analysing data must be weighed against the quality and utility of the information to decision-making (Aguilar, n.d.). The indicator should be relevant to user needs, clearly defined, gender disaggregated, and easy to understand and use. Depending on the country or region, it might also be relevant to consider ethnicity and caste alongside gender (both as comparative indicators and when collecting data). See [table D.1](#) for examples of useful indicators; also see FAO (n.d.) and World Bank, FAO and IFAD (2009).
- Integrate gender equality measures in management of private investment in natural resources to promote good governance.** A useful tool to this end is "Extracting Equality—A Guide" (UN Women 2014), the first-ever extractive value chain guide to combine gender with good governance. Also useful is Publish What You Pay (<http://www.publishwhatyoupay.org/>), a global network of more than 800 civil society organizations united to campaign for an open and accountable extractive sector, so that citizens can benefit from their natural resources.

D.4 Summary

A country poverty-environment programme that applies gender mainstreaming tools and approaches such as those discussed here helps advance gender equality in sectors critical to the livelihoods of the poorest women and girls—hence reducing inequalities and contributing to the achievement of the SDGs. The interventions described here should be developed in a fully consultative manner, led by government institutions—in particular, the ministries of finance and/or planning—working in close collaboration with the institutions responsible for gender and the environment, respectively. In this context, strengthening the gender focal point system—both for ENR and for gender—is an effective way to promote change. Special efforts need to be made to facilitate meaningful participation of marginalized groups to ensure that the needs of poor men and women, and boys and girls, are addressed.

Successful strategies to transform discriminatory practices should be based on targeted policy interventions using evidence collected from the local to the global levels. The use of evidence in policy reform and implementation is a political process. Its success depends on the capacity to provide quality and trustworthy experience on the one hand with the willingness and capacity of policymakers to use it on the other. This guidance note thus strongly advocates for effective partnerships between policymakers and other partners to support the availability, utility and understanding of gender-disaggregated data and gender indicators.

Annex E

Guidance Note on Integrating a Human Rights-Based Approach into Poverty-Environment Mainstreaming

E.1 Background

Since 1997, the United Nations has emphasized the link between human rights and development, and in 2003, the UN agencies adopted a “Statement of Common Understanding on Human Rights-Based Approaches to Development Cooperation and Programming.” The human rights principles guiding development programming as identified in the UN Common Understanding are as follows:

- Universality and inalienability
- Indivisibility, interdependence and inter-relatedness
- Equality and non-discrimination
- Participation and inclusion
- Accountability and rule of law

All of these principles are highly relevant to poverty-environment mainstreaming.

A human rights-based approach to poverty reduction underlines the multidimensional nature of poverty. It understands poverty in terms of a range of interrelated and mutually reinforcing deprivations, and draws attention to the stigma, discrimination, insecurity, social exclusion and other dimensions of poverty that may result in special vulnerabilities and multiple discriminations—e.g. of poor women.

Unlike earlier approaches to poverty reduction, a human rights-based approach attaches great importance to the processes enabling achievement of development goals. It emphasizes active and informed participation by the poor and marginalized in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of poverty reduction and pro-environmental strategies. It also promotes access to productive and environmental resources and participation in public life, all of which are important in overcoming economic, social and political marginalization.

Considering and integrating a human rights-based approach into poverty-environment mainstreaming offers the opportunity to develop the following:

- Improved understanding of who the poor are, where they live, what their specific situation is, including subgroups of the poor especially rural/urban women, the landless, youth and indigenous peoples
- Better formulation of vision, objectives and target setting in poverty-environment programming through acknowledging the rights and aspirations of the poor and their required capacities to claim their rights, as well as the capacities duty bearers require to fulfil those rights, and the necessary institutional/policy framework; and by integrating both the rights holder and duty bearer dimensions into policies, plans, programmes and budgets



- Heightened transparency and accountability in poverty-environment and sectoral programming
- More effective and sustainable programming related to poverty and the environment (through having better access to information and fuller participation of the poor in programme design, etc.)
- Better monitoring and evaluation of progress (through measurement against a more robust baseline relating to the poor and their actual needs, and to duty bearers in terms of their capacity and commitment to respond)
- Greater credibility and sustainability of poverty-environment mainstreaming

E.2 Integrating a Rights-Based Approach into Poverty-Environment Mainstreaming

Making the Case

The essential idea underlying the adoption of a human rights-based approach to poverty-environment mainstreaming is that policies and institutions for poverty reduction should be based explicitly on the norms and values set out in international human rights and environmental law. Whether explicit or implicit, norms and values shape policies and institutions. A human rights-based approach offers an explicit normative framework—that of international human rights standards—and environmental governance and can make the case for poverty-environment mainstreaming in several ways:

- By urging the adoption of poverty-environment strategies underpinned by human rights and environmental standards
- By addressing the discrimination/exclusion that generates and sustains poverty and unsustainable use of natural resources and inhibits access of the poor to ecosystem services and productive resources such as water, land and energy
- By including the right to information, public participation and justice into development programmes and adding legitimacy to the demand of meaningful participation of the poor in decision-making
- By strengthening accountability measures and social and environmental safeguards
- By strengthening advocacy for poverty-environment mainstreaming and the right to a clean environment in public debates and the media

Mainstreaming into National Planning and Budgeting Processes

Identifying the poor. Any strategy for poverty reduction begins with an identification of the poor, ideally disaggregated to include data on special groups such as women, the rural/urban poor, indigenous peoples, and internally displaced and other marginalized entities. A person's or group's poverty level should not be measured only in terms of available income, whether set at one or two dollars a day. From a human rights perspective, poverty exists for those who lack the capability to claim for themselves an adequate standard of living, especially including access to adequate food and housing. Extreme poverty exists for those who suffer from outright hunger and/or homelessness and who have no access to productive resources including water, land and energy. Equality measurements, such as the Gini coefficient, should also be included.

Expanding participation of the poor. The 1998 Aarhus Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-making and

Access to Justice in Environmental Matters states that these elements of access and participation are essential to assert every person's right to live in an environment adequate to his or her health and well-being and that of present and future generations (UNECE 1998). There are four stages in expanding participation of the poor: revelation of preferences; policy choice; implementation; and monitoring, assessment and accountability.

Preference revelation is the initial stage of any policy formulation and involves people being given the opportunity to express what objectives they want to achieve. Consultations with stakeholders and participatory planning workshops through existing national civil society platforms of the UN Country Team advisory group or as part of stakeholder and inception meetings are an important first step. PEI Uruguay has been successful in empowering poor waste collectors to become organized and formalize their sector through health and social insurance and cooperatives, see the [PEI web-site](#) for more information.

The right of people to participate in decision-making that affects them needs to be secured by governments creating a legal-institutional framework in which people living in poverty can participate effectively, including in the process of setting priorities and benchmarks that guide the process. In practice, this means that when poverty-environment policy options are being explored by experts, the implications of the various options for the interests of the poor should be made transparent and presented in an understandable manner and in consultation with those concerned. Stakeholder representatives should be invited as experts or trainers to national and regional workshops. Although policy implementation is the responsibility of government as the main duty bearer, opportunities can also be created to enable the poor to exercise their

right to participate actively and meaningfully, especially where implementation occurs at the community level and when decentralized models of local government are used.

Monitoring and Evaluation Leading to Accountability and Transparency

Monitoring and evaluation of poverty-environment programmes are closely linked to accountability and transparency. From a rights-based approach perspective, the objective of monitoring is twofold: (i) to help identify, on an ongoing basis, the areas in which state actors may need to concentrate in order to attain their targets for the realization of human rights and environmental standards; and (ii) to enable the rights holder to hold authorities accountable for their possible failure to do so. Enhanced monitoring and evaluation with a pro-poor focus is likely to improve programme performance and better assess development impacts on poverty.

Poverty-environment mainstreaming efforts can work to build accountability mechanisms that are nationally appropriate, accessible, transparent and effective in strengthening overall monitoring and evaluation systems and capacities for poverty-environment mainstreaming—and thus also contribute to longer-term sustainability of the poverty-environment mainstreaming approach. These mechanisms might include stronger partnerships with parliament, civil society and the media to monitor government performance; and the addition of strategic human rights champions to complement the creative and effective contributions made by poverty-environment champions in many countries. Guidelines and model contracts for foreign direct investment developed by PEI Lao PDR (outlined in [box 8.4](#)) and the PEI advocacy for the Philippines to sign onto the Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI) are good examples of accountability and



transparency initiatives. The EITI increases transparency of payments by companies from the oil and mining industries to governments and government-linked entities, as well as of revenues by those host country governments. A number of PEI countries have adhered to EITI and disclose their revenues from extractive industries; see <http://eiti.org> for more detail.

E.3 Engaging with Stakeholders

Civil society actors at the national and global levels have developed substantive capacity and influence in a range of development issues and have an important monitoring role with regard to the delivery of public commitments and policies. Partnering with these actors can contribute to the effectiveness of development interventions, especially with respect to marginalized and vulnerable groups. Transparent budgets; accountable public expenditures; and long-term, systematized participatory monitoring and evaluation of poverty-environment issues and programme sustainability will be greatly aided by the advocacy and support of poverty-environment stakeholders including parliaments. Chapter 3 describes the opportunities and challenges of working with major stakeholders for poverty-environment mainstreaming. Media, another potential partner in poverty-environment mainstreaming efforts, is not discussed here; see [annex F](#) for more information on working with the media.

Civil Society Organizations

Many civil society organizations have a proven capacity for both broad-based mobilization and creating bottom-up demand that fosters responsive governance. Civil society is generally seen as the full range of formal and informal organizations that are outside the state and market. This definition encompasses social

movements; volunteer, indigenous peoples', mass-based membership, non-governmental and community-based organizations; as well as communities and citizens acting individually and collectively. Civil society participation contributes to three critical objectives:

- Enhancing accountability and transparency
- Expanding equity and cohesion
- Generating public legitimacy and social enforcement for new policies

Engagement with civil society actors should take place through existing national or local platforms, where possible, including their serving as representatives on national steering committees or as experts and resource persons for capacity-building activities. Indigenous peoples and their traditional knowledge are especially important for poverty-environment mainstreaming; they are also often negatively affected by mining and other extractive activities on their lands and territories.

Parliaments

Human rights and environmental standards can guide national development and should be adhered to and utilized by parliaments and legislators in their day-to-day work. This includes ensuring that these standards are applied nationally, particularly in relation to marginalized groups. It also includes addressing the human rights of women, internally displaced persons, minorities, indigenous peoples, the disabled and the aged. Parliaments are critical to monitoring service delivery and efforts to reduce poverty and to ensuring the sustainable use of natural resources. They can be most effectively engaged through the various parliamentary groups on the environment, human rights, etc.

National Human Rights Institutions

These institutions are state bodies with a constitutional and/or legislative mandate to protect and promote human rights. Although part of the state apparatus and funded by the state, national human rights institutions operate and function independently of the government. While their specific mandates may vary, their general role is to address discrimination in all its forms, as well as promote the protection of all human rights—including the right to a safe environment. Core functions of national human rights institutions include handling complaints, providing human rights education and making recommendations on legal reform.

The Private Sector

It is recommended to engage strategically with representative umbrella organizations or with carefully selected sectors or companies (using criteria outlined in the UNEP Partnership Policy and Procedures as a guide, and with provisions made for due diligence processes). Small and medium-size enterprises at the local level can have high potential for poverty reduction. As outlined in chapter 8, poverty-environment mainstreaming can be highly relevant in the regulation of both public and private investment—including in the use of international guidelines on human rights, environmental standards and private business such as the following:

- **United Nations guiding principles on business and human rights** set out clear

expectations of what governments and enterprises should do to ensure that human rights are not harmed by business activities.

- **OECD guidelines for multinational companies** include far-reaching recommendations addressed by governments to multinational enterprises operating in or from adhering countries. They provide voluntary principles and standards for responsible business conduct in areas such as employment and industrial relations, human rights, the environment, information disclosure, combating bribery, consumer interests, science and technology, competition and taxation.
- **The OECD Due Diligence Guidance for Responsible Supply Chains of Minerals from Conflict-Affected and High-Risk Areas** provides management recommendations for globally responsible supply chains of minerals to help companies respect human rights and avoid contributing to conflict through their mineral or metal purchasing decisions and practices.
- **National and regional laws and regulations on responsible supply chains and the fight against illegal exploitation of natural resources**, examples of which include the Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act (United States) and the Protocol on the Fight against the Illegal Exploitation of Natural Resources which forms part of the 2006 Pact on Security, Stability and Development in the Great Lakes Region (Africa).



Annex F

Guidance Note on Advocacy and Strategic Communications

For poverty-environment advocacy, communication is aimed at contributing to evidence-based policy and building a shared understanding that can lead to change in favour of the poor and environmental sustainability. It is about creating space for the voices of the poor to be heard. Targeted communication helps broaden the impacts of new poverty-environment policies and attracts and fosters strong partnerships with important stakeholders. Routine and strategically executed communications ensure the visibility of poverty-environment mainstreaming among critical sources of support: government officials, donors, development practitioners, national stakeholders, poverty-environment champions, international organizations and the private sector.

Methods and media must be carefully selected for effective advocacy. Communications need to be adapted to the country context using facts and figures from relevant country studies and appropriate channels of communication.

This brief guidance introduces key objectives and main messages of poverty-environment mainstreaming, as well as tools that are commonly used at the country level for effective advocacy.

F.1 Objectives and Main Messages

The Five Interlinked Key Objectives of Poverty-Environment Mainstreaming

The story of mainstreaming poverty and environment is one of finding integrated solutions to development planning and transitioning to more resource-efficient, resilient forms of growth that help bring multiple social, economic and environmental benefits. The close interaction between poverty and environment is reflected through five interlinked key objectives:

- ✿ Sustainable use of natural resources
- ✿ Adaptation to climate change
- ✿ Poverty reduction
- ✿ Equity, especially for marginalized groups (including women and indigenous peoples)
- ✿ Inclusive green growth

Seven Strategic Communication Objectives

To achieve the key objectives, we need to communicate smartly. Seven strategic communication objectives guide how to deliver our vision and main messages to decision-makers and other stakeholders, the target audiences:

- ✿ To **promote a strategic vision for poverty-environment mainstreaming** based on national development objectives—economic growth, sustainable development,



poverty reduction, social inclusion and equity, and increased investment in environmental services—by using scientific and economic evidence to drive political decisions and promote policy, institutional and behavioural change that addresses the needs of poor and marginalized communities

- To **raise awareness among decision-makers** to enable them to influence and make changes at the policy level and promote issues related to poverty-environment mainstreaming
- To **identify key stakeholders and high-profile champions** of poverty-environment mainstreaming who can influence policy, institutional and behavioural change regarding the importance of poverty-environment objectives for economic and social development
- To **ensure effective participation by all stakeholders** (including non-state actors and the private sector) in poverty-environment mainstreaming processes including studies, policy-level dialogues and social debates of national importance
- To **develop and maintain partnerships** with the scientific community, non-state actors and the private sector; support capacity strengthening; and create synergies
- To **facilitate information sharing and lessons learned on good practices** on poverty-environment mainstreaming both at the local government level and upwards to national decision-making
- To **raise awareness among the general public** to support decisions that effectively address poverty-environment challenges

Main Messages on Poverty-Environment Mainstreaming

Once you understand your target audience(s), you should have a clearer idea of what you

can say to convince them to support poverty-environment key objectives. Different ways of conveying the same information may be needed for different audiences. Simple, clear and concise messages can be effective everywhere.

To maximize impact, it can be useful to extract two or three main messages. Repetition of a few messages not only extends the number of people you can reach, but makes what you say more convincing for those who hear it multiple times (UNDP Office of Communications, n.d.). Here are four main messages you can use to tell the story of poverty-environment mainstreaming:

1. Eradicating poverty is an indispensable requirement for sustainable development.

- Although the MDG 1 target of halving extreme poverty has been met, more than 1 billion people still live in dire poverty.
- In “The Future We Want,” the UN Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20) recognized that “Eradicating poverty is the greatest global challenge facing the world today and an indispensable requirement for sustainable development” (UNCSD 2012).

2. Economic growth alone will not eradicate poverty.

- Twentieth-century development strategies failed to lift the world’s poorest communities out of poverty. About one in five people in developing regions lives on less than \$1.25 per day.
- The sustainability of the environment, once mistakenly thought to compete with economic development, is now understood to be complementary and

necessary to “end poverty in all its forms everywhere.”¹

3. Inequality harms growth and poverty reduction.

- Income inequality increased by 11 per cent in developing countries between 1990 and 2010; inequality hurts growth and poverty reduction.
- Poverty falls disproportionately on women. Of the 1.2 billion people across the world who live in hunger, 7 out of 10 are women and girls.

4. Poverty-environment mainstreaming helps eradicate poverty, reduce inequality and combat environmental degradation.

- Economic development and poverty reduction strongly depend on improving management of the environment and natural resources, the “natural capital” of the poor.
- New tools of economic analysis and transparency that reveal the true value of natural capital and sustainable ENR management mobilize support for poverty-environment mainstreaming within government.
- To ensure that the benefits gained through poverty-environment mainstreaming initiatives are sustained, international, regional and national institutions should embrace poverty-environment mainstreaming within their own organizations and practices.

¹ Goal 1, Open Working Group Proposal for Sustainable Development Goals, Sustainable Development Knowledge Platform, <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/focussdgs.html>, accessed 26 February 2015.

F.2 Communication Tools

The choice of an appropriate communication tool depends on understanding how your target audience receives and understands information. Some may prefer more technical messages packaged in a report or policy brief, while simple slogans or stories that convey your core objectives may be more appropriate for others. This section provides good practices to follow once you have selected the right tool or medium for your audience, and summarizes do’s and don’ts for writing in various formats.

A **fact sheet** (box F.1) is a short summary, generally a page or two, that quickly and easily answers questions about an issue or set of activities. Fact sheets provide useful background information; help officials focus on key points; and may serve as a summary of a briefing or presentation, helping listeners retain the information that has been presented.

Box F.1 Fact Sheet

Characteristics

- Contains 1–3 key points
- Points are supported with simple, striking data
- May include 1–3 policy or programme implications

Tips

- Avoid technical terms
- Include full contact information for those seeking further details

Examples

- Tanzania fact sheet (UNDP-UNEP PEI, n.d.)
- “Revisão da Despesa Pública do Sector Ambiental, Moçambique, 2005–2010” (UNDP-UNEP PEI, n.d.)



A **policy brief** (box F.2) is a concise summary of a particular issue, the policy options to deal with it and some recommendations on the best option. It is aimed at government policymakers and others who are interested in formulating or influencing policy. Typically, policy briefs are about two pages long (about

700 words); longer briefs can be up to 8 pages, or 3,000 words. If possible, policy briefs should be attractively designed and include one or more photographs (FAO 2011a).

Working papers (box F.3) are research reports, technical papers, discussion papers and

Box F.2 Policy Brief

Characteristics

- ✿ Short and to the point
- ✿ Focused on a particular problem or issue with enough detail for readers to make a decision and sufficient urgency to compel them to do so
- ✿ Based on firm data/evidence from various sources—preferably from several areas/organizations

Tips

- ✿ Provide information on alternatives
- ✿ Focus on meanings, not methods
- ✿ Relate context-specific findings to the big picture; draw conclusions that are generally applicable

Examples

- ✿ “Support to smallholder arable farmers in Botswana: agricultural development or social protection?” (UNDP-UNEP PEI 2013c)
- ✿ “Ecosystem services and poverty alleviation: A case study of land use in Oudomxay province” (UNDP-UNEP PEI 2012a)



Box F.3 Working Paper

Contents

- ✿ Title summarizing the paper in 10 words or less
- ✿ Abstract covering contributions, approach and results
- ✿ Introduction including background, overview and contributions
- ✿ Disclaimer
- ✿ Summary of research approach
- ✿ Body of the report
- ✿ Results and conclusions, including broader implications

Tips

- ✿ Organize the paper with a logical flow
- ✿ Compare with relevant existing methods
- ✿ Use footnotes or endnotes, and include a reference list of works cited in the paper
- ✿ Include tables, graphs or annexes presenting data from the research or giving further details about the research method
- ✿ Use plain English and technical language as appropriate; jargon is permissible as necessary

Examples

- ✿ [“Poverty and Social Impact Analysis of the Integrated Support Programme for Arable Agriculture Development in Botswana”](#) (Marumo et al. 2014)
- ✿ [“Reducing Climate-Sensitive Disease Risks”](#) (World Bank 2014b)
- ✿ [“Local Governance and Climate Change”](#) (UNDP, UNCDF and UNEP 2010)



occasional papers covering original research. A working paper is a useful vehicle for publishing research results quickly and to explore ideas through discussion with practitioners in the field, eliciting their feedback on new findings or methods (Scandlyn 2003).

Press releases (box F.4) are written communications directed at members of the news media in order to publicize something newsworthy.

Box F.4 Press Release Tips

- ✿ Confirm the basic facts of the story
- ✿ Write a catchy headline
- ✿ Summarize what is newsworthy in a lead sentence
- ✿ Provide background and human interest
- ✿ Get the name of and other relevant facts about people cited (e.g. current occupation, role in mainstreaming poverty-environment)
- ✿ Include quotes from relevant people to add authenticity to the story; include their short titles and agency names
- ✿ Use a picture, video or sound bite if possible to accompany your written piece
- ✿ Be sure to include numbers (of people assisted, money provided, etc.)
- ✿ Write in the active rather than passive voice
- ✿ Present the most relevant data, especially if the data are new or unusual
- ✿ Stick to concrete details to define problems and illustrate solutions
- ✿ Let the facts tell the story
- ✿ Write simply and plainly; avoid jargon and florid or unusual language
- ✿ Avoid unfamiliar or unnecessary acronyms (e.g. spell out “Poverty-Environment Initiative” rather than “PEI”)
- ✿ Give credit where credit is due—name partners and donors
- ✿ Put yourself in the shoes of the reader: Would you want to read this story?

A **media advisory** (box F.5) announces an upcoming newsworthy event or activity. Advisories are usually issued several days before an event. Press releases may be issued at the start of major actions—e.g. report launches, global meetings, country delegation visits—as appropriate. Press conferences may be organized in cooperation with donor agencies on relevant occasions and major events.

Box F.5 Media Advisory Tips

- ✿ Keep it short
- ✿ List the event, its participants, date and location
- ✿ Include the name and phone number of a contact person for the press
- ✿ Spell out the purpose of the event
- ✿ Write a strong headline and lead sentence, but do not reveal the news you will be releasing
- ✿ Follow up with journalists you believe will cover the event or story

Tweets (box F.6) are increasingly used by organizations to report breaking news or attract a dedicated following.

Box F.6 Tweet Tips

- ✿ Stick to essentials: messages are limited to 140 characters including spaces
- ✿ Include a hash tag to categorize Tweets by keyword to help them show more easily in a Twitter search (e.g. #povertyenvironment)
- ✿ Include quotes to boost audience and media interest
- ✿ Use a personal tone or give a first-person perspective where possible/appropriate
- ✿ Illustrate the story whenever possible with a photo or video clip

[Table F.1](#) summarizes the major aspects of strategic communications on poverty-environment mainstreaming, including details on and examples of target groups, messages, results,

actions, and methods and tools. For further guidance on communication tools, see the PEI website (click on the [Knowledge Resources and Services tab](#)).



Table F.1 Strategic Communications Summary: Target Groups, Messages, Results, Actions, Tools

Target group: MINISTERS, HIGH-RANKING GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS AND PARLIAMENTARIANS	
Key messages/content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The impact of poverty-environment on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — The national economy — Environment and natural resources — Biodiversity — Poverty eradication — Gender equity and equality — Climate change adaptation ● The relationships between poverty, ecosystem services and ENR management ● The cost of action/inaction ● The current and potential added value of poverty-environment mainstreaming to meet SDGs and national sustainable development goals and targets
Expected results	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Increased knowledge by policymakers of the relationship between environment and ENR management and other development challenges leads to a higher priority for poverty-environment objectives in national budgets and development planning ● Decision-makers increase awareness and technical understanding of poverty-environment issues and their various implications ● Increased knowledge of poverty-environment through interministerial collaboration ● Decision-makers address heightened awareness of the global benefits of integrating poverty-environment
Strategic actions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Tailor messages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — Produce arguments for finance and planning ministers: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Respective investment yields in environment and natural resources versus other areas ● Cost of action/inaction ● Specific contribution of poverty-environment to solving single issues such as threats to biodiversity, climate change, deforestation, extractive industries, food insecurity, gender equality, health, sanitation, sustainable energy, water and poverty eradication with clear costs for each case — Share arguments with other line ministers (agriculture, environment, technology, etc.) and heads of government — Tailor documents on the same themes for parliamentarians and present them to parliamentary committees ● Meet one-on-one with government ministers and high-level officials on the above subjects ● In selected cases, poverty-environment champions visit high-level political decision-makers, symposia, project sites ● In affected developing countries, request the UN Resident Coordinator/UNDP Country Team open a dialogue with the government, and consider the inclusion or strengthening of poverty-environment objectives in UNDAFs, PRSPs and other planning documents ● Organize regional and national seminars on economic, social and environmental benefits of poverty-environment mainstreaming

(continued)



Table F.1 Strategic Communications Summary: Target Groups, Messages, Results, Actions, Tools

Methods/ tools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policy briefs, fact sheets, workshops • International, regional and country-level meetings, events, exhibitions and campaigns (e.g. climate summits, other multilateral environmental agreement conferences, SDG conferences, UN Environment Assembly, World Environment Day) • Websites, social media, newsletters, communities of practice • One-on-one meetings
Target group: TECHNICAL STAFF IN MINISTRIES CONCERNED WITH PLANNING, BUDGETING, SECTORAL DEVELOPMENT, CLIMATE CHANGE, ETC.; CIVIL SOCIETY AND THINK TANKS	
Key messages/ content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relevant scientific and technical knowledge which must be taken into account in policy formulation and disseminated to end users • Multiple relationships between poverty-environment and the economic potential of ENR (returns on investment) • Potential roles of local and regional authorities • Case studies on poverty-environment practice involving local and/or regional authorities • Instructive and good practices (shared with and among policymakers and end users)
Expected results	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National reports indicate improved assessment of the natural resource and human rights drivers of poverty • Increased knowledge of poverty-environment among government officials facilitates sound and knowledge-based policies in affected developing countries • Poverty-environment mainstreaming is raised in briefings for international negotiations and resource mobilization drives • National administrations increasingly equipped to undertake advocacy and communication initiatives at the national and local levels
Strategic actions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Produce similar messages as for high-level officials, sometimes with more technical detail (e.g. policy briefs, fact sheets, working papers), for the civil servants who prepare dossiers and do the groundwork
Methods/ tools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poverty-environment economic studies, working papers, policy briefs, fact sheets, guidance notes, handbook, workshops • International, regional and country-level meetings, events, exhibitions and campaigns (e.g. climate summits, other multilateral environmental agreement conferences, SDG conferences, UN Environment Assembly, World Environment Day) • Communities of practice, websites, social media, newsletters

(continued)

Table F.1 Strategic Communications Summary: Target Groups, Messages, Results, Actions, Tools

Target group: UN SYSTEM , INTERGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS AND BILATERAL DONORS	
Key messages/ content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The impact of poverty-environment on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — The economy — The environment and natural resources — Biodiversity — Poverty eradication — Gender mainstreaming — Climate change ● The cost of action/inaction ● The benefits for all concerned <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — Stakeholders in building communication — Partnerships and a clearing-house mechanism for promoting poverty-environment mainstreaming ● Press material ● Poverty-environment-related scientific findings
Expected results	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● UN system and international institutions that address SDGs refer prominently to poverty-environment mainstreaming ● Opportunities increased for substantive dialogue on poverty-environment with national authorities in affected developing countries ● Increased technical support provided to governments in addressing poverty-environment ● Other stakeholders receive increased support for poverty-environment from UN institutions ● Increased advocacy for poverty-environment incorporated into UNDAFs and PRSPs ● Poverty-environment taken into account in UN activities, whether operational or normative, pertaining to major global challenges and SDGs ● Enhanced and more coherent UN system-wide communications on poverty-environment
Strategic actions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Establish an agreement/memorandum of understanding at the highest level among concerned UN agencies and other partners to jointly promote poverty-environment ● A joint mailing of a letter by heads of agencies to their respective staff members, giving poverty-environment promotion due priority and weight ● Disseminate appropriate poverty-environment information to UN staff on the ground through UN web portals and emails ● Discuss with the UN Staff College in Turin and other relevant training institutions the introduction of poverty-environment among the topics taught, e.g. at the Partnership for Action on Green Economy (PAGE) Academy, and prepare training material accordingly ● Build ad hoc partnerships linking the communication officers of the respective institutions
Methods/ tools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Poverty-environment economic studies, working papers, policy briefs, fact sheets, guidance notes, handbook, workshops ● International, regional and country-level meetings, events, exhibitions and campaigns (e.g. climate summits, other multilateral environmental agreement conferences, SDG conferences, UN Environment Assembly, World Environment Day) ● Communities of practice, websites, social media, newsletters, emails ● One-on-one meetings

(continued)



Table F.1 Strategic Communications Summary: Target Groups, Messages, Results, Actions, Tools

Target group: MEDIA, ADVOCACY GROUPS AND PUBLIC CAMPAIGNS, POVERTY-ENVIRONMENT CHAMPIONS	
Key messages/content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quarterly press information on substantive poverty-environment issues • Reports illustrating the relationship between ENR and the major poverty challenges • Cutting-edge economic analysis and scientific findings specially “digested” and packaged for wide dissemination to non-specialist personnel • Technical information (including digests of scientific findings) for use by community media • Statements/declarations to the media in relation to ongoing debates on burning issues affected by or having a bearing on poverty-environment • “Stories of change” on poverty-environment experience and practices
Expected results	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased reporting of poverty-environment–related issues by the media in association with relevant major global challenges • Increased media articles on poverty-environment and its effect on major global challenges • Public opinion and decision-makers better informed on poverty-environment and ENR issues • Media reports increase public opinion and support for investing in poverty-environment mainstreaming • Influential journalists report on poverty-environment issues more frequently and provide in-depth analyses • Mainstream and alternative media with a strong outreach ability to end users (pastoralists, farmers, local cooperatives, etc.) are better equipped to address poverty-environment • Partnerships with media at the local level established (through regional and country offices, UN presence in situ and/or non-governmental or community-based organizations) to disseminate hands-on information to end users
Strategic actions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Target a core group of influential international print and broadcast media and journalists; update the database regularly • Distinguish mainstream media and alternative influential sources of information such as much-visited websites, specialized references, web-based data banks, or sources of scientific or economic information • Establish and maintain a roster of experts and officials (including from countries) with their areas of competence for media interviews • Identify and recruit high-profile champions to provide a face and voice to present poverty-environment issues to the media and the general public; keep champions well briefed on single issues and communication opportunities • Engage in communication partnerships, share responsibilities for the production of press material and media outreach • Prepare press material: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — The “story of the month” — Ad hoc documents, piggy-backing on debates around current hot issues (keep a calendar of forthcoming events) • Specific material for community media outlets • Dispatch monthly information • Provide access to situations and people particularly for broadcast media

(continued)

Table F.1 Strategic Communications Summary: Target Groups, Messages, Results, Actions, Tools

Strategic actions (cont'd)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Conduct training sessions for journalists in partnership with specialized organizations ● Involve leading environment and economic journalists as resource persons in some of the main events ● Regularly provide UNEP Regional Officers and UNDP Country Teams with information they can relay to local media outlets ● Share social media (blogs, images, FAQs, testimonials, thunderclaps, videos) with journalists, champions and across poverty-environment networks
Methods/tools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● International, regional and country-level meetings, events, exhibitions and campaigns (e.g. climate summits, other multilateral environmental agreement conferences, SDG conferences, UN Environment Assembly, World Environment Day) ● Media/journalist trainings on the poverty-environment dimension of major global challenges ● On-site visits with journalists showing poverty-environment in action ● Press releases, op-eds by leaders and experts, interviews, speeches ● Television/radio broadcasts, video productions, film festival screenings ● Social media (microblogs, images, FAQs, cartoons, testimonials, thunderclaps, videos) ● Champion briefings/trainings (policy briefs, fact sheets, exhibitions, talking points, speechwriting) ● Special content for community-based/local media ● One-on-one meetings

Note: UNDAF = United Nations Development Action Framework.



Annex G

Poverty-Environment Mainstreaming Tools

Poverty-environment mainstreaming tools are critical to supporting the integration of poverty-environment objectives in development planning, budgeting and monitoring. The principal tools applied in the mainstreaming process are summarized below.

Institutional and context analysis. An ICA helps identify the most effective entry points for poverty-environment mainstreaming. It focuses on political and institutional factors, as well as on processes concerning the use of national and external resources in a given setting and how these have an impact on the implementation of poverty-environment objectives. More information can be found in [annex A](#) of this handbook and in UNDP's Institutional and Context Analysis Guidance Note.

Economic assessments of the value of inclusive natural resource sustainability. Providing economic evidence of how environmental sustainability contributes to poverty reduction and other national development goals such as gender equality is an important component of the poverty-environment mainstreaming process. Economic-based analysis and argumentation for pro-poor sustainable environmental investments can be most effective in convincing decision-makers of the importance of environmental sustainability in achieving development goals. A communication strategy can help in clearly conveying the results of the analysis. More information can be found in the PEI publication *Making the Economic Case: A Primer on the Economic Arguments for Mainstreaming Poverty-Environment Linkages into*

Development Planning (UNDP-UNEP PEI 2008) and the [economic valuation and analysis section](#) of the PEI website.

Cost-benefit analysis. A CBA is a systematic process for identifying, valuing and comparing costs and benefits of a project (Buncle et al. 2013). It helps determine whether the benefits of a project outweigh its costs, and by how much relative to other alternatives. The objective is to determine whether the proposed project is (or was) a sound decision or investment, and/or compare alternative project options and make a decision on the preferred option. Ultimately, a CBA helps inform decisions about whether to proceed with a project or not, and to choose which project option to implement where there are several options. A CBA can include a gender lens and examine the costs and benefits of closing the gender gap in a certain sector (e.g. agriculture). In the context of poverty-environment mainstreaming, a CBA can help build an argument for more pro-poor and environmentally sustainable investments. For more information on this tool, see the Guidance Note on Poverty available on the [PEI website](#).

Poverty and social impact analysis. A PSIA is an analytical approach used to assess the distributional and social impacts of policy reforms on different groups, e.g. men, women, youth, poor or minority groups (World Bank 2013). It can be carried out ex ante or ex post policy reform. If conducted before or during the reform process, the analysis can provide a sound empirical basis to inform the design and sequencing of



alternative policy options. If conducted after the reform, the PSIA can help assess the actual impacts of the policy, which can suggest ways to mitigate any adverse effects and help decision-makers understand the likely impacts of future reforms. For more information on this tool, see the Guidance Note on Poverty available on the [PEI website](#).

Environmental fiscal reform. EFR refers to a range of taxation and pricing measures that can raise fiscal revenues while promoting environmental goals. EFR includes taxes on natural resource use, pollution charges, fees charged for environmentally damaging practices, and reducing and/or restructuring environmentally harmful subsidies. EFR can also help ensure that benefit-sharing mechanisms exist between state or private sector resource extractors and local communities that live in the vicinity of, or benefit from the use of, the resource. In designing EFR measures, their impact on different groups, including women, should be kept in mind. For more information on this tool, see the [OECD Guidelines on Environmental Fiscal Reform for Poverty Reduction](#) (OECD 2005) and a training manual based on the guidelines (Cottrell and Schlegelmilch, n.d.) available on the [PEI website](#).

Public expenditure reviews. Review of how public funds are spent by government across sectors and nationally and/or subnationally can help identify what was spent, what was achieved as a result and whether the results achieved meet pro-poor and environmentally sustainable development objectives. It also provides an assessment of the performance and efficiency of the institutional mechanisms governing expenditure and reporting. **Public environmental expenditure reviews** help point out to decision-makers the level of public sector financing in support of environmental management across sectors, the benefits arising from these investments, and

the potential for strengthening social and economic benefits and institutional efficiencies by making changes in public budgeting and expenditure frameworks. **Climate public expenditure and institutional reviews** examine climate adaptation and mitigation-related expenditures across budgets. This includes looking at recurrent and capital development spending; institutional frameworks related to climate financing, including between central and subnational levels; and the results from climate-related expenditure against pro-poor and environmental sustainability development objectives. PEERs and CPEIRs have been useful in making the case for increased expenditure to pro-poor environmental management and climate change adaptation. For more information, see the [public expenditure reviews section](#) of the [PEI website](#).

Environmental impact analysis. Environment impact analysis provides information not only on the overall extent of expenditure and the costs and benefits of certain investments, but also the effects of these public and private investments on the environment and to the people. When undertaking such an analysis, the impacts of public and private investments on different groups (women, indigenous peoples, etc.) should be taken into account. An **environmental impact assessment** is used to identify the environmental, social and economic impacts of a project prior to decision-making. It aims to predict environmental impacts at an early stage in project planning and design, find ways and means to reduce adverse impacts, shape projects to suit the local environment, and present the predictions and options to decision-makers. Both environmental and economic benefits can be achieved through an environmental impact assessment, such as reduced cost and time of project implementation and design, avoided treatment/clean-up costs and impacts of laws and regulations. A **strategic environmental assessment**

enables the integration of environmental considerations—alongside social and economic aspects—into policies, plans and programmes. It provides the environmental evidence to support more informed decision-making, and to identify new opportunities by encouraging systematic and thorough examination of development options. A strategic environmental assessment might be applied to an entire sector (e.g. a national policy on energy) or to a geographical area (e.g. in the context of a regional development scheme). It does not replace or reduce the need for a project-level environmental impact assessment (although in some cases it might), but it can help streamline and focus the incorporation of environmental concerns into the decision-making process. For more information, see OECD's "Good Practices for Environmental Impact Assessment of Development Projects" and *Applying Strategic Environmental Assessment: Good Practice Guidance for Development Co-Operation* (OECD 1992, 2006).

Ecosystem assessment. An ecosystem assessment looks at the interlinkages between the natural environment and human well-being within a particular ecosystem. Such an assessment should consider both the ecosystems from which services are derived and the people who depend on and are affected by changes in the supply of services, thereby

connecting environmental and development sectors. When considering impact on people, it is important to disaggregate the population by gender, ethnicity, etc., as appropriate to the particular context. Ecosystem assessment plays an important role in the decision-making process by responding to decision-makers' need for information, highlighting trade-offs between decision options, and modelling future prospects to avoid unforeseen long-term consequences. For more information, see [Ecosystems and Human Well-Being: A Manual for Assessment Practitioners](#), available on the UNEP website, and the [integrated ecosystem assessments section](#) of the PEI website.

Vulnerability assessment. A vulnerability assessment is essential in responding to future climate risks. It helps define the nature and extent of the threat that may harm a given human or ecological system, providing a basis for developing measures that will minimize or avoid harm. Vulnerability assessment provides a means to understand how different groups, including women, will be affected by climate change and to identify adaptation measures based on needs and priorities. There are various methodologies available to assess climate risk and vulnerability at various scales (local, national, regional). For more information on this tool, see the Guidance Note on Poverty available on the [PEI website](#).



Glossary

Budgeting. The process of deciding how much public spending should be committed in the future year(s) and how it should be spent. The budgeting process differs enormously from one country to another and entails budget review, preparation, submission, allocation, approval, execution, and monitoring and reporting (Economist 2009). See also [Medium-term expenditure framework](#).

Capacity assessment. An analysis of current capacities against desired future capacities, which generates an understanding of capacity assets and needs, which in turn leads to the formulation of capacity development strategies (UNDP 2007). See also [Institutional and capacity strengthening or development](#).

Champion (poverty-environment). Practitioner who takes on the role of advocating the integration of poverty-environment considerations into development planning at national, sector and subnational levels. Champions include high-level decision-makers and government officials who serve as ambassadors for poverty-environment mainstreaming.

Civil society. The voluntary civic and social components of society. In 1992, at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, governments agreed on the following definition of major civil society groups: farmers, women, the scientific and technological community, children and youth, indigenous peoples and their communities, workers and trade unions, business and industry, non-governmental organizations and local authorities. Since then, the concept of civil society has continued to evolve, with different views of how it

should be defined. In relation to the environmental field, civil society can be categorized under the following groups: service delivery, representation, advocacy and policy inputs, capacity-building and social functions (UNEP 2004a). See also [Non-governmental actor and Stakeholder](#).

Climate change. A statistically significant variation in either the mean state of the climate or in its variability, persisting for an extended period (typically decades or longer). The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, in Article 1, defines climate change as “a change of climate which is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the composition of the global atmosphere and which is in addition to natural climate variability observed over comparable time periods.” The convention thus makes a distinction between climate change attributable to human activities altering the atmospheric composition and climate variability attributable to natural causes (IPCC 2009).

Climate change adaptation. Adjustment in natural or human systems in response to actual or expected climatic stimuli or their effects, which moderates harm or exploits beneficial opportunities. Various types of adaptation can be distinguished, including anticipatory, autonomous and planned adaptation (IPCC 2009).

Climate change mitigation. Any anthropogenic intervention to reduce the sources or enhance the sinks of greenhouse gases (IPCC 2009).

Climate public expenditure and institutional review (CPEIR). A CPEIR is a methodology that



allows an analysis to be made of how climate change-related expenditure is being integrated into national budgetary processes and helps ensure that money spent for climate change is allocated more effectively. This analysis has to be set within the context of the national policy and institutional arrangements that exist to manage the response to climate change. Three key steps in the methodology include (i) policy development, (ii) institutional structures, and (iii) expenditures and public financial management.

Concession. Investment arrangement whereby land is transferred to investors, who are then responsible for all production activities (contrast with *Contract farming*).

Contract farming. Agricultural production carried out according to an agreement between the investor and farmers. Typically, the farmers agree to provide specified quantities of a specific agricultural product, in accordance with quality standards and timelines determined by the investor. In return the investor commits to purchase the product and, in some cases, to support production through the supply of farm inputs, land preparation and provision of technical advice (FAO 2010).

Cost-benefit analysis (CBA). A comparative analysis of the present value of the stream of economic benefits and costs of an activity, project, programme or policy measure over some defined period of time (the time horizon). A boundary of the analysis is also defined in order to indicate what effects are included in the analysis. The results of the cost-benefit analysis are usually presented in terms of a net present value, a benefit-cost ratio or an internal rate of return, which is the discount rate at which the present value of benefits exactly equals the present value of costs. If the internal rate of return is higher than the cost of capital or a predetermined rate of interest, the project,

programme or policy measure is profitable (Dixon 2008; Dixon and Sherman 1991). See also [Economic analysis](#).

Costing. The process of evaluating, through estimates, mathematical models and prediction of future needs, how much the implementation of a specific policy measure or the achievement of a goal or target through a set of policy measures will cost.

Economic analysis. The broad process of studying and understanding trends, phenomena and information that are economic in nature. Economic analysis can quantify the contribution of the environment to a country's economy, through revenues, job creation, and direct and indirect use of the resources by the population. By demonstrating the multiple values of the environment, expressed both in monetary and broader non-monetary terms, economic analysis can help persuade key decision-makers that sustainable management of the environment will help them achieve development goals such as poverty reduction, food security, adaptation to climate change and other measures of human well-being. See also [Cost-benefit analysis](#) and [Environmental valuation](#).

Economic development. Qualitative change and restructuring in a country's economy in connection with technological and social progress. The main indicator of economic development is increasing GDP per capita (or gross national product per capita), reflecting an increase in the economic productivity and average material well-being of a country's population. Economic development is closely linked with economic growth (World Bank 2004).

Ecosystem. A dynamic complex of plant, animal and micro-organism communities and their non-living environment interacting as a functional unit (MA 2005). Ecosystems have no fixed boundaries; instead, their parameters are

set according to the scientific, management or policy question being examined. Depending on the purpose of the analysis, a single lake, catchment area or entire region could be an ecosystem (Seymour, Maurer and Quiroga 2005).

Ecosystem services. The benefits people obtain from ecosystems. These include:

- **Provisioning services**—the products obtained from ecosystems, including, e.g. genetic resources, food and fibre, and freshwater
- **Regulating services**—the benefits obtained from the regulation of ecosystem processes, including, e.g. the regulation of climate, water and some human diseases
- **Cultural services**—the non-material benefits people obtain from ecosystems through spiritual enrichment, reflection, recreation and aesthetic experience, including, e.g. knowledge systems, social relations and aesthetic values
- **Supporting services**—the services necessary for the production of all other ecosystem services, including, e.g. biomass production, production of atmospheric oxygen, soil formation and retention, nutrient cycling, water cycling and provision of habitat

The human species, while buffered against environmental changes by culture and technology, is fundamentally dependent on the flow of ecosystem services (MA 2005). See also [Environment](#) and [Natural resources](#).

Entry point. An opportunity for influencing decision-makers to consider poverty-environment issues in the process at stake. Possible entry points include the formation or revision of a PRSP, a national development plan,

a national development strategy based on the MDGs or 104 related implementation processes. The development and revision of sector strategies or plans, such as an agricultural sector plan, constitute another opportunity. Similarly, the start of the national budget allocation process or review (e.g. medium-term expenditure review) or the launch of relevant national consultation processes can prove to be excellent entry points for poverty-environment mainstreaming.

Environment. The living (biodiversity) and non-living components of the natural world, and the interactions between them, that together support life on Earth. The environment provides goods (see also *Natural resources*) and services (see also *Ecosystem services*) used for food production, the harvesting of wild products, energy and raw materials. The environment is also a recipient and partial recycler of waste products from the economy and an important source of recreation, beauty, spiritual values and other amenities (DFID et al. 2002). On the other hand, the environment is subject to environmental hazards such as natural disasters, floods and droughts and environmental degradation (e.g. soil erosion, deforestation).

Environmental fiscal reform (EFR). Taxation and pricing instruments aimed at improving environmental management, including taxes on the exploitation of natural resources (e.g. forests, minerals, fisheries), user charges and fees (e.g. water charges, street parking fees, permits or licenses on ENR), taxes or charges on polluting emissions (e.g. air pollution) and reforms to subsidies (e.g. on pesticides, water, energy).

Environmental impact assessment (EIA). An assessment of the intended and unintended environmental consequences of a proposed investment project. The purpose of an EIA is to ensure that environmental impacts are taken into account during project approval.



Environmental mainstreaming. The integration of environmental considerations into policies, programmes and operations to ensure their sustainability and to enhance harmonization of environmental, economic and social concerns (EC 2007).

Environmental sustainability. The longer-term ability of natural and environmental resources and ecosystem services to support continued human well-being. Environmental sustainability encompasses not just recognition of environmental spillovers today, but also the need to maintain sufficient natural capital to meet future human needs (Seymour, Maurer and Quiroga 2005).

Environmental valuation. The process of placing monetary value on environmental goods or services that do not have accepted prices or where market prices are distorted. A wide range of valuation techniques exist and are suited to address different issues (e.g. survey-based techniques, changes in production, hedonic approaches and surrogate markets) (Dixon 2008; Dixon and Sherman 1991). See also [Economic analysis](#).

Expropriation. The seizure of private property by the state for public use or benefit.

Extractive industries. Primary activities involved in the extraction of non-renewable resources, such as mining, quarrying, dredging, and oil and gas extraction.

Fair and equitable treatment. A standard of treatment in international investment agreements that requires host governments to accord full or constant protection and security to foreign investments and not to impair the management, maintenance, use, enjoyment or disposal of foreign investments by unreasonable or discriminatory measures (UNCTAD 2009).

Foreign direct investment (FDI). Investment involving a long-term relationship and reflecting a lasting interest and control by a resident entity in one economy (foreign direct investor or parent enterprise) in an enterprise resident in an economy other than that of the foreign direct investor (FDI enterprise or affiliate enterprise or foreign affiliate) (UNCTAD 2010a).

Gender responsive budgeting (GRB). Government planning, programming and budgeting that contributes to the advancement of gender equality and the fulfilment of women's rights. It entails identifying and reflecting needed interventions to address gender gaps in sector and local government policies, plans and budgets (UN Women, n.d.).

Green economy. One that results in improved human well-being and social equity, while significantly reducing environmental risks and ecological scarcities (UNEP 2008a). In its simplest expression, a green economy can be thought of as one which is low carbon, resource efficient and socially inclusive.

Green growth. Fostering economic growth and development while ensuring that natural assets continue to provide the resources and environmental services on which our well-being relies. It provides a practical and flexible approach for achieving concrete, measurable progress across its economic and environmental pillars, while taking full account of the social consequences of greening the growth dynamic of economies (OECD 2011).

Gross domestic product (GDP). The total final output of goods and services produced within a country's borders, regardless of whether ownership is by domestic or foreign claimants (Dixon and Sherman 1991).

Household poverty assessment. Collection and analysis of data on the determinants of

poverty. Increasingly, this includes environmental factors such as access to water and energy (Brocklesby and Hinshelwood 2001).

Institutional and capacity strengthening or development. The process through which the abilities of individuals, organizations and societies to perform functions, solve problems, and set and achieve objectives in a sustainable manner are obtained, strengthened, adapted and maintained over time. It entails building relationships and values that will enable individuals, organizations and societies to improve their performance and achieve their development objectives. This includes change within a state, civil society or the private sector; and change in processes that enhance cooperation between different groups of society. Capacity development is a concept broader than organizational development as it includes an emphasis on the overall system, environment or context within which individuals, organizations and societies operate and interact. See also [Capacity assessment](#).

Integrated ecosystem assessment. An assessment of the condition and trends in an ecosystem; the services it provides (e.g. clean water, food, forest products and flood control); and the options to restore, conserve or enhance the sustainable use of that ecosystem through integrated natural science and social science research methods (MA 2005).

International investment agreement. A treaty between two or more countries that addresses protection, promotion and liberalization of cross-border investment (including FDI). International investment agreements include bilateral investment treaties, regional economic agreements with provisions on foreign investment and multilateral agreements with direct implications for FDI.

Investment contract. A written agreement

between a foreign investor and the host government or a local community that (i) grants rights with respect to natural resources or other assets controlled by the host government or a local community; and (ii) is relied upon by the foreign investor in establishing or acquiring a covered investment (UNCTAD 2004).

Investment promotion agency. A government agency responsible for attracting investment to a specific country, region or city.

Joint venture. A business entity having the following characteristics: (i) the entity was established by a contractual arrangement, with two or more parties contributing resources towards the business undertaking; (ii) the parties have joint control over activities carried out according to the terms of the arrangements (UNCTAD 2010b).

Land tenure. Rules, whether legally or customarily defined, among individuals or groups with respect to land. Rules of tenure define how rights to use, control and transfer land are to be allocated within a given society (FAO 2002).

Least developed country (LDC). The name given to a country which, according to the United Nations, exhibits the lowest indicators of socio-economic development of all countries in the world.

Livelihood. The assets and activities required for a means of living. The assets might consist of individual skills and abilities (human capital), land, savings and equipment (natural, financial and physical capital, respectively) and formal support groups or informal networks that assist in the activities being undertaken (social capital). A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (DFID 2001).



Local procurement. The process of obtaining personnel, services, supplies and equipment from local (host country) sources.

Low-income economy. An economy with 2013 per capita gross national income of \$1,045 or less (World Bank 2015).

Mainstreaming. The process of systematically integrating a selected value, idea or theme into all domains of an area of work or system. Mainstreaming involves an iterative process of change in the culture and practices of institutions (DFID et al. 2002).

Medium-term expenditure framework. A budgeting system comprising a top-down estimate of aggregate resources available for public expenditure in the medium term consistent with macroeconomic stability; bottom-up estimates of the cost of carrying out policies, both existing and new; and a framework that reconciles these costs with aggregate resources. It is called “medium-term” because it provides data on a prospective basis for the budget year ($n+1$) and for following years ($n+2$ and $n+3$). The framework is a rolling process repeated every year and aims at reducing the imbalance between what is affordable and what is demanded by line ministries. The term used differs by country; besides “medium-term expenditure framework,” other terms that may be applied include multi-year expenditure framework, multi-year budget, forward budget, multi-year estimates and forward estimates (Petkova and Bird 2008). See also [Budgeting](#).

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Eight international development goals to be achieved by 2015, as agreed to by all 192 United Nations member states. Goals include eradicating extreme poverty and hunger; achieving universal primary education; promoting gender equality and empowerment of women; reducing child mortality rate; improving

maternal health; combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensuring environmental sustainability; and developing a global partnership for development (UN 2010a).

National development planning. A comprehensive process from elaboration of a plan until implementation, by which economic development is organized around a coherent framework of objectives and means. In the context of poverty-environment mainstreaming, planning encompasses preparatory work (e.g. carrying out assessments and setting up working mechanisms); policymaking (including public and policy reforms); and budgeting, implementation and monitoring, at various levels: national, sector and subnational.

Natural resources. Resources occurring naturally within, and derived from, the environment. These can be divided further into renewable resources (those that can be replenished or reproduced easily, such as water and forests) and non-renewable resources (those that exist in fixed amounts, or are consumed much faster than nature can recreate them, such as metals, coal, oil and gas).

Non-governmental actor. Any actor that is not part of the government, in the broadest sense, including representatives of civil society, academia, business and industry, the general public and local communities, and the media. See also [Civil society](#) and [Stakeholder](#).

Non-renewable resources. See [Natural resources](#).

Organic farming. A form of agricultural production that excludes or strictly limits the use of manufactured fertilizers and pesticides, plant growth regulators such as hormones, livestock antibiotics, food additives and genetically modified organisms. Techniques used include crop rotation, compost and biological pest control.

Payment for ecosystem/environmental services. Any of a variety of arrangements through which the beneficiary of ecosystem services compensates the providers of those services. Payment schemes may be a market arrangement between willing buyers and sellers, intermediated by a large private or public entity or government driven (WWF 2015).

Policy. A high-level strategic plan embracing general goals, targets and implementation.

Policy measure. An intervention supporting new policies or changes to existing policies, as well as broader sector (e.g. agriculture policy) and public reforms (e.g. participation in the decision-making process) aimed at improving environmental management for the benefit of the poor. Policy measures can take place at the national, sector or subnational level.

Poverty. A multidimensional concept of deprivation including lack of income and other material means; lack of access to basic social services such as education, health and safe water; lack of personal security; lack of empowerment to participate in the political process and in life-affecting decisions; and extreme vulnerability to external shocks (DFID et al. 2002).

Poverty and social impact analysis (PSIA). Involves the analysis of the distributional impact, intended and unintended, of policy reforms on the well-being of different stakeholder groups, with a particular focus on the poor and vulnerable (World Bank 2003). The analysis can be conducted on a proposed policy reform or ex post to assess the actual impact arising from implementation of a policy reform.

Poverty-environment indicator. A measure of poverty-environment linkages, whether these linkages represent causal relationships between poverty and the environment or describe how environmental conditions affect

the livelihoods, health and resilience of the poor to environmental risks or broader economic development.

Poverty-environment linkage. The close relationship that exists between poverty and environmental factors, as reflected through sustainable use of natural resources, adapting to climate change, a focus on poverty reduction and equity especially for marginalized groups (including women and indigenous peoples), and working towards inclusive green growth. Poverty-environment linkages are dynamic and context specific, reflecting geographic location, scale and the economic, social and cultural characteristics of individuals, households and social groups.

Poverty-environment mainstreaming. The iterative process of integrating poverty-environment objectives into policymaking, budgeting and implementation processes at national, sector and subnational levels. It is a multi-stakeholder effort that entails working with state actors (such as ministries of planning, finance, environment, sector ministries, parliaments and local authorities) and non-state actors (such as civil society, academia, the private sector, the general public and communities, and the media).

Poverty-environment monitoring. The continuous or frequent standardized measurement and observation of poverty-environment linkages, e.g. for warning and control (OECD 1997).

Poverty-environment objectives. Objectives that governments must look to incorporate into their development planning to address poverty-environment linkages—e.g. using natural resources sustainably; adapting to climate change; focusing on poverty reduction and equity, especially for marginalized groups such as women and indigenous peoples; and working towards inclusive green growth.



Poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP).

Country-led, country-written document that provides the basis for assistance from the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, and debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Debt Initiative. A PRSP describes a country's macroeconomic, structural, and social policies and programmes to promote growth, and the country's objectives, policies, interventions and programmes for poverty reduction (UNEP 2007). Country-led PRSPs describing national objectives, policies, interventions and programmes are considered to be policy documents.

Practitioner. Any stakeholder, government or non-government, actively engaged in the environment, development and poverty reduction fields.

Primary sector. A sector of the economy concerned with obtaining or providing natural raw materials for conversion into commodities. Industries in this sector include agriculture, agribusiness, fishing, forestry and extractive industries.

Production-sharing agreement. A contract between a host government and an investor (usually a resource extraction company) concerning what percentage of the extracted resource each party will receive. The investor usually bears all exploration risks, development and production costs.

Programmatic approach. A medium- or long-term approach that includes a set of activities building on each other and contributing to the aim of achieving synergies and longer-term outcomes.

Pro-poor economic growth. Growth that benefits poor people in absolute terms, taking into account the rate of growth and its distributional pattern (Kraay 2003; World Bank 2007). Ignoring

the quality of growth and particularly the erosion of the environmental assets of the poor undermines growth itself and its effectiveness in reducing poverty, even if it may enhance short-term economic gains (DFID et al. 2002).

Public environmental expenditure review (PEER).

A way of systematically assessing the equity, efficiency and effectiveness of public environmental spending. The data and insights it yields can be valuable for the design of government budgets, policy reforms and investment projects (World Bank 2006).

Public expenditure review.

A key diagnostics instrument used to evaluate the effectiveness of public finances. A public expenditure review typically analyses government expenditures over a period of years to assess their consistency with policy priorities, and what results were achieved. It may analyse government-wide expenditures or may focus on a particular sector (agriculture, education, infrastructure). Public expenditure reviews help countries establish effective and transparent mechanisms to allocate and use available public resources in a way that promotes economic growth and helps reduce poverty (World Bank 2011b).

Regulatory capture.

A form of government failure, where a state regulatory agency created to act in the public interest instead acts in the commercial or special interests of the industry it is charged with regulating.

Renewable resources. See [Natural resources](#).

Resilience.

The ability of a social or ecological system to absorb disturbances while retaining the same basic structure and ways of functioning, capacity for self-organization and capacity to adapt to stress and change (IPCC 2007).

Risk. The result of the interaction of physically defined hazards with the properties of the

exposed systems—i.e. their sensitivity or social vulnerability. Risk can also be considered as the combination of an event, its likelihood and its consequences—i.e. risk equals the probability of climate hazard multiplied by a given system's vulnerability (UNDP 2004).

South-South. A term historically used by policymakers and academics to describe interaction between developing countries.

Special economic zone. A geographic region with economic regulations which are more free market oriented (and hence more conducive to FDI) than a country's national laws and regulations. Special economic zones cover a broad range of zone types, including free trade zones, export processing zones, free zones, industrial estates, free ports, urban enterprise zones and others.

Stakeholder. Any party involved in a particular process, including any group or individual who has something at stake in the process. Stakeholders include government actors (head of state's office, environment, finance and planning bodies, sector and subnational bodies, political parties and parliament, national statistics office and judicial system), non-governmental actors (civil society, academia, business and industry, the general public and local communities, and the media); and the development community. See also [Civil society](#) and [Non-governmental actor](#).

Strategic environmental assessment. Any of a range of analytical and participatory approaches that aim to integrate environmental considerations into policies, plans and programmes and evaluate the interlinkages with economic and social considerations. This family of approaches uses a variety of tools adapted and tailored to the context or policy process to which they are applied (OECD 2006). Used in the context of poverty-environment mainstreaming, a

strategic environmental assessment can also be useful in systematic review of a policy process or document to identify poverty-environment contributions and refine priorities accordingly.

Strategies. Examples of policy documents include PRSPs, MDG strategies, and sector and subnational strategies and plans.

Sustainable consumption and production. The production and use of goods and services that respond to basic needs and provide a better quality of life while minimizing the use of natural resources, toxic materials, and emissions of waste and pollutants over the life cycle so as not to jeopardize the environment's ability to meet the needs of future generations (Norwegian Ministry of Environment 1994).

Sustainable development. Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Brundtland 1987). Sustainable development includes economic, environmental and social sustainability, which can be achieved by rationally managing physical, natural and human capital (UN 2010b).

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). New universal set of goals, targets and indicators that UN member states will be expected to use to frame their agendas and political policies from 2016–2030. The SDGs follow, and expand on, the MDGs, which were agreed upon by governments in 2000, and are due to expire at the end of 2015.

Technology transfer. The process whereby systematic knowledge for the manufacture of a product, the application of a process or the rendering of a service is disseminated (UNCTAD 2004).

Third-party certification. A system of standards and conformance which aims to provide



consumers with assurance that products were produced in compliance with specified environmental or social standards. Third-party certification includes audits of company's operations by independent certification bodies.

Transnational corporation. Incorporated or unincorporated enterprise comprising a parent enterprise and its foreign affiliates. A parent enterprise is defined as an enterprise that controls assets of other entities in countries other than its home country, usually by owning a certain equity capital stake. An equity capital stake of 10 percent or more of the ordinary shares or voting power for an incorporated enterprise, or its equivalent for an unincorporated enterprise, is normally considered the threshold for control of assets (UNCTAD 2009).

Twinning. A framework through which organizations can work with their counterparts in a different country or region for mutual benefit through a direct exchange of national experiences of best practice. Twinning is normally

used as a mechanism for institutional and capacity strengthening to develop the administrative structures, human resources and management skills needed to manage or implement a specific action or project. Twinning can involve study visits and the exchange of experts, but it can also be conducted in the form of "eTwinning"—a web-based exchange of national experiences (EC 2008).

Vulnerability. The degree to which a system is susceptible to, and unable to cope with, adverse effects of climate change, including climate variability and extremes. Vulnerability is a function of the character, magnitude, and rate of climate change and variation to which a system is exposed; its sensitivity; and its adaptive capacity. Vulnerability increases with the magnitude of climate change or sensitivity; it decreases as adaptive capacity increases. Reducing vulnerability can happen through any combination of reduced magnitude of climate change, reduced exposure or increased adaptive capacity (IPCC 2001, 2007).



References

- Adoho, F., and Q. Wodon. 2014. "Perceptions of Climate Change, Weather Shocks, and Impacts on Households." In Q. Wodon, A. Liverani, G. Joseph and N. Bounoux, eds., *Climate Change and Migration: Evidence from the Middle East and North Africa*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Aguilar, L. n.d. "[Gender Indicators](#)." IUCN-Gender and Environment.
- Alkire, S., and A. Sumner. 2013. "[Multidimensional Poverty and the Post-2015 MDGs](#)." London: OPHI.
- Andria, V., H. Le, J. Gilman, J. Manda, P. Steele and Syaifullah. 2014. "[Towards Sustainable Development Financing in Indonesia: Country Brief](#)." UNDP and the Government of Indonesia.
- Ash, N., H. Blanco, C. Brown, K. Garcia, T. Henrichs, N. Lucas, C. Raudsepp-Hearne, R.D. Simpson, R. Scholes, T.P. Tomich, B. Vira and M. Zurek, eds. 2010. *Ecosystems and Human Well-Being: A Manual for Assessment Practitioners*. London: Island Press.
- [ASPIRE \(Atlas of Social Protection: Indicators of Resilience and Equity\)](#). Database.
- Bangladesh General Economics Division. 2012. *Bangladesh Climate Public Expenditure and Institutional Review*. Dhaka.
- Bird, N., T. Beloe, M. Hedger, J. Lee, K. Nicholson, M. O'Donnell, S. Gooty, A. Heikens, P. Steele, A. Mackay and M. Miller. 2012. "The Climate Public Expenditure and Institutional Review (CPEIR): A Methodology to Review Climate Policy, Institutions and Expenditure." Joint UNDP-ODI Working Paper.
- Booth, H., L. Simpson, M. Ling, O. Mohammed, C. Brown, K. Garcia and M. Walpole. 2012. *Lessons Learned from Carrying Out Ecosystem Assessments: Experiences from Members of the Sub-Global Assessment Network*. Cambridge: UNEP-WCMC.
- Brocklesby, M.A., and E. Hinshelwood. 2001. *Poverty and the Environment: What the Poor Say—An Assessment of Poverty-Environment Linkages in Participatory Poverty Assessments*. Swansea, UK: University of Wales Swansea, Centre for Development Studies.
- Brundtland, G., ed. 1987. *Our Common Future: Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development*.
- Buncle, A., A. Daigneault, P. Holland, A. Fink, S. Hook and M. Manley. 2013. *Cost-Benefit Analysis for Natural Resource Management in the Pacific: A Guide*. Suva, Fiji: SPREP/SPC/PIFS/Landcare Research and GIZ.
- Canuto, O., and M. Cavallari. 2012. "[Natural Capital and the Resource Curse](#)." *Economic Premise* 83.
- CARE. 2011. *Understanding Vulnerability to Climate Change: Insights from Application of CARE's Climate Vulnerability and Capacity Analysis (CVCA) Methodology*.
- Casson, A. 1999. "[The Hesitant Boom: Indonesia's Oil Palm Sub-Sector in an Era of Economic Crisis and Political Change](#)." Jakarta: Centre for International Forestry Research.
- CBD (Convention on Biological Diversity). 2011. "[Mainstreaming Biodiversity into National Sectoral and Cross-Sectoral Strategies, Policies, Plans and Programs](#)." Training Package Version 2.1, Module 3.
- CIFOR (Centre for International Forestry Research). 2006. *Decentralization of Forest Administration in Indonesia: Implications for Forest Sustainability, Economic Development and Community Livelihoods*.
- Cottrell, J., and K. Schlegelmilch. n.d. *Environmental Fiscal Reform: A Practice-Orientated Training for Policy Makers, Administration Officials, Consultants and NGO Representatives*. GIZ.



- Cotula, L. 2010. *Investment Contracts and Sustainable Development: How to Make Contracts for Fairer and More Sustainable Natural Resource Investments*. London: IIED.
- Dalal-Clayton, B., and S. Bass. 2009. *The Challenges of Environmental Mainstreaming: Experience of Integrating Environment into Development Institutions and Decisions*. International Institute for Environment and Development.
- DFID (Department for International Development). 2001. "Sustainable Livelihoods Guidance Sheets."
- DFID, EC, UNDP and World Bank (Department for International Development, European Commission, United Nations Development Programme and World Bank). 2002. *Linking Poverty Reduction and Environmental Management: Policy Challenges and Opportunities*.
- Dixon, J. A. 2008. "Setting Priorities for Improved Environmental Management: Putting Together the Lessons of the EEDP Course." Presentation. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Dixon, J.A., and P.B. Sherman. 1991. *Economics of Protected Areas: A New Look at Benefits and Costs*. East-West Centre: Island Press.
- Dollar, D., and A. Kraay. 2002. "Growth Is Good for the Poor." *Journal of Economic Growth* 7 (3): 195.
- Dufey, A., and M. Grieg-Gran. Forthcoming. "The Linkages between Project Finance and Sustainable Development." In Sheldon Leader and David Ong, eds., *Global Project Finance, Human Rights and Sustainable Development*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Economist. 2009. "[Economics A-Z Terms](#)."
- EC (European Commission). 2007. [Environmental Integration Handbook](#).
- . 2008. "Twinning for Development."
- FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations). 2000. "[Five Years after Beijing: Empowering Rural Women Remains a Challenge](#)." Press Release 00/13.
- . 2002. "[Land Tenure and Rural Development](#)." FAO Land Tenure Studies 3.
- . 2009. *State of the World's Forests 2009*. Annex II, Table 2: "[Forest Area and Area Change](#)."
- . 2010. "[What Is Contract Farming?](#)" Contract Farming Resource Centre.
- . 2011a. "[Food Security Communications Toolkit](#)."
- . 2011b. *The State of Food and Agriculture 2010–11. Women in Agriculture: Closing the Gender Gap for Development*.
- . n.d. "[Gender-Sensitive Indicators for Natural Resources Management](#)."
- Frankenberger, T. 1996. "Measuring Household Livelihood Security: An Approach for Reducing Absolute Poverty." Paper prepared for the Applied Anthropology Meetings, Baltimore, March.
- GenderCC—Women for Climate Justice. 2009. [Gender into Climate Policy: Toolkit for Climate Experts and Decision-makers](#).
- GEF GSP (Global Environment Facility Global Support Programme). 2005. [National Capacity Self-Assessment Resource Kit](#).
- . 2010. [National Capacity Self-Assessments: Results and Lessons Learned for Global Environmental Sustainability](#).
- GIZ (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit). 2013. [Environmental Fiscal Reform: Case Studies](#).
- Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh. 2012. "Perspective Plan of Bangladesh 2010–2021—Making Vision 2021 A Reality." Planning Commission.
- Government of Rwanda and UNDP-UNEP PEI (United Nations Development Programme—United Nations Environment Programme Poverty-Environment Initiative). 2006. "[Economic Analysis of Natural Resource Management in Rwanda](#)."
- Green Economy Coalition. 2012. [The Green Economy Pocketbook: The Case for Action](#). London: Green Economy Coalition.

- IFAD (International Fund for Agricultural Development). 2014. *The Multidimensional Poverty Assessment Tool: User's Guide*. Rome: IFAD.
- Haughton, J., and S.R. Khandker. 2009. *Handbook on Poverty + Inequality*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- IIED (International Institute for Environment and Development). 2013. "[Ten Steps to Biodiversity Mainstreaming: Tips for NBSAPs 2.0 and Beyond.](#)"
- IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change). 2001. "[Chapter 18: Adaptation to Climate Change in the Context of Sustainable Development and Equity.](#)" In IPCC, *Climate Change 2001: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. Contribution of Working Group II to the Third Assessment Report*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- . 2007. "[Appendix I: Glossary.](#)" In M.L. Parry, O.F. Canziani, J.P. Palutikof, P.J. van der Linden and C.E. Hanson, eds., *Climate Change 2007: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. Contribution of Working Group II to the Fourth Assessment Report*.
- . 2009. "[Glossary.](#)"
- ITTO (International Tropical Timber Organization). 2009. "[Partnership to Conserve Tropical Forests Launched.](#)" Press release. 9 October.
- Kaul, R., A. Heuty and A. Norman. 2009. *Getting a Better Deal from the Extractive Sector: Concession Negotiation in Liberia, 2006–2008*. Washington, DC: Revenue Watch Institute.
- Kraay, A. 2003. "[When Is Growth Pro-Poor? Evidence from a Panel of Countries.](#)" Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Lal, P.N., and P. Holland. 2010. *Economics of Resource and Environmental Project Management in the Pacific*. Gland, Switzerland: International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources.
- Lipton, M., and M. Ravallion. 1995. "Poverty and Policy." In J. Behrman and T.N. Srinivasen, eds., *Handbook of Development Economics*, vol. 3B. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Liu, P. 2009. *Certification in the Value Chain for Fresh Fruits: The Example of Banana Industry*. Rome: FAO.
- Malawi Government. 2011. *Malawi State of Environment and Outlook Report: Environment for Sustainable Economic Growth 2010*. Nairobi: United Nations Environment Programme.
- . 2014. "[Guidelines for the Preparation of the 2014/15 Budget.](#)" Lilongwe: Ministry of Finance.
- Marumo, D.S., N.M. Tselaesele, U. Batlang, G. Nthoiwa and R. Jansen. 2014. "[Poverty and Social Impact Analysis of the Integrated Support Programme for Arable Agriculture Development in Botswana.](#)" Working Paper No. 2. Gaborone, Botswana: UNDP-UNEP PEI.
- Millennium Ecosystem Assessment. 2005. *Ecosystems and Human Well-Being: Synthesis*. Washington, DC: Island Press.
- Mozambique Ministry for the Coordination of Environmental Affairs. 2012a. "[Environmental Economic Analysis of Natural Resources Management in Mozambique: Links between Poverty & Environment.](#)"
- . 2012b. "[Final Report: Public Environmental Expenditure Review.](#)"
- Nhantumbo, I., and A. Salomão. 2010. *Biofuels, Land Access and Rural Livelihoods in Mozambique*. London: IIED.
- Norwegian Ministry of Environment. 1994. "Report of the Symposium on Sustainable Consumption." Oslo.
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 1992. "[Good Practices for Environmental Impact Assessment of Development Projects.](#)"
- . 1997. "Glossary of Environment Statistics." Studies in Methods Series F, No. 67. Paris: OECD.
- . 2001. "Foreign Direct Investment and Sustainable Development." Paper presented at OECD Global Forum on International Investment, Mexico City, 26–27 November 2001.
- . 2005. *Environmental Fiscal Reform for Poverty Reduction. DAC Guidelines and Reference Series*.



- . 2006. *Applying Strategic Environmental Assessment: Good Practice Guidance for Development Co-operation*. DAC Guidelines and Reference Series.
- . 2007. *Promoting Pro-Poor Growth: A Practical Guide to Ex Ante Poverty Impact Assessment*.
- . 2009. *Assessing Environmental Management Capacity: Towards a Common Reference Framework*."
- . 2011. *Towards Green Growth*.
- Palmer, A., P. Steele, T. Beloe, Y. Taishi, R. Kohli, P. Kurukulasuriya, K. Baboyan, J. Manda and S. Pant. 2014. *Supporting Countries to Integrate Climate Change into Planning and Budgeting: A UNDP Approach*."
- Pearce, D., and R. Kerry Turner. 1989. *Economics of Natural Resources and the Environment*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- PEP (Poverty Environment Partnership). 2012. *Building an Inclusive Green Economy for All: Opportunities and Challenges for Overcoming Poverty and Inequality*.
- Perch, L., and R. Byrd. 2014. *A Case Study on the Mozambique Strategy for Gender, Environment and Climate Change*." Rio+ World Centre for Sustainable Development.
- Petkova, N., and N. Bird. 2008. "Public Environmental Expenditure within Multi-Year Budgetary Frameworks: Preliminary Findings." Presentation to OECD Task Team on Governance and Capacity Development for Natural Resource and Environmental Management.
- Pommier, L. 2009. *Management of Investment in Natural Resources in the Provinces and Operational Linkages between the Poverty Environment Initiative (UNDP/MPI) and the Sustainable Natural Resource Management and Productivity Enhancement Project (IFAD/ADB)*."
- Prüss-Üstün, A., and C. Corvalan. 2006. *Preventing Disease through Healthy Environments: Towards an Estimate of the Environmental Burden of Disease*. Paris: World Health Organization.
- Reuters. 2009. *Indonesia Applies for World Bank Forest CO₂ Scheme*." 4 March.
- RSPO (Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil). 2007. *RSPO Principles and Criteria for Sustainable Palm Oil Production*."
- Russi, D., and P. ten Brink. 2013. *Natural Capital Accounting and Water Quality: Commitments, Benefits, Needs and Progress. A Briefing Note*." *The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity (TEEB)*.
- Scandlyn, J. 2003. *Working Paper Guidelines*." Denver: University of Colorado Denver, Health and Behavioral Sciences.
- Seymour, F., C. Maurer and R. Quiroga. 2005. *Environmental Mainstreaming: Applications in the Context of Modernization of the State, Social Development, Competitiveness, and Regional Integration*." Inter-American Development Bank Working Paper.
- Shiva, V. 2005. *Earth Democracy: Justice, Sustainability, and Peace*. Cambridge, MA: South End Press.
- Sukhdev, P. 2009. "Costing the Earth." *Nature* 462 (7271): 277.
- Tanzania Vice President's Office. 2005. *The Development of Indicators of Poverty-Environment Linkages*."
- TEEB (The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity). 2010. *Mainstreaming the Economics of Nature. A Synthesis of the Approach, Conclusions and Recommendations of TEEB*.
- . 2011. *The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity in National and International Policy Making*. London: Earthscan.
- . 2013. *Guidance Manual for TEEB Country Studies*. Version 1.0.
- Thematic Consultation on Environmental Sustainability. 2013. *Breaking Down the Silos: Integrating Environmental Sustainability in the Post-2015 Agenda*.
- Thoenes, P. 2006. *Biofuels and Commodity Markets: Palm Oil Focus*." Rome: FAO, Commodities and Trade Division.

- UN (United Nations). 2010a. [The Millennium Development Goals Report](#).
- . 2010b. [Sustainable Development: From Brundtland to Rio 2012](#).
- . 2013. [The Millennium Development Goals Report 2013](#).
- UN-Habitat. 2010. [A Training Package: Improving Gender Equality and Grassroots Participation through Good Land Governance](#). Nairobi: United Nations.
- UNCSD (United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development). 2012. ["The Future We Want – Outcome Document."](#)
- UNCTAD (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development). 1999. [World Investment Report 1999: Foreign Direct Investment and the Challenge of Development](#). New York: United Nations.
- . 2004. ["Key Terms and Concepts in IIAs: A Glossary."](#)
- . 2006. [World Investment Report 2006: FDI from Developing and Transition Economies— Implications for Development](#). New York: United Nations.
- . 2008. [Investment Policy Review: Viet Nam](#). New York: United Nations.
- . 2009. [World Investment Report 2009: Transnational Corporations, Agricultural Production and Development](#).
- . 2010a. ["Foreign Direct Investment \(FDI\)."](#)
- . 2010b. ["Joint Venture."](#)
- UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). 2003. [Mainstreaming Gender in Water Management. A Practical Journey to Sustainability: A Resource Guide](#).
- . 2004. [Adaptation Policy Frameworks for Climate Change](#). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- . 2007. ["Capacity Assessment Methodology User's Guide."](#)
- . 2008. ["A Guide to the Vulnerability Reduction Assessment."](#) UNDP Working Paper.
- . 2009a. [Capacity Development: A UNDP Primer](#).
- . 2009b. [Resource Guide on Gender and Climate Change](#).
- . 2010. [The Path to Achieving the Millennium Development Goals: A Synthesis of Evidence from Around the World](#).
- . 2011a. ["Climate Change Fast Facts."](#)
- . 2011b. [Ensuring Gender Equity in Climate Change Financing](#).
- . 2011c. [Human Development Report 2011. Sustainability and Equity: A Better Future for All](#).
- . 2012. [Institutional and Context Analysis Guidance Note](#).
- . 2014. [Human Development Report 2014. Sustaining Human Progress: Reducing Vulnerabilities and Building Resilience](#).
- UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) Office of Communications. n.d. "Communicating for Results: Communications Toolkit." Available on the UNDP intranet.
- UNDP, UNCDF and UNEP (United Nations Development Programme, United Nations Capital Development Fund, United Nations Environment Programme). 2010. ["Local Governance and Climate Change."](#) Discussion Note.
- UNDP-UNEP PEI (United Nations Development Programme–United Nations Environment Programme Poverty-Environment Initiative). 2008. [Making the Economic Case: A Primer on the Economic Arguments for Mainstreaming Poverty-Environment Linkages into Development Planning](#).
- . 2009. ["Draft Institutional Analysis Report for Botswana."](#)
- . 2011a. ["The Economics of Land Degradation for the Agriculture Sector in Tajikistan: A Scoping Study."](#)
- . 2011b. [Enabling Local Success: A Primer on Mainstreaming Local Ecosystem-based Solutions to Poverty-Environment Challenges](#).



- . 2011c. [Mainstreaming Climate Change Adaptation into Development Planning: A Guide for Practitioners](#).
- . 2011d. [Managing Private Investment in Natural Resources: A Primer for Pro-Poor Growth and Environmental Sustainability](#).
- . 2012a. "Ecosystem services and poverty alleviation: A case study of land use in Oudomxay province." Policy brief.
- . 2012b. [PEI Annual Progress Report 2011](#).
- . 2013a. [PEI Annual Progress Report 2012: Transforming Institutions](#).
- . 2013b. [Stories of Change](#).
- . 2013c. "Support to smallholder arable farmers in Botswana: agricultural development or social protection? Results and policy implications from a Poverty and Social Impact Analysis." Policy brief.
- . 2014a. [Building Inclusive Green Economies: Stories of Change from the Poverty-Environment Initiative in Asia-Pacific](#).
- . 2014b. "Gender-Environment and Natural Resources Data and Indicator Rapid Assessment."
- . 2014c. [PEI Annual Progress Report 2013](#).
- . 2014d. "Rubaya: The Sustainable Village." Rwanda Fact Sheet.
- . 2014e. [Stories of Change from Africa](#).
- . n.d. "Evaluation environnementale stratégique."
- . n.d. "Revisão da Despesa Pública do Sector Ambiental, Moçambique, 2005–2010."
- . n.d. "Tanzania." Fact sheet.
- UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 1998. "Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters."
- UNEP (United Nations Environment Programme). 2004a. [Natural Allies: UNEP and Civil Society](#).
- . 2004b. [Women and the Environment](#).
- . 2007. [Multilateral Environment Agreement—Negotiator's Handbook](#).
- . 2008a. [What Is the "Green Economy"?](#)
- . 2013. [PROVIA Guidance on Assessing Vulnerability, Impacts and Adaptation to Climate Change](#).
- . 2014. [Towards a Global Map of Natural Capital: Key Ecosystem Assets](#).
- UNFCCC (United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change). 2012. [National Adaptation Plans: Technical Guidelines for the National Adaptation Plan Process](#).
- UN Women. 2014. "Extracting Equality—A Guide."
- . n.d. "Gender Responsive Budgeting."
- United Republic of Tanzania, UNDP and UNEP (United Nations Development Programme and United Nations Environment Programme). 2014. "Relevance and Effectiveness of Poverty and Environment Indicators from Mkukuta II and FYDP Monitoring Systems."
- USDA (United States Department of Agriculture). 2007. "Indonesia: Palm Oil Production Prospects Continue to Grow." Commodity Intelligence Report 31.
- . 2009. "Oilseeds: World Markets and Trade—October 2009." USDA Foreign Agricultural Service.
- Vogel, I. 2012. "Review of the Use of 'Theory of Change' in International Development." DFID.
- WAVES (Wealth Accounting and the Valuation of Ecosystem Services). 2012. "Moving Beyond GDP: How to Factor Natural Capital into Economic Decision Making." World Bank.
- WHO (World Health Organization). [Global Health Observatory Data Repository](#).

- World Bank. 2003. *A User's Guide to Poverty and Social Impact Analysis*.
- . 2004. "[Beyond Economic Growth: Glossary](#)."
- . 2005. *Environmental Fiscal Reform: What Should Be Done and How to Achieve It*.
- . 2006. "[Getting the Most for the Money—How Public Environmental Expenditure Reviews Can Help](#)."
- . 2007. "[What Is Pro-Poor Growth?](#)"
- . 2010. *World Development Report 2010: Development and Climate Change*.
- . 2011a. "[Environmental and Gender Impacts of Land Tenure Regularization in Africa Pilot: Evidence from Rwanda](#)." Policy Research Working Paper 5765.
- . 2011b. "[Open Budgets Portal—Tools and Resources](#)."
- . 2012a. "Filling the Data Gap on Gender in Rural Kenya." *Agriculture & Rural Development Notes* Issue 64.
- . 2012b. "[Poverty, Equity, and Sustainable Development Brief](#)."
- . 2013. "[Poverty and Social Impact Analysis: Integrating Gender into Poverty and Social Impact Analysis](#)." Guidance Note.
- . 2014a. "[Climate Change and Poverty: An Analytical Framework](#)." Policy Research Working Paper 7126.
- . 2014b. "[Reducing Climate-Sensitive Disease Risks](#)." World Bank Report No. 84956-GLB.
- . 2015. "[Country and Lending Groups](#)."
- World Bank, FAO and IFAD (World Bank, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations and International Fund for Agricultural Development). 2009. *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- World Bank and IFPRI (International Food Policy Research Institute). 2010. *Gender and Governance in Rural Services: Insights from India, Ghana, and Ethiopia*.
- WWF (World Wide Fund for Nature). 2015. "[Payments for Ecosystems Services](#)."
- Yaron, G., R. Mangani, J. Mlava, P. Kambewa, S. Makungwa, A. Mtethiwa, S. Munthali, W. Mgoola and J. Kazembe. 2011. "[Economic Analysis of Sustainable Natural Resource Use in Malawi](#)." Government of Malawi and UNDP-UNEP Poverty-Environment Initiative.



Photo credits:

Page 2 (left to right): UN/Fred Noy, UN/Eskinder Debebe, UN Women/Gaganjit Singh

Page 8 (left to right): IFAD/Fumiko Nakai, IFAD/Santiago Albert Pons, IFAD/G.M.B. Akash

Page 18 (left to right): IFAD/Nana Kofi Acquah, UN/Fred Noy, IFAD/Cristóbal Corral

Page 40 (left to right): FAO/Vasily Maximov, UNDP/Panida Charotok, IFAD/G.M.B. Akash

Page 52 (left to right): UNDP/Prashanth Vishwanathan, FAO/Paballo Thekiso, IFAD/Anwar Hossain

Page 66 (left to right): FAO/Sergey Kozmin, FAO/Ivo Balderi, UNDP

Page 78 (left to right): UNDP, UN Women/Gaganjit Singh, UNDP-UNEP PEI

Page 90 (left to right): Flickr Creative Commons, IFAD/G.M.B. Akash, UNDP/Saikat Mukherjee

Page 104 (left to right): iStock/Bartosz Hadyniak, FAO/Paballo Thekiso, UNDP



Belgian Development Cooperation



Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs (DANIDA)



European Union



German Cooperation



Irish Aid



Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs



Spanish Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Cooperation



Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency



UK Department for International Development



US Department of State



Empowered lives.
Resilient nations.

UNDP-UNEP Poverty-Environment Initiative
P.O. Box 30552 - 00100 Nairobi, Kenya
E-mail: facility.unpei@unpei.org
Website: www.unpei.org

