

Yi, Ilcheong; Nassali, Faridah; Lee, Zhen

Working Paper

Guidelines on the integrated approach to development projects in borderlands

UNRISD Working Paper, No. 2022-7

Provided in Cooperation with:

United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD), Geneva

Suggested Citation: Yi, Ilcheong; Nassali, Faridah; Lee, Zhen (2022) : Guidelines on the integrated approach to development projects in borderlands, UNRISD Working Paper, No. 2022-7, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD), Geneva

This Version is available at:

<https://hdl.handle.net/10419/273858>

Standard-Nutzungsbedingungen:

Die Dokumente auf EconStor dürfen zu eigenen wissenschaftlichen Zwecken und zum Privatgebrauch gespeichert und kopiert werden.

Sie dürfen die Dokumente nicht für öffentliche oder kommerzielle Zwecke vervielfältigen, öffentlich ausstellen, öffentlich zugänglich machen, vertreiben oder anderweitig nutzen.

Sofern die Verfasser die Dokumente unter Open-Content-Lizenzen (insbesondere CC-Lizenzen) zur Verfügung gestellt haben sollten, gelten abweichend von diesen Nutzungsbedingungen die in der dort genannten Lizenz gewährten Nutzungsrechte.

Terms of use:

Documents in EconStor may be saved and copied for your personal and scholarly purposes.

You are not to copy documents for public or commercial purposes, to exhibit the documents publicly, to make them publicly available on the internet, or to distribute or otherwise use the documents in public.

If the documents have been made available under an Open Content Licence (especially Creative Commons Licences), you may exercise further usage rights as specified in the indicated licence.

WORKING PAPER 2022-07

Guidelines on the integrated approach to development projects in borderlands

Ilcheong Yi

Faridah Nassali

With

Zhen Lee

December 2022

Prepared for the UNRISD project on:

DEEPEN: The Development-Environment-Peace Nexus in Borders and Borderlands

UNRISD working papers are posted online to stimulate discussion and to raise critical comments.



The United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD) is an autonomous research institute within the UN system that undertakes multidisciplinary research and policy analysis on the social dimensions of contemporary development issues. Through our work, we aim to ensure that social equity, inclusion and justice are central to development thinking, policy and practice.

UNRISD, Palais des Nations
1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland
Tel: +41 (0)22 9173060
info.unrisd@un.org
www.unrisd.org

Copyright © United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD)

This is not a formal UNRISD publication. The responsibility for opinions expressed in signed studies rests solely with their author(s), and availability on the UNRISD website (www.unrisd.org) does not constitute an endorsement by UNRISD of the opinions expressed in them. No publication or distribution of these papers is permitted without the prior authorization of the author(s), except for personal use.



The project is funded by the Korea International Cooperation Agency (KOICA).

Abstract

Despite a broad agreement on the importance and necessity of an integrated approach and some meaningful development of methods and tools for an integrated approach, comprehensive, practical and concrete guidance on how to plan, implement and evaluate an integrated approach-based project (IABP) is still lacking. These Guidelines aim to fill this gap by providing knowledge and information on how to design, implement and evaluate an IABP.

The Guidelines were developed to help practitioners understand the logical sequence and process of development projects that aim to achieve multiple goals (impacts), intermediate results (outcomes), and strategic objectives (long-term outcomes). They also enable deeper reflective analysis of the assumptions behind how and why changes in multiple sectors might happen as an outcome of a development project. The Guidelines can deepen understanding of stakeholders, project environment, scope, challenges, and the interdependencies of economic, social and environmental problems that the project aims to solve. Further, they systematically organize discussions among stakeholders, including project planners, implementers, beneficiaries and evaluators, to reflect on the values, perspectives and philosophies of change, development and transformation of society.

The Guidelines focus on the effective development and deployment of strategies for an integrated approach, as well as the identification and uses of execution tools and techniques. This focus also reflects the recent trends in project management standards, shifting from process-based to principle-based standards. Moving beyond the focus on the processes composed of consistent and predictable practices, the Guidelines provide guiding principles to support effective integrated project management, which can produce intended outcomes rather than the deliverables alone.

The target audience for these Guidelines includes planners, implementers and evaluators working on projects that have adopted an integrated approach, particularly in fragile and conflict-affected countries, borderlands or cross-border areas. Such regions usually involve cross-sectoral issues and objectives and goals related to peacebuilding (and state building in the case of some conflict-affected countries). The Guidelines may also be helpful to all international development and cooperation stakeholders who are interested in combining sectoral goals, projects and evaluation criteria at various levels of international development and cooperation processes—such as strategy building, project planning, programmes and project portfolios, and the evaluation of projects and programmes in terms of integrating the sustainable development goals (SDGs) and their targets.

Contents

Abstract.....	i
Contents.....	ii
Acronyms.....	iv
1. Introduction	1
1.1. Aims of the Guidelines	1
1.2. Audience of the Guidelines	2
2. Integrated Approach	3
2.1. Concepts and practices of integrated approach	3
2.2. What is the integrated approach at the project level?.....	6
2.3. Three types of integrated approach	7
2.4. Dimensions of integration at the project level.....	8
Visions and goals	8
Policy agendas	9
Policy instruments.....	11
Knowledge and skills	13
Processes	14
Project stakeholders	15
Geographical spaces	17
Monitor and evaluation.....	18
2.5. Instruments of integrated approaches.....	19
2.6. Successful factors of integrated approaches.....	23
2.7. When and how do we establish an integrated approach at the project level? ...	27
Does the integrated approach fit for purpose?.....	27
Understanding context is essential.....	28
Connecting strategic perspective with the management of the project	29
3. Borders and borderlands.....	29
3.1. Conceptualization of borders and borderlands.....	29
3.2. Definition and typology of borders and borderlands.....	32
3.2.1. Operational definitions of borders and borderlands	32
3.2.2. Diverse types of borders and borderlands.....	34
3.2.3. Attributes of borders and borderlands	38
4. Multidimensional Integrated Approach (MULIA)-based project in Borders and Borderlands	40
4.1. Features of MULIA-BP in borders and borderlands.....	40

- 4.2. Design of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands 46
 - 4.2.1. Assessing the context of MULIABP 48
 - 4.2.2. Situation analysis 53
 - 4.2.3. Setting goals and objectives 56
 - 4.2.4. Assessment of organizational capacity 58
- 4.3. Implementation of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands 59
 - 4.3.1. Identify various dimensions of intervention of MULIABP 60
 - 4.3.2. The establishment of governance for MULIABP 62
- 4.4. Evaluation of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands 63
- 4.5. Challenges and opportunities of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands 66
 - Challenges 66
 - Opportunities 66
- 5. (Provisional) Checklist of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands 67
 - 5.1. Checking the initiating and planning processes 68
 - 5.1.1. Checking the environment of MULIABP in borders and borderlands 68
 - 5.1.2. Checking the planning of MULIABP in borders and borderlands 69
 - 5.2. Checking the executing process 79
 - 5.3. Checking, Monitoring & Controlling processes 82
 - 5.4. Checking closure and ex-post evaluation 84
- Bibliography 86
- Interviewees 100

Acronyms

AHP	Analytical hierarchical process
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
EU	European Union
FGM	female genital mutilation
GPS	Global Positioning System
HD	Humanitarian-Development
HDP	Humanitarian-Development-Peace
HR	Human resource
IABP	Integrated approach-based project
ICT	Information and communication technologies
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INGO	International non-governmental organization
IPM	Integrated Project Management
KOICA	Korea International Cooperation Agency
LRRD	Linking relief rehabilitation and development
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MULIA	Multidimensional integrated approach
MULIA-BP	MULIA-based project
NGO	Non-governmental organizations
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PBA	Program-based approach
PPP	Policy Practice Perception
PVDP	Peace Village Development Projects
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SMS	Short Message Service
UN	United Nations
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
US EPA	United States Environmental Protection Agency
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UXO	Unexploded ordnance
WASH	Water, sanitation and health
WHO	World Health Organization
WTO	World Trade Organization

1. Introduction

1.1. Aims of the Guidelines

As awareness about the importance of an integrated approach in achieving the SDGs grows, an increasing number of international development and cooperation agencies, including UN agencies, international and regional development banks and multilateral and bilateral donors, claim they take integrated approaches to develop programmes and projects. Staff on the ground, mainly project managers and team members, are also increasingly interested in either setting up integrated approach-based projects or incorporating the integrated approach into the existing projects.

Despite a broad agreement on the importance and necessity of an integrated approach and some meaningful development of methods and tools for an integrated approach, comprehensive, practical and concrete guidance on how to plan, implement and evaluate the integrated approach-based project (IABP) is still lacking. It is partly due to the lack of interest of academics and policy experts in articulating managerial recommendations. Although they actively engage in discussions on the virtue of integration in many ways, they rarely provide us with detailed knowledge and information on how to establish and manage IABP (Denicol 2022).

Filling the gap between the rich discourse on the necessity of integration or integrated approach and the lack of guidance on planning, managing, and evaluating IABP, this Guidelines aims to provide knowledge and information on how to design, implement and evaluate IABP. Specifically, it aims to help understand the logical sequence and process of a development project which aims to achieve multiple goals (impacts), intermediate results (outcomes), and strategic objectives (long-term outcomes). And the Guidelines also aims to enable us to conduct a deeper reflective analysis of the assumptions of how and why changes in multiple sectors might happen as an outcome of a development project. The Guidelines can help deepen understanding of stakeholders, project environment, scope, challenges and interdependence of economic, social and environmental problems the project aims to solve. Further, it systematically organizes discussions amongst stakeholders, including project planners, implementers, beneficiaries and evaluators, to reflect on the values, perspectives and philosophies of change, development and transformation of society.

The Guidelines focuses on the effective development and deployment of strategies for integrated approach as well as the identification and uses of execution tools and techniques (Anderson and Merna 2003). This focus of the Guidelines also reflects the recent trends in project management standards, shifting from process-based to principle-based standards (Project Management Institute 2021). Moving beyond the focus on the processes composed of consistent and predictable practices, the Guidelines provides guiding principles to support effective integrated project management, which can produce intended outcomes rather than the deliverables alone.

To provide comprehensive and practical guidance to planners, implementers and evaluators of international development project (herein project) planners, this Guidelines suggests how to renovate existing tools, concepts and theories, such as theories associated with transformative social policies addressing multiple dimensions of development, reflective theories on

empowerment and change, programme theories, theory of change, and Logical Framework Analysis etc. by incorporating values and principles of an integrated approach into them.

The Guidelines suggests a multidimensional integrated approach (MULIA) through a structured literature review of development theories and concepts, project planning, implementation, evaluation and interviews with international development agencies, including UN agencies and bilateral donor agencies. MULIA is a specific approach to designing, implementing and evaluating an integrated approach to projects, termed a MULIA-based project (MULIA-BP).

The MULIA consists of 6 dimensions found throughout the “project management processes of initiating, planning, executing, monitoring and controlling, and closing” (Project Management Institute 2004, 8) or plan, implementation, and evaluation processes which have been identified through the analysis of various development projects, in particular those in and on borders and borderlands. It identifies key relationships between these dimensions that connect organizational and project-level dynamics. The Guidelines introduces and explains various concepts and theories specific to processes and dimensions of a project to deepen understanding of the MULIA and facilitate the application of the MULIA in planning and implementing projects, particularly in borderlands or associated with borders. In addition, the Guidelines provides checklists to help to design, implement and evaluate the various integrated dimensions of the MULIA-BP in borderlands or associated with cross-border.

In particular, the Guidelines offers a list of questions to assess the level of “integratedness” of a MULIA-BP in borderlands or associated with borders (which indicates the level or extent of integration at the project level)¹. The scores of the Likert scale of different aspects of integratedness can also be aggregated or averaged to indicate the overall level of integratedness of the project or the levels of integratedness of individual dimensions such as outcomes, outputs, and activities.

1.2. Audience of the Guidelines

The targeted audiences of the Guidelines are planners, implementers and evaluators who are working on the projects based on an integrated approach, mainly focusing on fragile and conflict-affected countries or borderlands or cross-borders, which usually involve cross-sectoral issues and the objectives and goals related to peacebuilding (and state building in the case of some conflict-affected countries). The Guidelines can also be helpful to all international development and cooperation stakeholders who are interested in how to combine sectoral goals, projects and evaluation criteria at various levels of international development and cooperation processes such as strategy building, planning of projects, programmes and portfolios of projects², and evaluation of projects and programmes with a focus on the integration of the SDGs and their targets.

¹ In this Guidelines, the noun “integration” describes the process of combining or coordinating separate elements so as to provide a harmonious, interrelated rather than the actual state of being integrated. The noun “integratedness” refers to the actual state of being integrated.

² A portfolio refers to a collection of projects, programmes, sub portfolios, and operations managed as a group to achieve strategic objectives. Programmes are group within a portfolio and are comprised of subprogrammes, projects or other work that are managed in a coordinated fashion in support of the portfolio (Project Management Institute 2013, 3).

2. Integrated Approach

There have been continuous calls for an integrated approach at conferences, in papers, books, and reports of international development studies and practices. The SDGs also emphasize an integrated approach as a guiding principle, which is indispensable to achieving multiple goals (impacts), strategic objectives (long-term outcomes), and intermediate results (outcomes). Previous research on integrated approaches, such as integrated planning at the national or international level (PAGE 2016); and mapping relationships between sectors that offer opportunities for the use of integrated approaches (Petruney 2016), also reflects this call for an integrated approach to achieving the SDGs. Characteristics of modern governance, such as complex networks of inter-organizational actors and various functions and activities contracted out or devolved to external actors, also renewed interest in the integrated approach (Howlett 2000).

Surprisingly, however, little has been done or much has failed to achieve an integrated approach, considering the monotonous repetition of the call for an integrated approach. It is partly due to the lack of clarity about what an integrated approach means at the project level and how it should be designed and implemented. In particular, there has been no tool that helps translate theories on the relationship between multiple goals and objectives into integrated approach-based project design and implementation. To clarify the meaning of an integrated approach at the project level, this section introduces various definitions, descriptions and types of an integrated approach. It explains the evolution of concepts and practices of an integrated approach in international development discourses and practices at various levels, such as modes and processes of integration at various levels, from government policies to individual international development and cooperation projects.

2.1. Concepts and practices of integrated approach

The evolution of concepts and practices of the integrated approach can be observed in two strands: *discussions on academic subjects* and *development discourses and practices*. These discourses and practices in these two strands develop separately but affect each other by lending and borrowing key concepts and theories.

In academic research, the term integrated approach indicates the research's acceptance of pluralism of theories and concepts and the intention to mobilize and merge different theoretical approaches within the discipline or multiple disciplinary knowledge framework. Despite the difference in terms of the approaches and disciplines' conceptual and theoretical frameworks, academic research emphasizing and highlighting integrated approaches shares the concern about a lack of appreciation of the interdependence and interrelations among the variables and various aspects of the research endeavour. However, apart from using the integrated approach as an adage to indicate the purpose or intention of the research, not many academic works have addressed the questions of what an integrated approach is and how to design and implement research based on an integrated approach.

However, the integrated approach's intellectual origins can be found in some academic disciplines. And some of them can offer insights on how to design and manage an integrated approach to development projects. For instance, policy integration has been a long-standing issue in policy studies since the consequence of one policy often conflicts with other policy goals or

the exclusive use of specialized policy measures would cause unintended negative impacts or policy failures (Howlett and Ramesh 2014). The proponents of the integrated approach emphasize that the success of policies in achieving specific goals, for instance, climate change, depends on how well policies are integrated with other sectoral policies (Van Asselt, Rayner, and Persson 2015). How to solve trade-offs and create synergies with other policies has been a critical question in the development of diverse approaches to policy integration (Meijers and Stead 2004, 1).

Various theories and approaches in organizational studies also deal with an integrated approach in terms of inter-organizational cooperation. They provide arguments for the benefits of an integrated approach, albeit with some conditionalities. For instance, the transaction cost approach argues that cooperation between organizations, a form of an integrated approach, is positively associated with organizational innovation if and only if the organizations establish a well-functioning governance structure (Williamson 1991; Zajac and Olsen 1993). And the resource-based approach argues that organizations can obtain valuable resources through inter-organizational cooperation (Peteraf 1993; Barney 2001). Information sharing through inter-organizational cooperation may also increase organizational competencies through inter-organizational learning (Mowery, Oxley, and Silverman 1996). Access to resources and information, however, can be hindered if the networks of cooperating organizations are too dense and the absorptive capacity of the organizations is weak (Pouwels and Koster 2017; Gulati 2007; Lane and Lubatkin 1998; Gerke et al. 2017).

In development discourses and practices, although policy attention to integrated approach has always been in development discourse in one form and another, the origin of integrated approach in policy discourse can be traced back to the early 1970s when the first global models or perspectives on the environmental degradation such as the one used for the Limits to Growth (Meadows 1972, van Beek et al. 2020). Although criticized for the simplicity of theories and lack of data on the impact of an integrated approach, the integrated approach and its discourse continuously emphasized the interconnectedness of different dimensions of human development and environmental impact. Scholars and policymakers working on different dimensions of human development and environment shared insights and knowledge continuously. They formed a community of scholars who emphasized the importance of integrated or inter-disciplinary research (Meadows, Richardson, and Bruckmann 1982, van Beek et al. 2020).

International organizations have also long emphasized the importance of the integrated approach. Within the UN system, the WHO called for an integrated approach as early as 1979 when it adopted its Health for All Strategy, which eventually led to the European Union's (EU) adoption of the Health in All Policies approach in 2006 (Ollila 2010). The approach to social determinants of health is also one of the efforts of the WHO to make the health system integrated (Cook, Zhang, and Yi 2013).

In the 1990s, the ILO promoted policy portfolios with coherent cross-sectoral policy instruments and goals, including policies related to education and training, finance and health, and the World Bank promoted the integration of environmental policy with other sectoral policies, which has become known as environmental mainstreaming (Tosun and Lang 2017).

In 1991, OECD's Development Assistance Committee introduced the concept of policy coherence which gained currency in international development cooperation (OECD 2009, European Commission 2007). The discussions on the concept of policy coherence have mainly focused on creating synergies between aid and non-aid policies. Still, they also provided the basis of the mutually reinforcing targets across a wide range of policy domains in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Carbone 2016, Sachs 2012). In this framework of the MDGs, the development policy coherence concept also began to be used in assessments of regulatory reforms implemented in developing countries (Tosun and Lang 2017)³.

Integration was also emphasized in the context of donors and recipients too. For instance, the 2002 Monterrey Consensus and the 2003 Rome Declaration on Harmonization emphasized the integration of donors' aid with recipient countries' priorities and systems, including their budget, programme, and project planning cycles and public expenditure and financial management systems (OECD 2003).

Various organizational frameworks of global governance mechanisms focusing on integration and coordination also exist at the international level. They include a hierarchical and integrated organization such as the Chief Executive Board (CEB) for Coordination of the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and UN Resident Coordinator (UN RC) system, a high-level advisory group such as the UN Secretary-General's Advisory Body on Water and Sanitation, coordination bodies such as Disaster Assessment and Coordination – Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNDAC-OCHA)⁴, the UN-Water, the UN-Oceans, the UN-Energy, the UN Forum on Forests, and the UN Environment Management Group (UN EMG) (Schubert and Gupta 2013; Mahn 2013). They are focusing on national-level coordination rather than an integrated approach-based project.

The 2030 Agenda and the SDGs adopted in 2015 particularly emphasize the importance of an integrated approach in various contexts (Le Blanc 2015). Firstly, it highlights that the goals and targets are “integrated and indivisible” and emphasizes the importance of the balance between the three (economic, social and environmental) dimensions of sustainable development (United Nations 2015, 3 para 5). And then, it highlights the “challenges and commitments identified... are interrelated and call for integrated solutions” and stresses the “importance of system wide strategic planning, implementation and reporting in order to ensure coherent and integrated support to the implementation” of the SDGs” (United Nations 2015, 34 para.88). It is considered

³ In the context of national development, the concepts with similar definitions and contents to policy coherence such as holistic government and joined-up government have emerged in the UK but spread in other countries such as Norway and Australia since the 1990s and the 2000s respectively. Both concepts also emphasize the more integrative policy instruments and processes which can eliminate organizational redundancies and a lack of resources (Tosun and Lang 2017).

⁴ To address complex emergencies resulted from man-made structural problems or natural disasters, various UN mechanisms for coordination have been established such as UNDAC-OCHA (UN Disaster Assessment and Coordination – Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs). Since they mainly respond to sudden-onset emergencies or are oriented to emergency response mission, they are working with pre-defined methods for establishing coordination structures, and for organizing and facilitating assessment and information management during the first phase of a sudden-onset disaster or emergency(OCHA, 2022). The modus operandi of these emergency response systems is different from that of an integrated approach based project which has longer-term perspective on development.

an acknowledgement that understanding possible synergies and trade-offs between the sustainable development goals and targets and based on that understanding, establishing an integrated approach were crucial to achieving the SDGs. An integrated approach can help enhance the efficient allocation of resources, avoid adverse side effects of actions to achieve targets in one area on the realization of targets in other areas, and ultimately support more balanced development trajectories across various dimensions of sustainable development (United Nations 2018).

2.2. What is the integrated approach at the project level?

This Guidelines focuses on the integrated approach to development projects⁵, which refers to research and actions to identify and address cross-cutting issues that transcend the established boundaries of policy field, domain or sector⁶. People who will be benefited or be affected by the project play a fundamental role in informing and shaping the research and action of identifying issues that may or may not be cross-cutting. To what extent people are concerned about specific issues can be identified in many ways. What should be noted is that the issues people are so concerned about may not be the same issues routinely being acted on by the same people.

The integrated approach to development projects is composed of four key elements: understanding and identifying interdependencies among policy domains, issues, interests, stakeholders and beneficiaries; intention to attain multiple objectives of policy domains; creation of means of cooperation and coordination between different considerations, issues, and stakeholders across policy domains; and creation of the instrument of policy appraisals such as impact assessments for measuring the level of integratedness of the project and achievement of multiple objectives and goals.

Diverse terms and expressions have been employed to refer to or highlight the importance of integrated approaches in different contexts. They include: breaking down silos between agencies, sectors and policies; policy coherence; holist government and governance, joined-up government, the whole of government; horizontal governance: co-construction and co-production; cross-cutting policy-making; concerted decision-making; policy consistency; policy coordination; policy mainstreaming; inter-organizational cooperation and coordination; nexus approach; boundary-spanning policy regime approach; collaboration; intergovernmental management and network management; One Programme Approach; Humanitarian-Development (HD) or Humanitarian-Development-Peace (HDP) nexus; Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR); linking relief rehabilitation and development (LRRD); WASH; the “resilience” agenda; and the embedding of conflict sensitivity across responses (Meijers and Stead 2004, Nunan, Campbell, and Foster 2012, Visseren-Hamakers 2015, Trein 2017, Fanning and Fullwood-Thomas 2019)⁷.

⁵ Development projects vary in size, financing methods, the size of internal and external stakeholders, and thematic focus. They consist of a single project to address a specific problem or a series of projects targeted at addressing several problems. They may demand integrated approach or just a specific approach depending on the nature of the project.

⁶ In this report, policy field, sector or domain is used interchangeably. Policy domain or sector, as a policy subsystem, refers to relatively stable actor coalitions, including the institutions they installed in the pursuit of their shared interests (Trein, Meyer, and Maggetti 2018) (Weible and Sabatier 2018).

⁷ Since some of the terms such as holist government and joined-up government have been coined and used as political terms, they rarely provide analytical leverages (Peters 1998)

At the project level, “program-based approach (PBA)” or “harmonization” are often used to express the intentions to avoid overlap of projects and strengthen the linkages between projects. What distinguishes an integrated approach from PBA or harmonization is that an integrated approach proactively combines goals and objectives within a project or between projects to create synergies, moving beyond the avoidance of overlap or harmonizing goals and objectives between projects. An integrated approach, therefore, aims at producing synergistic results, which are greater than the total results achieved by each project separately.

Seeking a synergistic way of combining relevant goals and objectives also distinguishes an integrated approach from the mere incorporation of gender, environment and human rights concerns in the project through the gender checklist or environment checklist that aims to do less harm than good for these dimensions.

2.3. Three types of integrated approach

At the project level, three ideal-typical types of integrated approaches can be observed: integration as cooperation, integration as knowledge and skill transfer, and integration as synergy-making.

In the case of *integration as cooperation*, experts and practitioners of different policy sectors are assembled to solve a particular development problem by bringing specific policy or sectoral expertise with them. Many joint programmes or partnerships between UN agencies for the project demonstrate integration as cooperation between experts and practitioners of different policy sectors.

Box 1. An Example of integration as cooperation: UNFPA-UNICEF Joint Programme on the Elimination of Female Genital Mutilation

UNFPA-UNICEF Joint Programme on the Elimination of Female Genital Mutilation was one of the largest joint programmes of UN agencies at the global level, which started in 2008. It harnesses the complementary expertise of the two agencies, with governments and often in close collaboration with grass-roots community organizations and other key stakeholders, backed by the latest social science research. They focused on establishing and strengthening legal and policy frameworks banning female genital mutilation (FGM), establishing a national coordination mechanism to engage all actors at the national level systematically, facilitating community-led engagement through education, dialogue, and consensus-building, and providing appropriate and quality services, and promoting advocacy and awareness outreach. It has systematically integrated complementary interventions of diverse agencies and actors, which leads to building allies working towards eliminating the practice of FGM as its strategic approach.

Source: UNFPA 2022

Several organizational, managerial and administrative questions are addressed to establish the setting for integration as cooperation. They include:

- What levels of practitioners and experts should be assembled?
- In what forms a team of teams should be established?
- What relative weight should be given to each team when controversial issues arise, and who will determine the weight?

A team-oriented integrated approach is one of the main examples of integration as cooperation and planning is a central element of this team-oriented integrated approach. The planner draws on all relevant knowledge, skills, methods, data, and information from different policy sectors to come up with comprehensive planning to attain multiple goals (impacts), strategic objectives (long-term outcomes), and intermediate results (outcomes) in planning (Chapin 2012, Altshuler 1965). And the practitioners and experts in their policy sectors contribute to making an integrated solution.

Integration through knowledge and skill transfer refers to the application of assumptions, concepts, methods and theories of changes that have been applied only to one policy sector to another to come up with solutions to developmental problems. Public-private partnerships or partnerships between different thematic fields, such as environment and economic development, can be examples. To facilitate this integration, supporting mechanisms should be in place to help practitioners and experts learn each other's assumptions, concepts, methods and theories of changes in solving problems. This knowledge-transfer-oriented integration is particularly appealing to experts and practitioners who are interested in and excited by this integrated approach and those who are sensitive to the limits of their own expertise in solving problems. Through knowledge and skill transfer, experts and practitioners can strengthen the capacity to apply the methods and skills to other policy sectors and change concepts and models to include variables found outside their own policy sectors.

The *integration as synergy-making* can be produced by well-designed and implemented integration of goals, objectives and activities of a policy field or sector into those of other policy sectors. They are often observed in the efforts of organizations from different policy domains to unify or synchronize the objectives and activities of multiple policy fields and sectors. The idea behind integration as synergy making, which is the highest level of integration, is often found in a new model of development that can be economically, socially and environmentally sustainable in the longer term. And integration as synergy-making can be achieved only if economic, social and environmental policies are synergistically integrated.

These three types of integration often co-exist, albeit with different weights and emphases. Well-balanced integration of these three types contributes to achieving multiple SDGs, particularly those related to people, the planet and prosperity or social, environmental and economic goals.

2.4. Dimensions of integration at the project level

Integrated approaches create synergies within and across the following dimensions of the project.

Visions and goals

The visions and goals of the project have two sub-dimensions: source and substance. There are two sources of visions and goals: internal and external. The internal source of the visions and

goals is the project managers and team members or donor institution to which they belong. They establish the visions and goals of the project by reflecting knowledge on the context where they are situated and the various sectoral needs of the target beneficiaries at which they aim. The external source of the visions and goals of the project are external parties or environments. Globally agreed development goals and visions pursued by external funders can be examples. In reality, the visions and goals of internal sources often reflect those of external sources.

The substance of visions and goals refers to what visions and goals imagine as desirable conditions and aspire to achieve. Although all the parties involved in the projects have visions and goals to improve the livelihood and conditions of people in social, economic, environmental and peace dimensions, visions and goals can be diverse or sometimes even contradictory to each other⁸. The project integrates visions and goals and aligns the goals and visions of the project manager and team members with each other to make a synergistic relationship between the visions and goals of the project manager and team members. Successfully aligned or synthesized visions and goals motivate project managers and team members to commit to completing the steps or tasks necessary to move toward these aligned or synergized visions and goals (Berg 2015).

Since society is a system in which all political, economic, social and cultural factors are related to each other to create, reproduce and sometimes resolve developmental issues, integrated approaches, particularly those for development project management, take into account diverse goals that are interdependent with each other. Since, depending on the contexts, relationships between some specific visions and goals are much more interdependent, i.e. some specific causal sequences are more prominent than other sets of goals and visions, the integrated approach tends to focus on the goals and visions constituting stronger relationships or more prominent causal relations while taking into account others.

The highest level of integration of visions and goals is the one that systematically connects seemingly incompatible or contradictory visions and goals, such as environmental policy integration which connects economic competitiveness, social development and environmental protection to ensure sustainable development (Jordan and Lenschow 2010).

Policy agendas

Policy agendas are the set of issues to which political actors are paying serious attention at any given time (Kingdon 1984). In the development cooperation context, they are the issues to which international development organizations such as multilateral or bilateral agencies are paying serious attention. Since, in the SDGs context, all those issues to which these development agencies are paying serious attention correspond to the SDGs and their targets, the list of SDGs and their targets can be used as the list of policy agendas of the international development cooperation. Integrating policy agenda at the project level means identifying linkages among the

⁸ Those goals and targets emphasizing harmony with nature and to protect the planet from degradation with specific targets of the Goals 6,12,13,14 and 15 appear at risk of contradiction with the other goals for continued global economic growth equivalent to 3% per year as outline in Goal 8 as a method for achieving human development objectives (Hickel 2019).

SDGs and/or their targets and translating these linked SDGs and their targets into the project's objectives.

Box 2. Linkages between the SDGs

One of the aims of establishing the SDGs is to foster the integration of sustainability, address the current and forthcoming stakeholder needs, and ensure a better and sustainable future for all by balancing the development in economic, social and environmental dimensions. Various researchers have suggested mutual relationships or linkages between the SDGs. Through the method of statistical correlation of research contributions assessing potential relationships between the SDGs, Fonseca et al. (2020) argued that No poverty (SDG1) and Good health and well-being (SDG3) have synergistic relationships with most of the other goals and Affordable and clean energy (SDG7) has significant relationships with other SDGs (e.g. No poverty(SDG1), Zero Hunger (SDG2), Good health and well-being (SDG3), Decent work and economic growth (SDG8), Climate Action (SDG13). They also found a moderate negative correlation between SDG7 and Responsible consumption and production (SDG12), which is the goal strongly associated with trade-offs. International Science Council's Guide to SDG Interactions (ICSU 2019) presented information on target-level interactions for four SDGs. It found evidence of 50 positive interactions for SDG2 (Zero hunger), 81 positive interactions for SDG3 (Good health and well-being), 46 positive interactions for SDG7 (Affordable and clean energy) and 61 positive interactions for SDG14 (Life below water). It also identified a set of potential constraints and conditionalities among targets in SDG2, SDG3, SDG7 and SDG14 that require coordinated policy interventions to protect the vulnerable, ensure equity, and manage competing demands over natural resources to support sustainable development. The 2019 Global Social Development Report of the UN (United Nations 2019) found the most significant relationships in terms of synergies in the following SDGs. SDG1, 2, and 3; SDG3 and 8; SDG6 and 12; SDG1,2,3,7,8 and 13; SDG1 and 8; SDG3 and 11; SDG6 and 12; SDG13 and 15; SDG1, 2,8 and 14; and SDG1,2,8,13,14,15. It also identified various trade-offs, and the most significant trade-offs have been found in the following SDGs: SDG2 (Zero Hunger), 6 (Clean water and sanitation) and 15 (Life on land); SDG6(Celan water and sanitation) and 7 (Affordable and clean energy); SDG13 (Climate action) and 14 (Life below water).

Miola et al. (2019) reviewed 200 documents on the interlinkages, interactions, trade-offs, synergies, co-benefits, and externalities of SDGs found in Scopus and Google Search between 2015 and 2019 to identify the linkages between the SDGs. Through the analysis, they created five colour dashboards indicating five nuances in terms of synergies between the goals and targets: Synergy, Trade-off, Strong Synergy, Strong Trade-off, and Ambiguity. (Table for this can be found at

https://public.tableau.com/app/profile/steve.borchardt/viz/Dashboards_115/Story1)

Some caveats should be considered when reading this review. Firstly, although this literature addressed all 17 SDGs, some, for instance, SDG6 and SDG14, showed better coverage than others, for instance, SDG16 and SDG 17. Secondly, while the literature sufficiently covers the goal level, the targets are not well covered. There are numerous targets whole potential linkages with other targets or goals that have not been addressed yet in the reviewed literature. Thirdly, the research finds literature focuses more on identifying potential synergies than trade-offs. Finally, most of the literature addressed the SDGs in a specific geographical context. Therefore, the outcome of this research on interlinkages between the SDGs should not be understood as universally applicable to any context.

For the project planners targeting a specific area, it is suggested to review and analyse literature addressing that area or country of which that area is part.

Source: Fonseca, Domingues, and Dima 2020, Miola et al. 2019

Policy instruments

Policy instruments are the techniques and tools used by the governing authorities (in the context of a project, project managers and team members) to promote particular policies to achieve a predefined set of goals and objectives of the project (Hettiarachchi and Kshourad 2019). Many policy instruments have been and can be used to achieve the goals and objectives of development projects. These instruments are broadly categorized into three kinds in accordance with the strength of the authority or imposing power of the project managers and team members on the beneficiaries. They are: policy instruments based on command and control; policy instruments based on the market; policy instruments based on volunteerism. In reality, policy instruments with features of multiple categories of these three exist. For instance, policy instruments based on command and control often support the functions of market-based policy instruments and seek some level of behavioural change or voluntary participation (Martínez, Ebenhack, and Wagner 2019). Sometimes, a policy agenda might be addressed by completely different instruments run by different government departments or agencies (Dowding, Hindmoor, and Martin 2015). Different departments and agencies redefine policy agendas differently and have different portfolios of policy instruments to achieve them. The task of those who design and implement an integrated approach-based project is to understand the implications of the different redefinitions of policy agendas by different agencies and departments and identify ways to align different policy instruments of similar or different agencies and departments. National economic planning of the West and developing countries in the 1960s and the 70s, which adjusted various policy instruments to diversified economic and social structures, would be one of the examples of an integrated approach to align various policy instruments.

Box. 3 Example of categorization of major policy instruments for fostering energy efficiency

Categorization and Summary of the Major Policy Instruments

	Policy Instrument	Summary	Example	Positive Attributes	Negative Attributes
Command and control	Mandated minimum efficiency standards	Mandate minimum efficiency standards for appliances, vehicles, and aircraft	Corporate Average Fuel Economy Standards in the United States	Outcomes allow for flexibility and promotes innovation	The minimum often becomes the maximum
	Building codes	Mandate minimum requirements for efficiency for new buildings	National Energy Code of Canada for Buildings	Standards are generally clear, adoption of 3rd party standards by reference allows for continuous updates	Often covers only new buildings, which is a small number, increases the purchase price

	Highway speed limits	Maximum speed limit based on efficiency	The former national speed limit of 55 mph in the United States	Easily enforceable, a side benefit is reduced traffic deaths	Unpopular
	Mandated labelling and information disclosure	Specified energy information required on visible labels for consumers	Canada's EnerGuide program	Provide easy-to-understand comparative information	Modifying mandatory labels difficult and time-consuming
Market-based	Taxes, tax credits, and tax deductions	Increasing or decreasing taxes to affect the purchase or operation costs of products or actions	Carbon tax	Greater flexibility, modifies behaviour more efficiently, easy to comply	An unpopular approach at the consumer level
	Rebates, subsidies, and grants	Alternative mechanisms to reduce purchase costs for energy-efficient products	Efficiency Maine rebates for installing energy-efficient ductless heat pumps	Provides economic incentives to customers who may not otherwise purchase a product	Not sufficient for lower-income households. It does not address the split-incentive problem
	Tradable allowances	Monetizes allowances for emissions that then can be bought, sold, or traded	The EU's Carbon Emissions trading program	Fosters innovation, generally the least-cost approach	If priced too low, the program will not work
	Time of use pricing	Uses pricing to promote shifting of demand to consume less energy during peak demand	The United Kingdom's Flexricity program	Consumers can still use energy; low-cost solution to modify the demand curve	Reduces consumer flexibility
	Education	Increasing awareness and providing knowledge to be more efficient	Idaho Power Corporation's 30 simple ways to save energy	Relatively low cost to implement	Generally low effectiveness
Voluntary	Default choice architecture	Nudging to socially desirable action using preferable default choice	Computer manufacturers select energy efficiency as default choice for when a computer enters standby	Voluntary, low cost, retains choice	Unintended consequences, success spotty

Voluntary consumer labeling	Provide valuable energy consumption information for consumers to assess and compare	The Energy Star labeling program	Provide easy-to-understand comparative information, can foster innovation	Energy information is not among top factors for most consumers
Technical assistance	Provides expert technical information and direct assistance	The Better Homes Alliance in the United States	Cost-effective approach for information diffusion	Small and medium communities and businesses generally underserved
Industry challenges and voluntary agreements	Voluntary challenges to industry to develop or implement energy efficiency	US EPA's Green Lights program to switch to more efficient lighting	Low cost to administer, allows for maximum flexibility, not punitive	Generally limited in fostering innovation, the nonbinding nature of voluntary agreements reduces effectiveness

Source: Martínez, Ebenhack, and Wagner 2019.

Knowledge and skills

Project management should consider different organizational channels or mechanisms to integrate knowledge and skills relevant to the project by which project managers and team members can explore, identify, organize and synthesize ideas and information to access experience and solve problems.

Problem-solving should be the driving force for the facilitation of the integration of knowledge and skills from these organizational channels and mechanisms.

Project managers and team members, preferably at the initial stage of the project conception, need to undertake collective exercises involving key stakeholders to discuss the following questions.

1. What existing knowledge and skills do we have?
2. What knowledge and skills are needed to understand the project's situations, environments or contexts?
3. What knowledge and skills are outside the usual scope of knowledge and skills relevant to the project's situations, environment, or context?
4. What knowledge and skills need to be applied to the project's situations, environments or contexts?
5. What are other viewpoints concerning situations, environment or contexts of the project and what knowledge and skills are associated with these other viewpoints?

The project manager and team members must gather, review, analyze, organize, and interpret relevant information to solve problems. They should synthesize and integrate new knowledge and skills with knowledge and skills they already possess, which sometimes creates new relations

between knowledge and skills to solve problems across various situations, environments and contexts of different projects. Then, they should evaluate the appropriateness of different viewpoints for solving problems related to the situations, environment or contexts of the project; and understand how different knowledge and skills are related and connected across situations, environments and contexts of different projects.

Integrating two specific types of knowledge and skills into projects is particularly important. Firstly, the knowledge and skills of the locals (especially indigenous or grassroots organizations) who live and work in the project areas or the local actors' ways of doing. Secondly, the knowledge and skills associated with gender equality and empowerment of the vulnerable, particularly women, girls and children.

It is essential to include the process of learning and sharing of knowledge and skills in this exercise, in particular problem-solving-oriented learning and project participant-centred learning, which help project managers and team members to have a holistic attitude towards developmental problems. Networking, case studies, communities of practice, knowledge-sharing events, workshops etc., are examples of mechanisms for integrating knowledge and skills.

Processes

Process integration in the context of project design and implementation includes two approaches to integrating processes. The first is the approach which integrates separate unit operations undertaken by team members to maximize the project's impact. The crucial first step of this integration is to understand which impact each operation aims to make. The second approach is to design a process to minimize resources and staffing and maximize the outputs. This approach's first step is estimating the resource and staffing to achieve the expected outputs. During the project period, the project managers continuously rearrange and integrate the separate operations to adjust the use of resources and staffing to the estimated targets. Central to this approach is to identify and address, through the process integration, the critical constraints of operations which tend to increase the needed resource and staffing to achieve the goals and objectives of the project (Venkatesh 2019). The integration of processes can take place in various domains and activities of processes (Anderson and Merna 2003) (see Figure 1 below) or various elements of the project management process, which is called "project integration management". The latter can be implemented by: the development of a project charter, the development of a preliminary project scope statement, the development of a project management plan, directing and managing project execution, monitoring and controlling project work, integrated change control, and closing the project (Project Management Institute 2004).

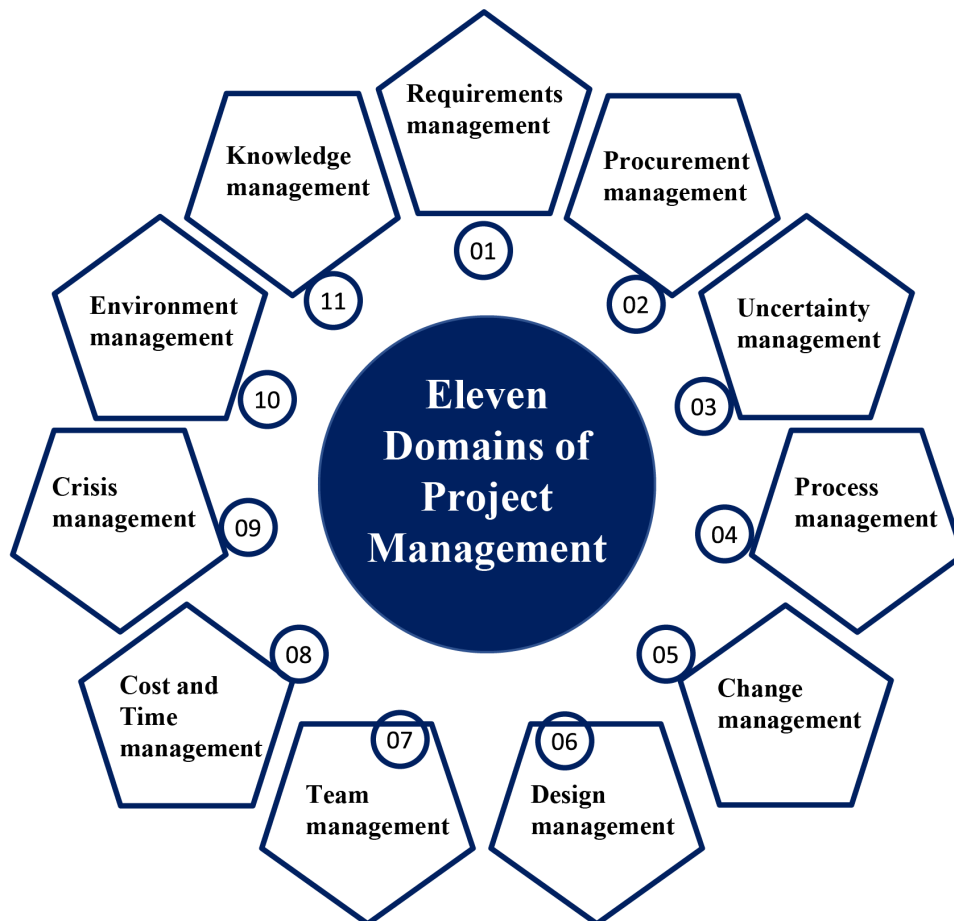


Figure 1. Eleven Domains of project management. Source: Anderson and Merna 2003.

Project stakeholders

Integrating project stakeholders means creating a genuine participatory structure of the project design and implementation. Central to integrating project stakeholders is shifting power to local actors (project team managers and members recruited locally) and helping them be project leaders. Global North donors and INGOs should clearly define their roles in the project when the local actors take the lead. For instance, Global North donors and INGOs should have principles or rules of engagement addressing the questions of which areas they need to step back from and where they need to engage and how (Green 2022).

Projects define specific subsets of the population to which the projects assign benefits or burdens. When a project has a coherent set of policy agendas that have clear and measurable impacts on these specific subsets of the population, it is much easier to integrate diverse beneficiaries into project decision making and implementation processes to whom the project aims to provide benefits. The integration of beneficiaries in the project context refers to the increase in the participation of beneficiaries in projects. The philosophy behind the participation of beneficiaries is that genuine development must be people-centred rather than production- or project-centred (Korten and Klaus 1984). The project managers and members should, however, take into consideration the context of the project areas in terms of the conditions of participation of beneficiaries. Participation is not, however, always possible or helpful. It has much greater benefits in some contexts than others. For instance, when beneficiaries live with generally weaker

participatory traditions and have less capacity to participate, project managers and team members should focus on capacity building rather than participation itself. Suppose the knowledge and skills needed for the project is relatively high and sophisticated. In that case, the participation of beneficiaries with insufficient knowledge and skills may gain fewer benefits. In this case, also, capacity building should be the focus of the integration of beneficiaries (Finsterbusch and Van Wicklin 1989).

For integrating policy stakeholders, selecting and supporting proximate leaders who work closely with communities in the project areas is important. The project should be designed and implemented to avoid encroachment on the local actors' role as an agent of change and to respect their ways of doing and being. Local actors, as an agent of change, communicate with people and communities in the project area. They can communicate with people and communities on how changes brought by the project are beneficial, provide feedback on local people and community's reactions to changes brought by the project to the project managers and team members, help people and community to engage with project process, identify other change agents, and provide information on challenges of the project.

The role and functions of stakeholders change as the project evolves. Therefore, stakeholder identification should be continuous throughout the project life cycle. Identifying stakeholders, understanding their degree of influence on a project, and recognizing their changing demands, needs, and expectation is critical to the successful integration of the stakeholders.

Box 4. Project stakeholders

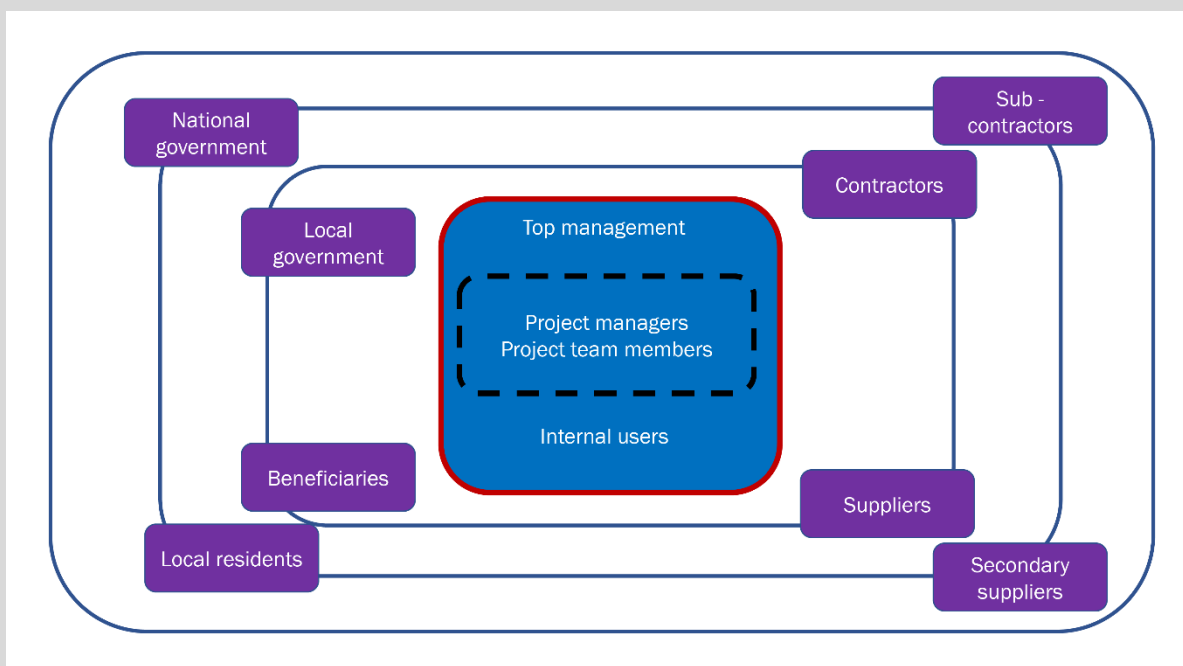


Figure 2. A sample of project stakeholders

A stakeholder in a project context is defined as “an individual, group, or organization who may affect, be affected by or perceive itself to be affected by a decision, activity, or outcome of a project” (Project Management Institute 2013, 29). Both internal and external stakeholders exist in a project. Internal stakeholders may include top management, project managers assigned to lead the team responsible for achieving the project objectives, project team members and internal users.

Top management may include the organisation's president, deputy president, directors, division managers, etc., who direct the strategy and development of the organization.

The project manager provides leadership, direction and support to team members to achieve the goals and objectives of the project.

Project team members are those who are directly involved in the project. They can be dispatched from the organization or contracted for specific project tasks.

Internal users are individuals within the organization who use the project's outputs and are affected by the project's outcome.

External stakeholders may include beneficiaries, suppliers, contractors, residents, secondary suppliers, subcontractors and local and national governments. Suppose the project focuses on a specific group of beneficiaries in a specific geographical location. In that case, the first four groups can be considered first-order external stakeholders who are directly affected by the project, while the latter four groups second-order external stakeholders who are indirectly affected by the project. However, depending on the nature of the project, the first-order or second-order external stakeholders may not be clearly divided.

Regarding the attitude towards the project, stakeholders are also categorized as positive and negative stakeholders. Project managers and staff members often overlook negative stakeholders, which can increase the likelihood of failures or adverse consequences to the project. And in terms of functions, they can be categorized as performing and advising stakeholders.

Source: Adrienne Watt 2014, Project Management Institute 2013.

Geographical spaces

Projects should identify the level of and the opportunities for interaction within and between project areas and neighbouring areas. The interaction in this context refers to any kind of relationship between places (connexity, similarity, flows and proximity) in cultural, social, economic, political and environmental dimensions. Assessing the willingness to cooperate and the level of cultural and political conflict, the project can focus on activities or interventions to increase economic and social cohesion, reducing the disparities between the levels of development of the various regions and places. One of the useful ways to understand how places are linked to integration is a civic social assessment, which allows project managers and members to learn about the relations between people and places that are important to them (see Box 5

below). Expanding opportunities for learning among citizens (or residents), the civic social assessment method actively involves citizens (or residents) in a community assessment process. It helps project managers understand social systems and how people can reconnect with their community and other communities (Kruger and Shannon 2010).

Box 5. Learning from and for residents through Civic Social Assessment

Citizens, specifically residents in the context of a project, have knowledge that is often inaccessible using traditional methods. How external academics or experts think about places of the project, such as communities, forests or fishing villages, often limits what we can discover. In particular, these frames established by external actors have a limitation in expanding our knowledge about the relations between people and places that that important to the residents. Nontraditional research methods to actively involve citizens as researchers, called Civic Social Assessment, can help project managers gain a complete understanding of social systems, illuminate conceptions of quality of life and well-being that are closely related to place, how people connect with their community and deepen the residents' understanding of themselves and their communities. Civic Social Assessment is particularly useful for project managers and team members who are working in areas with abnormal conditions which shape the lives of people, such as fragile and conflict-affected countries and borderlands since by avoiding oversimplification of complex relations with a few numbers of variables such as employment, demographic measures and wages, it helps to understand significance, degree, and quality of values attached to and shared with the place and people. Various organizational structures and methods can be used for Civic Social Assessment. They include a community forum, individual and group interviews with residents, brainstorming activities involving residents, joint meetings with project members and residents, collection and analysis of documents and photography, mapping exercises, and storytelling and sharing stories.

Source: Kruger and Shannon 2000.

Monitor and evaluation

Many indicators have been developed to monitor and evaluate projects. However, most of them give scant attention to the extent to which the project is based on an integrated approach emphasised in Transforming Our World and the preamble of the 2030 Agenda for Transformation. Regarding measuring the “integratedness” of the projects or programmes, although emphasizing the ‘balanced’ and ‘integrated’ nature of the SDGs, various monitor and evaluation systems to measure the achievement of the SDGs provide indicators that only measure the achievement of the individual SDGs, use the arithmetic mean to aggregate indicators corresponding to each of the 17 SDGs or average the results into a single metric. These monitor and evaluation systems and their indicators can be counterproductive to integrated approaches since they may tend to facilitate or encourage a silo approach focusing on individual goals based on the goal- or output-oriented approaches.

Integration of monitoring and evaluation refers to an approach to addressing these problems of output-oriented and sector-oriented monitoring and evaluation systems. While concerning about effectiveness of the project in terms of achievement of the project objectives, it also concerns the innovations in the project process and organizational capacities to enhance the integratedness of the project (see Box 22 for examples of key indicators to monitor the outcomes and process of an integrated approach focusing on water and land-use management).

2.5. Instruments of integrated approaches

Instruments of an integrated approach are defined as a wide range of methods, tools, and techniques to design, implement and evaluate projects, including those instruments used actually to deliver goods and services based on an integrated approach. Careful examination of project instruments and instrument choices would help project managers and team members gain considerable insight into the factors driving the project process and identify project design and implementation patterns. It also allows project managers and team members to draw lessons more readily from other projects which employ particular methods, tools, and techniques in specific circumstances (Woodside 1986).

Research on policy integration offers a variety of instruments project actors can choose for an integrated approach, which also gives an insight into the instruments of an IABP (Tosun and Lang 2017). Based on the clearly defined project goals and objectives, project managers and team members look for instruments to realize those goals and objectives throughout the project process. The knowledge of instruments, in particular, substantial knowledge of solutions to complex problems associated with project goals, and the formulation processes of these solutions, is a critical asset to project managers and team members (Howlett, Mukherjee, and Woo 2015)⁹.

Instruments of an integrated approach in a project context can be divided into two categories: procedural instruments and substantive instruments. While substantive instruments directly affect the production and delivery of goods and services in the project context, procedural instruments are to manage interactions between project stakeholders, including project managers and team members, to assure general support from the project stakeholders and create synergies to realize the goals and objectives of the project. Both instruments help project managers and team members to address various problems associated with project design, implementation and evaluation, such as scheduling projects, identifying and reporting the status of the project, comparing it with the baseline plan, analyzing the deviations, detecting out-of-control situations, and taking appropriate corrective actions (Hazır 2015). And these instruments enable project managers and team members to facilitate stakeholder participation, partnerships, and other forms of collaboration. Examples of procedural instruments include inter-departmental or inter-organizational plans; task forces composed of diverse departments or organizations; co-funding;

⁹ The first step to gain this knowledge is to analyse the abilities of different kinds of tools to affect project outputs and outcomes and the kinds of resources required to allow them to operate as intended (Hood 1999). A caveat should be noted that this knowledge on instrument is contextual since the effects of instruments on outputs and outcomes are determined by both internal and external constraints and contingent factors.

participatory mechanisms allowing staff from different sectors; mission statements including multiple goals and objectives of the diverse sectors; guidelines on an integrated approach.

Substantive instruments include various regulatory measures and policy tools of policy sectors which directly affect the production and delivery of goods and services. Various tools for the design and implementation of the project and monitoring and evaluation are also substantive instruments.

Box 6. Tools for design and implementation of the project and monitoring and evaluation of the integrated approach-based project

There is a broad consensus that mixing different tools, techniques, or methods at the technical level or the level of methods is not problematic and can often strengthen monitoring and evaluation. Different kinds of tools, methods or techniques are best suited to learning about different kinds of phenomena. Using multiple methods can also help to counteract biases and limitations all methods have.

Using mixed method employing different tools, techniques and methods are particularly beneficial when designing and implementing and monitoring and evaluating integrated approach-based project which deals with complex, interlinked issues since different kinds of tools, techniques and methods help to understand the important complexities more completely.

Project planners and managers should choose and combine different kinds of tools which will “work best” for a given project. The following are examples of various tools from which project planners and managers can choose to design and implement the integrated approach-based project and monitor and evaluate the integrated approach-based project.

Tools for qualitative and quantitative data gathering

Data sets of information and communication technologies (ICTs) – a tool enabling real-time automated data aggregation in unreachable areas or areas where specific difficulties in gathering data exist. ICTs have several advantages compared with conventional methods, such as large data sets with reduced data collection costs and time resources, collection of additional data types including GPS locations, use of multiple languages and communication methods such as pictures, phone calls and SMS.

Incident log – a systematic recording and investigation of certain incident types. It measures the number and gravity of incidents that took place in a given area or time frame. By identifying a correlation between relevant behavioural or attitude changes and incident types, it can also measure the outcome-related effects.

Media content analysis and discourse analysis - a mixed-methods approach that seeks to describe what is said on a given subject in a given place at a given time in or by the media with optimum objectivity, precision, and generality. It analyses media coverage, placement of stories, tone, and visual images, prominence of quotes/personalization, and reach of a media outlet.

Participant Diaries and Video Logs – a participatory qualitative research method oriented towards learning about knowledge, attitude, behaviour, and perspective changes as they occur from the perspective of the individual participant. A video is handy for in-depth non-verbal communication, analysis and observation of the illiterate population.

Rapid Assessment Procedures – a mixed-methods approach to action research which is usually a qualitative approach that relies on focus groups, key informant interviews and short qualitative survey tools to gain a snapshot of a complicated situation, either in general or on pre-determined lines of inquiry. It is handy under resource constraints, such as time and money.

Remote monitoring – a method to collect data in a hard-to-reach location. It works through local informants (organizations or individuals), gathering data on various topics to detect local trends and dynamics across funded interventions.

Social network analysis - a methodology analysing patterns of relations and relationships between individuals, groups, and/or organizations to examine human behaviour and social change. It is based on “network theory” made up of nodes (representing individual actors or groups within a network with a point) and ties (representing the relationship and its strength with a line).

Stakeholder analysis – a tool to identify the key stakeholders. It helps to understand a wide range of stakeholder perspectives throughout the design, monitoring and evaluation process.

Tools for producing indicators

Likert scales – a way to frame questions during surveys, interviews, and focus group discussions. It gives a more nuanced perspective than simple yes-no questions by providing a range of scaled responses.

Community Score Cards – a quantitative, participatory tool used to solicit community members’ “perceptions on quality, efficiency and transparency” of community service providers and their performance at the local level. It provides a mechanism for actors associated with an intervention to receive feedback on their behaviour, attitude, or conduct.

Indices – a summary or accumulation of scores from various indicators that rank specific observations to represent a more general concept. It is often the end result of a survey. Indices provide a valuable resource-saving way of collecting data on crucial, standardised indicators across the spectrum of international assistance.

Proxy indicators – a tool to approximate the reasonable likelihood that a change occurred when direct measurement is not possible. They are representations of a broader, unmeasurable change (i.e. outcome) under assumptions that a measurable item is indicative of the desired result.

Tools for the evaluation of both short, medium and long-term impacts

Quasi-experimental and experimental methods – a framework aiming to produce precise estimates of the cause-effect relationship between policy action and outcomes. It adopts several methods, but two methods are widely used. 1) producing estimates of the cause-effect relationship between policy action and outcomes by comparing the outcomes of a program against a counterfactual that shows what would have happened to beneficiaries without the programme. 2) producing estimates of the cause-effect relationship between policy action and outcomes by comparing predefined treatment and control groups before and after” an intervention.

Natural Experiments – an approach to examine naturally occurring events in which the outcome of interest was not necessarily planned for or unintended and unanticipated consequences. It is particularly helpful to understand how seemingly disconnected factors affect each other and are connected. The results can help to design IABP in other places better.

List Experiments - a quasi-experimental method that aims to elicit accurate aggregate responses from individuals regarding knowledge, attitudes, behaviours or perceptions. It is particularly helpful when the project deals with issues often considered sensitive or taboo in the intervention area or certain cultural norms hinder specific tools or lines of inquiry.

Most Significant Change - a qualitative, participatory monitoring and evaluation methodology. It aims to identify the most significant changes observed in an intervention. It can be used for simple and complicated problems, especially for observing unintended or unanticipated consequences. Suppose it applies to the project in the form of “most significant change expected” from the stakeholders' perspective. In that case, it can also be used for project or programme formation based on an integrated approach since it indicates the relevant sectors for the most significant change.

Global Giving Storytelling Methodology - a qualitative, participatory monitoring and evaluation method in which local people play the role of ‘experts.’ at the forefront of measurement efforts. In

this method, local people provide information on their context and what types of programming worked well (or poorly) based on their individual and collective experience.

Systems analysis – a method to understand the extent to which intervention-based variables (inputs, activities, outcomes) interacted with and affected the overall system and the system components, such as a community as a system which involves individuals, groups, and institutions that interact with another bounded by social, cultural and legal norms. Two widely used approaches for systems analysis are mapping and simulation. Systems mapping aims to identify all the key variables within the system, setting their boundaries and mapping them. It shows how each variable interacts with the system and visualizes the consequences of those interactions on the overall system. Systems simulation (or dynamic modelling) uses advanced computer software to simulate the causal model or map of the intervention. Since the software quickly adds or subtracts variables with their intensities, systems simulation produces more rigorous conclusions of attribution and effects.

Outcome mapping – a methodology for design, monitoring and evaluation to identify changes in attitudes, behaviours, knowledge and perceptions at the outcome level. It analyses the extent of the intervention's contribution towards outcome level changes rather than attribution.

Longitudinal and cohort studies – a mixed methods approach to engage with the same population, use the same data collection tools, and measure the same things as a regular study over a long period. It can pair well with other methodologies, such as focus groups and interviews and impact, quasi-experimental approaches. It can be particularly useful for monitoring and evaluating the IABP since it can reveal new insights into how immediate intervention can produce synergistic outcomes and impacts in the longer term.

Cohort studies are similar to longitudinal studies but are conducted in shorter periods, usually weeks.

Meta-Analysis – a quantitative tool that combines and analyses the results of different studies to yield new insight into the nuances surrounding outcomes and impacts. It summarizes evidence across multiple studies and samples and produces a more accurate and statistically robust estimate of the strength and stability of impacts than any single study can obtain.

Meta-evaluation – a method for evaluators of evaluators in which evaluators judge the quality of the evaluation and assess the evaluators' performance. It helps to identify and determine appropriate evaluations on the project which can be used for the meta-analysis.

Source: (Corlazzoli and White 2013, Greene and Caracelli 1997)

The ways to organize these institutions and policy tools as instrument packages for integration are also various. There are at least three strands of organizing institutions and policy tools (Jordan and Lenschow 2010). The first is the priority approach, which prioritizes policy tools from a specific policy sector over others. An example of this approach can be found in understanding sustainable development as ensuring that the long-term carrying capacity of nature becomes a principal or overarching societal objective and attributing principled priority to environmental objectives in balancing economic, social and environmental concerns (Lafferty and Hovden 2003). Second is the coordination approach, which emphasizes comprehensiveness, aggregation and consistency amongst institutions and policy tools constituting the package. Although there may be a hierarchy of institutions and policy tools in this approach, it is a result of the design of the package focusing on coordination between policy tools and institutions (Peters 1998). The third is the synergy approach, which seeks 'win-win' solutions in making tool packages. It searches for a way to create or maximize the impact of each policy tool by creating a tool package (Collier 1996). Fourth is the reciprocity approach, which gives equal weight to policy tools and institutions from different policy sectors regardless of their impacts (Liberatore 1997). Depending

on the context of the integration of the instruments, project planners can take different approaches since there is no better or worse approach to integrating instruments among these approaches.

Adopting one of these approaches, or a mixture of these approaches, project managers and team members pick and mix tools to design a package to maximize complementarities and avoid conflicts between tools, which can address multiple goals in complex, multi-policy and multi-level governance contexts.

2.6. Successful factors of integrated approaches

- **An enabling environment for an integrated approach:** An enabling environment for an integrated approach to design and implement IABP successfully may include funding and funding structure available for co-application, new languages highlighting the problems of siloing or the tendency of agencies to not interact with each other, a collaboration between agencies as a project requirement, and consultation between different agencies as a project requirement (Derickson, Klein, and Keeler 2021). Mainstreaming an integrated approach in organizational project management is one of the best ways to create enabling environment for an integrated approach since portfolio, programmes and project management are aligned with or driven by organizational project management, i.e. a “strategy execution framework utilizing project, programme, and portfolio management as well as organizational enabling practices to consistently and predictably deliver organizational strategy producing better performance, better results and a sustainable competitive advantage” (Project Management Institute 2013, 7). Mainstreaming an integrated approach can also be realized in various organizational culture and styles dimensions. They include but are not limited to: shared visions, mission, values, beliefs, and expectations; regulations, policies, methods and procedures to facilitate integration; motivation and reward systems for integration; tolerance of risks associated with integration such as more resource and time for project design, implementation and monitoring and evaluation; positive view of leadership on integration; organizational hierarchy facilitating integration; code of conduct associated with integration etc. Organizational project management based on an integrated approach enhances the organizational capacity to link project, programme, and portfolio management principles and practices with multiple organizational enablers (e.g. institutional, cultural, technological and human resource practices) to support the simultaneous achievement of multiple objectives.
- **Consistency and compatibility in goals and objectives, and alignment of instruments and processes:** Consistency and compatibility in goals and objectives, and alignment of instruments and processes to achieve those goals and objectives are essential factors leading to a successful integrated approach-based project (Carey, McLoughlin, and Crammond 2015). Since each policy domain has a unique history, issue foci, and interest community, it is challenging to achieve agreement about goals, instruments and processes (May, Jochim, and Sapotichne 2011). This difficulty is often exacerbated by bureaucratic competition, which is particularly strong among functional rivalries (Nicholson-Crotty 2005). Including actors from a single organization for each function can mitigate the

bureaucratic competition and consequently help achieve agreement on the design and implementation of the project, including the project instruments.

- **Organizational structures that facilitate the integration process:** Organizational structures that facilitate the integration process, such as appropriate executive agencies, are necessary for a successful IABP (Tosun and Lang 2017). These organizational structures should be based on cultural foundations in which information and knowledge sharing are accepted as a norm, and top-down policies are aligned with bottom-up issues. The institutions should structure authority, attention, information flows, and relationships to support establishing and achieving objectives and goals based on an integrated approach. There is no universally accepted single institutional design for an IABP. Project managers and team members should design the organizational structure fitting the purpose of an IABP and their managerial capacity. Analysis and assessment of the organizational structures designed for other IABPs help find the appropriate structure which can mobilize the efforts and resources of project team members from different policy domains to achieve the goals and objectives of IABP.
- **Project instruments which can serve multiple purposes:** Having project instruments which can serve multiple purposes or using mixed project instruments for multiple purposes is important to make an IABP successful. For an IABP in which multiple objectives and goals are linked, project instruments or policy toolkits from which policy instruments can be drawn to achieve these multiple objectives are needed. The project should shift its attention beyond the scope of a single policy tool and instrument to the design of policy tool mixes or toolboxes (van der Heijden 2011, Thelen et al. 2003; Kay 2007; Feindt 2012).

Project managers' choice of project instruments, i.e. tools and methods of design, management, and evaluation of the project, is significantly constrained by the knowledge, experience, and overall strategy of project team members. Overall, a strategy based on an integrated approach encourages project managers to choose project instruments conducive to addressing boundary-spanning issues or policy problems that cut across policy domains (Tosun and Lang 2017, Béland 2007, Nilsson and Nilsson 2005). One of the examples would be the Theory of Change (using a problem tree, objective tree, outcome map and stakeholder analysis) which helps to address multiple problems and identify the hierarchy of project objectives. It helps project managers to define outcomes and the connections between them; identify the "why" and "how" of the project; create a foundation for evaluation and communicate more effectively with internal and external stakeholders.

The project managers and team members should identify relevant policy tools to achieve the goals and objectives of the project. Extensive consultation and collaboration with development agencies, governments and communities help them to compile the toolkit. Including non-academic stakeholders in the process to search for policy tools often help to move beyond the scope of policy tools based on conventional research driven by disciplinary literature and framework. It helps project managers and team members identify novel policy tools that disciplinary debates might overlook. Including non-academic policy tools helps identify implementation-oriented policy tools (Derickson, Klein, and Keeler 2021). Once the toolkit is established, it should be distributed to

stakeholders to receive feedback. Project managers and team members should ensure that the scope of the toolkit is constantly responding to the changing needs of stakeholders.

- **Engaged stakeholders:** Engaged stakeholders are another factor in a successful integrated approach-based project. Stakeholders in development projects are individuals and organizations who can affect or be affected by the achievement of a project (Yang 2014). The degree and nature of their involvement determine the impacts of collaboration on the project (Marshall-Ponting and Aouad 2005). Stakeholders can be divided into two: internal stakeholders and external stakeholders. Internal stakeholders are formal members of the project. Therefore, they usually support the project (Beringer, Jonas, and Gemünden 2012). External stakeholders are those who are not formal members but can affect or be affected by the project in a significant way (Aarseth, Rolstadås, and Andersen 2013). The involvement of engaged stakeholders, both internal and external, who have a high sense of urgency and the same degree of buy-in to the shared goals is central to a successful integrated approach-based project. When the project has a large number of external stakeholders and the size of the project is large, gaining support from external stakeholders is particularly challenging. In a large development project, the expectations of external stakeholders tend to be comparatively more pressing and critical than internal stakeholders, even though they have no contractual relationship with the project (Chan and Oppong 2017). And large projects with many uncertainties in economic, social and political environments are easily influenced by their external environment, particularly external stakeholders (Sallinen, Ruuska, and Ahola 2013). When the project fails to accommodate external stakeholders' concerns, they tend to create severe resistance against the project, which they think might increase the negative impact on their daily lives (Li, Ng, and Skitmore 2013, Xue et al. 2015).

In the context of a project, amongst stakeholders are those playing the role of decision-makers or influencers. Identifying and accommodating these stakeholders in the project context is also central to increasing the probability of project success (Project Management Institute 2013).

- **A good framework to make a consensus:** An integrated approach cannot avoid the complexity coming from the plurality of points of view and criteria upon which stakeholders adopt in their decisions. To address this complex challenge, the project needs an excellent framework to support collaborative multicriteria decision processes which can guide project managers and team members in their strategic decisions. A good framework often consists of multiple methods, such as stakeholder analysis to identify the multiple interests involved in the project, cognitive mapping to define the shared set of objectives, and multicriteria techniques to measure the level of achievement of the previously defined objectives by the other projects.
- **Identification of policy areas relevant to IABP:** By nature, policy areas are interlinked. But when there is a broad scope and complex linkages between the objectives the portfolios of the organization are supposed to address, identifying policy areas and their linkages is challenging. A case in point is the SDGs with the broad scope and complex linkages between different dimensions of sustainability. A method to identify and deal with interlinkages can help assess the integratedness of the project. Two methods of identification can be employed for IABP. The first is the review of the existing literature

on interlinkages which allows us to have information on the “agreed” interlinkages based on scientific studies (Miola et al. 2019). The second is to review the existing national or regional development plans or policies that have prioritized policy areas and identify policy levers to maximize the project's synergies. Combining these two methods provides an effective operational method to design and implement IABP. Identifying priority policy areas and the linkages between priority policy areas and other relevant areas is key to successful IABP.

- **Competent project manager with high interpersonal skills:** Project managers are expected to satisfy at least three needs: task needs, team needs, and individual needs. In addition to any area-specific skills and general management proficiencies, a project manager who designs, implements and evaluates IABP needs to possess competencies in the following dimensions: knowledge and experience spanning several sectors, fields and disciplines; learning about the structure and dynamics of the complex systems in which the project is situated; personal skills such as attitudes, core personality characteristics, and leadership, which facilitates team building, motivating stakeholders including team members, communication amongst stakeholders, quick decision making, negotiation with external stakeholders; balancing conflicting interests and objectives of stakeholders; trust-building amongst stakeholders; and conflict management. In addition, a high level of political and cultural awareness is necessary for a competent project manager for IABP.
- **Clearly articulated integration strategy:** A clearly articulated strategy should include an element of dynamic system modelling which allows project implementers to sustainably improve the project and successfully overcome the disruptive factors to the project itself. The dynamic system modelling element helps to learn about the structure and dynamics of the complex systems in which the project is situated and design projects for sustained improvement and catalyse successful implementation and change of the project (Sterman 2014, Coning 2007). Given that an IABP is more likely to be complex due to the multiple goals and objectives and diverse stakeholders with different sectoral interests, clear articulation of the overall strategy is central to mitigating confusion and conflicts.
- **Development of operational and tactical implementation plans to realize the overall integration strategy:** The development of an overall strategy of IABP usually takes place among a relatively limited network at the outset. But it should be refined through various participatory and consultative processes that could inform and shape the project's overall direction. These participatory and consultative processes, including key stakeholders of the project, in particular, those residing in the project sites, serve to build a broader base of local ownership and accountability. Project managers and team members should develop operational and tactical implementation plans for various activities based on an integrated approach within the overall strategy. An operational and tactical implementation plan to strengthen local ownership and accountability is particularly important since, without local ownership and accountability, projects, be they integrated or not, may not be sustainable (Coning 2007).
- **Good analysis and knowledge of the political power:** Good analysis and knowledge of the political power dynamics which determine policy preferences of the actors involved in the integrated approach is crucial to making the integrated approach successful since they help to identify bottlenecks or the actors hold back integration and

come up with ways to overcome these bottlenecks (Turnpenney et al. 2008, Jordan and Lenschow 2010).

- **Stage-matched interventions:** Good assessment of the needs or demands of different project stages is a key to a successful IABP, which tends to include more dynamic changes than the non-integrated project or single objective or goal-oriented project. Throughout the project process, from planning to evaluation, project managers should pay attention to what stage the project is undergoing and what specific intervention is needed for that specific stage, which is called “stage-matching”.

2.7. When and how do we establish an integrated approach at the project level?

Does the integrated approach fit for purpose?

One of the most known causes of governance failures, be it government failure or project failure, is caused by fundamental mismatches between the governance mode and the nature of the problem it is expected to address (Wu and Ramesh 2013). As such, actors should choose an integrated approach in the design and implementation of a project only if the nature or contexts of the problem with which the project is expected to be situated fit an integrated approach. The first question for all those who are about to design and implement an integrated approach is whether the integrated approach fits the problem they want to solve. The research demonstrating the interdependence between developmental goals and objectives such as those on the SDGs would help identify the problem's fitness for an integrated approach.

One rule of thumb is that integrating policy agendas with a well-developed network of issues and interests is much easier than those with a less-developed network. Although semantic linkages between the SDGs are much clearer in SDG 10 (Reduced inequalities), 1 (End poverty), and 5 (Gender equality) (see the Box Linkages of the SDGs), substantive policy agendas such as poverty, hunger, health and education have a better-developed network of issues and interests with each other. And geographically specific agendas such as rural and urban agendas have a less developed network of issues and interests with each other. Although there are many exceptions, particularly those of women and children, identity-based policy agendas, for instance, the aged and the youth, also have less developed issues and interests than those of substantive policy agendas, and integration of these identity-based policy agendas is challenging. The more precise targeting (e.g. single mothers, old-aged veterans, etc.), the more challenging project integration.

Box 7. Linkages of the SDGs

Designing and implementing development goals in an integrated and balanced manner is one of the major concerns of the 2030 Agenda. Despite the emphasis on the triple bottom line that aims to strike a balance between economic, social and environmental dimensions, the goals and targets have uneven connections, partly due to the effects of political negotiations over priorities. Some goals are closely interconnected and mutually compatible, while others are less.

Le Blanc's network analysis (Le Blanc 2015) demonstrates semantic relations between the targets of 16 SDGs which lend legitimacy to justify developmental interventions and provide a direction regarding which development path policymakers might take (Cornwall and Brock 2005). According to Le Blanc, SDG 10

(Reduced inequalities), 1 (End poverty), and 5 (Gender equality) are the most densely connected goals, while SDG 7 (Affordable and clean energy), 9 (Industry, innovation and infrastructure) and 14 (Life below water) have no direct connections with the targets of other SDGs.

Source: Le Blanc 2015, Cornwall and Brock 2005.

Understanding context is essential

Discussions on the theory of change offer another insight into designing the project based on the integrated approach. There are two approaches to designing and implementing a project in the discussions on the theory of change (James 2011, Vogel 2012)¹⁰. The project-centred approach focuses on how a project brings change and develops a linear path of cause and effect. Various methodologies and models categorized as the project-centred approach have standard processes as follows. They define the long-, medium or short-term changes that the project desires to bring. Then, they conduct reverse engineering to map changes that need to take place at various levels. The project interventions are designed to cause those changes, making the rationale explicit. Project plans or concept notes employ various structures or models ranging from basic logic models that only identify inputs, outputs and outcomes to more complex flow charts and diagrams that map the pathways for change and include specific indicators at each level of change.

The second, called the context-centred approach, is closely related to establishing a project based on an integrated approach. The context-centred approach is framed with a more complex and systematic view of development than the project-centred approach. The context-based approach is based on the assumption that even when the project logic is carefully established, other factors outside the control of project implementers can significantly influence the project. Methodologies and models categorized as the context-centred approach, therefore, tend to involve broader, contextual analysis of how change happens. Paying attention to other actors and factors beyond the realm of the project, they tend to focus on the context for change and the contribution of their projects to making enabling contexts or environments for change rather than the changes the project can bring about.

Planners of IABP should think out of the box to explore and identify possible changes and how these changes take place by focusing on the context for change. Aiming to understand a broader context and more factors and actors than the project-centred approach, the context-centred approach assumes that the project cannot capture everything and incorporate the principle in the project design that the project should be open to plurality in perspectives and understandings on specific issues.

In adopting this context-centred approach, those who design a project based on an integrated approach should keep in mind that more effective for IABP is prioritizing interventions contributing to sustaining the process of changes such as empowerment of local actors,

¹⁰ We draw the insights from the discussions on theory of change. See (James 2011; Vogel 2012)

strengthening partnerships, and ongoing learning and reflection rather than an achievement of project outputs and outcomes.

Connecting strategic perspective with the management of the project

It is common in the initial phases of the project, such as the planning or designing phase, for project planners to have a broader and more strategic perspective and incorporate related tasks in the project. Once the project is launched, however, project managers and team members tend to focus on the execution of the planned tasks while ignoring or neglecting the emerging tasks closely connected with the broader and more strategic perspective they had in the initial phases of the project. It is quite essential to have a strategic perspective of the project, which guides the project managers and team members to incorporate related tasks into the project and establish systematic mechanisms to check the opportunities to realize the multiple goals and objectives of the project throughout the project process.

3. Borders and borderlands

3.1. Conceptualization of borders and borderlands

Borders and borderlands exhibit a complex interlocking web of opportunities and challenges. Moreover, they are influenced by relationships between stakeholders more diverse than the interiors. Project managers working on development issues within the borders and borderlands must be prepared to deal with these complexities, particularly when they plan and implement integrated approach-based projects.

No single theory or conceptual framework can incorporate the diverse types of border and borderlands experiences, and these experiences cannot be viewed from a single lens. The conceptualization of the borderlands' issues based on an interdisciplinary approach that regularly considers these areas' diversity, dynamism, and evolutions allows us to deepen our understanding of the complexity associated with integrated approach-based projects in the contexts of borders and borderlands.

By taking an interdisciplinary approach to understanding borders and borderlands, project managers can exploit the knowledge, findings and lessons from the studies of different disciplines, including geography, governance, development practice, political science, anthropology, sociology, economics, critical feminist studies, and others, "to create a common set of theoretical frameworks, which can be used as a generalized explanatory model for understanding" diverse contexts of borders and borderlands. In particular, the interdisciplinary approach offers them information on the development challenges in diverse contexts of borders and borderlands and insights on how best they can be addressed through an integrated approach. Thus, drawing attention to the various conceptual frameworks underpinning multiple schools of thought concerning understanding these spaces' broad and diverse experiences is essential.

Understanding the complexity, diversity, and mapping of the relationships between different actors and sectors within the borderlands from an interdisciplinary approach offers insights into an integrated approach-based project. Below are some conceptual frameworks that might provide insights to project managers in conceptualizing borders and borderlands issues.

Evolutionary theory reflects the political and social transformation within borders and borderlands. These areas have traditionally been viewed as static, yet numerous and sudden changes regularly happen in these spaces (Jabeen & Sultan, 2020). There are enormous transformations even regarding the role borders and borderlands have traditionally played in organizing nation-states. "The unifying, symbolic, dividing and exclusionary role of a border as a founding principle of a sovereign state is currently under pressure (Brunet-Jailly, 2010)" and the traditional mediating role of borderland communities has transformed to buffer zones. However, the transformation has also ignited new actors that challenge the conventional concept of state reach and limits. "Non-central-state actors, plurinational communities, and stateless nations perforate borders or undermine the integrity of state borders because of ethnic, religious, social, and economic identities (Brunet-Jailly, 2010)." Technological advancement has further changed the nature, reach, and limits of borders and borderlands. The dynamics in these regions call for understanding the diversity and complexity of actors within specific borderlands. They could guide the mapping of key stakeholders and critical partnerships necessary for meeting project goals and visions.

The Geopolitical narrative approach focuses on the state and the bounded nature of state mechanisms. States look at borders as static and stable. However, globalization and integration have impacted borders and borderlands and brought some insights into "de-territorialization and re-territorialization." Regrouping people from different groups has profoundly modified ethnic and cultural identities. This poses complexities and potential for conflict that require specific attention when applying an integrated approach to projects in borders and borderlands from the project management perspective. The project manager should be culturally competent and aware of the community's heterogeneity and history (Kolossov 2005).

The social construction of space theory draws on a perspective that since these spaces are artificially constructed "by society rather than given by nature or natural laws, borders can be broadly defined as categories of difference that create socio-spatial distinctions between places, individuals, and groups (Kolossov & Scott 2013, p. 3)." The social constructivist approach looks at borders as something continually being made and remade "through political discourses and institutions, media representations, school textbooks, stereotypes and everyday forms of transnationalism (Kolossov & Scott 2013, p. 3)." Borders and borderlands are characterized by diverse cultures, languages, religions, and ethnicities, and no singular social construct can help fully understand the challenges and issues of borderlands regions. "This constructivist strand of border studies looks beyond the visible, material, and seemingly objective manifestations of borders such as fences, walls, rivers, or mountains and focuses on the "social practices and discourses in which boundaries are produced and reproduced. This premise can also explain the social and cultural tensions that persist in these regions. This theory helps project managers with both challenges and opportunities. It encourages project managers to move beyond the usual causal chain or theory of changes bounded by the natural borders and develop a project that can impact people and the environment spanning national borders.

The Approach to Borders from the Perspective of Security understands that borders primarily separate occupants of a given territory from others. States might perceive certain borders as threatening national security while perceiving others cooperatively. Traditionally borders primarily played a role in the prevention of military threats. Thus, the notion of

"militarised borders." The securitization of borders can be a severe obstacle to cross-border cooperation. It institutionalizes the most extensive control over transboundary flows to foresee and forestall any possible problems. When the state takes national security as a significant task, the border is understood as a security fence rather than a channel for partnership and collaboration. The perspective of security supposes that the security interests of border regions are similar to those of the state as a whole. Geoeconomy is subordinated to geopolitics (Kolossoy, 2005, p. 622)." This perspective provides the most unfavourable environment for the integrated approach-based project in borders and borderlands. The nature of development work is inherently political, and partnership with governments is key to any successful project. However, in the context of militarized or securitized borders, in particular borderlands post-conflict, response to humanitarian crises, recovery and development tend to occur in parallel.

Moreover, prevention and recovery are increasingly understood as central parts of humanitarian action. Many projects link humanitarian action with development aid within the humanitarian-development or humanitarian-development-peace nexus (Stamnes 2016, Oelke and Scherer 2022). This approach helps project managers design and implement projects to integrate development with visions, goals, and objectives associated with security issues and humanitarian actions, such as displaced people and refugees, particularly women and children.

The Policy Practice Perception (PPP) Approach understands that “the boundary is not simply a legal institution designed to ensure the integrity of state territory, but a product of social practice, the result of a long historical and geopolitical development, and an important symbolical marker of ethnic and political identity” (Kolossoy, 2005, p. 622). Informal transboundary networks characterize borders and borderlands in business, local authorities, international organizations, and NGOs. Different levels further of jurisdictions consider border policy. The border policy could be focused on the state, international, institutional, and legal infrastructures to control the transboundary flows – limiting or stimulating border activities. The PPP approach also provides insights into cross-border cooperation within these regions. It might provide a basis for mapping potential partnerships and networks when applying an integrated approach to projects in these spaces. (Kolossoy, 2005).

The Critical feminist approach to borders and borderlands takes an epistemic perspective on borderlands of bodies, communities, and knowledge. It understands these borderlands as dynamic spaces created, crossed, occupied, and policed from within and outside by individuals and collectives. They tend to focus on lived experiences and practises which define boundaries differently from dominant narratives about the boundaries and borderlands (Hudson 2017). Although the works of a critical feminist approach to geographical borderlands are rare, many works on borderlands and borders focus on the inclusion of diverse voices and groups where gender and youth perspectives are embedded in policy agendas and outcomes. It helps project managers to incorporate vision, goals and objectives associated with vulnerable groups, particularly women and children, into the IABP in borderlands.

The **Governance Approach** to borders and borderlands focuses on cross-border relations or cross-border regions.e.e. “territorial units that compromise contiguous subnational units from two or more national states” (Perkmann and Sum 2002, Mikhailova 2014). In this approach, governance of cross-border relations or cross-border regions, which is often called “cross-border governance”, is defined as “a mean and result of the territorialization of cross-border actors’

knowledge construction and power concentration at different levels, sectors and scales, based on five on-going processes – knowledge creation, articulation of relationships, decision-making, implementation & management and appraisal of results” (Villanueva, Kidokoro, & Seta 2021, 1). This approach helps to increase efficiency and institutional arrangements of cross-border cooperation by solving border issues and bringing development and integration (Leibenath 2008, Sohn 2014, Mendoza and Dupeyron 2017). As a dimension of border phenomena, the quality of cross-border governance itself is an indicator showing the impact of cooperation, comprehending integration or territorial cohesion or functional complementarity (Wong Villanueva, Kidokoro, and Seta 2021).

The **Border regime approach** focuses on how border regimes affect the flow of capital, goods, services, and people. The machinery system that determines the degree of openness of borders, i.e., the variety of ways or policies and the different dimensions along which borders operate to control the movement of capital, goods, services and people, is a crucial subject matter of this approach (Kukathas 2022). The approach became useful in increasing illegal migrants from developing to developed countries. For instance, closed borders may constrain migration but encourage migrants to seek alternative migration channels and destinations; open borders allow unrestricted cross-border mobility for people, promoting circulation and return (Vezzoli 2021). The approach helps project managers to deepen their understanding of policies on border control, those determining the degree of openness and its consequence on the terms of the flow of goods, services, and people, such as the terms of entry of people such as the status of entering, the length of stay, qualifications or characteristics of people entering, and the procedures to be followed to remain within a territory (Kukthas 2022).

3.2. Definition and typology of borders and borderlands

3.2.1. Operational definitions of borders and borderlands

Borders today are clearly defined geographical boundaries or international lines demarcating or defining political entities or legal jurisdiction. They distinguish countries or states and other entities, including subnational administrative units, such as provinces, counties, boroughs, townships, municipalities, cantons, territories, and parishes, and subnational entities or superstates (such as the European Union). Marchlands of the earlier times, which were beyond the authority of the rulers on either side, are rare today even though some demilitarized zones have similar characteristics to those marchlands, such as that between North and South Korea (Kukatas 2022).

In general, borders are regarded as rigid lines but also flexible, reflecting new territorial and aspatial patterns of human behaviour. With technological advancement, particularly in cyberspace, the barrier role of borders not only becomes redundant in some areas but also serves "to create new sets of borders and boundaries, enclosing groups with common identities and interests who are dispersed throughout the globe, lacking any form of territorial compactness or contiguity (Newman, 2011, p. 13)."

Beyond the visualization of the artificial lines and boundaries, borders underpin "the notions of the limits of internal sovereignty and authority" of nation-states and further underpin the claims for legitimate use of force in a particular State.

Some scholars have regarded borders as "places of economic and political opportunity for nations and states as well as for the hist of other interest groups and agencies, legal and illegal (Adesina, 2019)." Adesina further argues that borders are central in current international disputes relating to security, migration, trade, and natural resources and locally influence "debates over land use and property right."

Borders are further understood as both formal and informal institutions of spatial and social practice and physical and symbolic markers of difference. Rather than simple demarcations of places, borders are manifestations of power in a world marked by significant spatial differences in wealth, rights, mobility, and living standards. For most people, borders have three critical functions: to help create order by delineating spheres of authority, to protect those living inside clearly demarcated territories from outsiders; and to ensure proper control and management of citizens and natural resources (Adesina, 2019).

Generally, borders and borderlands are considered the distribution between cultures, languages, and political and confessional systems. They are also widely recognized as complex multilayer and multileveled social and human psychological phenomena that were not the case in the past (Jabeen & Sultan, 2020).

Borders are considered a symbol of identity and serve the purpose of barriers, bridges, resources, and means of communication for the concerned states. International borders are linear points of contact between countries, cultures, and societies that give prospects to examine the best and the worst in human nature and the exercise of statecraft (Jabeen & Sultan, 2020).

States apply different border policies and measures to manage access through their borders and relationships with neighbouring countries. These may include physical infrastructures at the border, such as border markers, fences, walls, barriers, and checkpoints. States may also rely on remote control through visa requirements, airline liaison officers, consulates, or even "smart borders" by using digital technologies and through third-country involvement or the relocation of border control in the context of regional integration. Thus, border control has become a complex issue that combines physical infrastructures, legal arrangements, relocation of authority, technology, and the involvement of third parties in varying border regimes (Gülzau & Mau, 2021).

"Today, the 145 land-based nation-states around the world (excluding the 50 island countries, or 26 per cent of the 195 countries in the world) employ three major international border types: 15-28 countries (8-14 per cent) have open borders; 88-75 countries (45-39 per cent) have regulated or controlled borders; and 42 countries (22 per cent) had/have fortified borders (Vogeler, nd)."

Borderlands are areas close to an international boundary and are usually disadvantaged in terms of their location as the farthest point and marginal to the states' core areas (Adesina, 2019).

"Borders and Borderlands mutually defined one another. The existence of a border constitutes a borderland (Adesina, 2019, p. 202)."

Borderlands have been defined as the broader territorial margins of nation-states, regions where border contact is a central feature of economic and political life. Unlike borders, borderlands focus on the communities near states' territorial limits rather than on international relations between nation-state governments. "These communities are characterized by limited state

authority, mobile populations, intractable conflict, and weak public sector infrastructures (UNDP, 2021, n.d).

"Borderlands in the technical sense of the term are more than just the geographic regions around a border (P.149)." "They are social spaces in geographic spaces linked to societal institutions and socially imbued with." Many economic, political, and social interactions intersect to give a specific identity to a particular borderland.

Nevertheless, in simple terms border is an international boundary line, and the boundary is a separation indicating some partition in spatial terms. It is called a borderland when borders are seen as a zone or region. Borderlands are different from frontiers in respect of their location. (Jabeen & Sultan, 2020).

Borders and borderlands play multiplicity roles of being political, administrative, and cultural boundaries of nations and states, bringing many different sectors and actors into the same space. These actors include international non-governmental organizations (NGOs); the United Nations and its agencies; multilateral financial institutions like the WTO, World Bank, and IMF; regional associations; private sector donors and investors; local governments; communities; families; and individuals. The different actors all have a role to play in integrated development efforts.

3.2.2. Diverse types of borders and borderlands

Borders and borderlands are crucial to these regions' nation-states and inhabitants. According to the existing data, the types of borders and borderlands are diverse and vary considerably. The vast diversity in the characteristics, functions, and nature of borders and borderlands provides insights into the complexity of effectively implementing development projects within these spaces. On the other hand, it offers an opportunity to identify the basis for an integrated approach within a single locale. They are also very dynamic since they shape and symbolize or are being shaped and symbolized by power, control, and identity. They serve a cultural-political social, and economic purpose. For example, African borders and borderlands are characterized by cross-border trade, primarily from colonial legacy. In contrast, European borders and borderlands have been redefined through economic integration removing existing barriers.

Typology of Borders

Borders have been categorized based on "their morphology, natural features, origin, history and 'age,' historical circumstances of allocation and delimitation (for example, post-war, colonial, imposed, etc.), and functions (Kolossof, 2005, p. 611)." The following are the ideal-typical typology of borders.

1. **Natural borders:** Natural borders follow natural geographic features, such as oceans, rivers, mountain ranges, deserts, estuaries, etc. Territories have been imagined as being naturally separated by oceans, rivers, deserts, and mountains.
2. **Antecedent borders:** Delimited prior to the settlement of the area in question in what was perceived as constituting virgin or unsettled land.
3. **Subsequent boundaries:** Demarcated according to the existing settlement patterns and differences, supposedly reflecting the ethno-territorial patterns of the region.
4. **Superimposed borders:** Imposed by an outside (normally colonial) power on a region under their control, often with scant regard to the existing tribal and ethnic settlement patterns. (Richard Hartshorne (1933)

5. **Geometric borders** (also known as straight-line borders) are formed by straight lines drawn on a map, nautical chart, or lines that follow latitude curves. International borders in the Middle East and North America are often based on geometry. The most used geometrical approach is latitude/longitude lines.
6. **Cultural borders:** Cultural borders follow or approximate the boundaries between the homelands of different ethnicities, language groups, and other cultural communities. They often date from before the modern era and can often result from successive military struggles over the centuries. Many international borders in Europe more or less follow such cultural divisions, including the border between Hungary and Romania.
7. **Soft and Hard Borders:** Vogeler (nd.) classifies international borders into soft and hard borders. Soft borders have fewer restrictions when it comes to mobility. People and goods are permitted to pass through with few checks. Soft borders are further classified into open and regulated/controlled borders. Examples of Soft borders are the USA-Canada border, European Union, and, historically, most borders.

Regulated/controlled borders include USA-Mexico borders and USA-Canada.

Hard borders have stricter control and are likened to fortified borders. These include wire-fenced and walled borders, walled borders, and militarized borders.

Fenced borders include USA-Mexico and the most fortified borders. Walled borders include the USA-Mexico border, the Israel-Palestine border, the Maginot line, Hardin's Wall, and China Wall (Vogeler, nd).

On the other hand, Gülzau & Mau (2021) identify five types of borders. These include "no man's-land" borders, landmarks, checkpoints, barriers, and fortified borders.

1. **Check Point borders:** Checkpoint borders are by far the most common type of design: The most common type of border control infrastructure is checkpoint borders. This category is characterized by border posts to stop and control travellers at major border crossing points. Typically, checkpoint borders feature a significant road that splits into several lanes before it runs into a border inspection post (Gülzau & Mau, 2021).
2. **Barrier borders:** Barrier borders also feature border posts, but states install additional barriers at specific border crossing points that make it challenging to avoid inspections compared to checkpoint borders. Physical obstacles such as barriers or fences are used to channel mobility into checkpoints. States typically erect barriers to separate political systems (Gülzau & Mau, 2021). They are standard on the Asian and European continents.
3. **Fortified borders:** When there is a significant wealth gap with neighbouring countries, relatively affluent states often put fortified borders in place. Fortified borders consist of obstacles meant to prevent unauthorized mobility along the total length of a borderline. States that maintain fortified borders install obstacles such as fences and walls to deter cross-border flows. The barriers are sometimes even built to prevent all physical exchange across the border (Gülzau & Mau, 2021). They are standard on the Asian and European continents.
4. **Landmark borders:** Landmark borders are maintained among a community of equally democratic and affluent states. At first sight, landmark borders are reasonably similar to the previous category. However, landmark borders feature little state infrastructure

because states have agreed to abolish normal controls to boost the cross-border flows of goods and people. An example is the free movement zone that the European Union established through the Schengen Agreement. Such borders regularly feature a dense road network, frequent cross-border travel, and integrated economic zones. Often, they have border and control infrastructures that have been dismantled (Gülzau & Mau, 2021).

5. **No-man's land borders:** "No-man's-land" borders are found between poor states. We term boundaries that are largely disconnected from state activities as "no-man's-land" borders. They are peripheral because no government infrastructure is put in place to control cross-border movements. Sometimes, the government declares a particular area as "no man's land, " meaning the government would no longer be willing to take any responsibility for the construction of infrastructures or provide public services such as health, drinking water and education even though there are people inhabiting the region. Ghoramara island, declared no-mans land by the West Bengal government in 1977, is an example (Guha 2020). "No-man's-land" borders are often found in remote regions such as deserts or jungles, which are difficult to access by state agents. In many instances, poor road networks and connections also limit the economic exploitation of the border (Gülzau & Mau, 2021).
6. **Integrated borders:** In addition to the typology of Gülzau & Mau (2021), one more type of border has been conceptualized with a focus on the impact of globalization and integration on borders, which resulted in "de-territorialization and re-territorialization (Kolossov, 2005, p. 618)": Integrated borders. For example, the European Union's integration resulted in expanding borders and altering borderlands in the EU. These changes were followed by "the re-allocation of activities, opportunities, and threats (Topaloglou, Kallioras, Manetos, & Petrakos, 2005). It also led to the elimination of "artificial barriers to interaction in the post-1989 European economic space the EU eastward enlargement, the overlapping of national sovereignty by multinational corporations and organizations, the resurgence in nationalism and the "disappearing of distance" due to technological advances have established new grounds for discussion on border issues (Topaloglou, Kallioras, Manetos, & Petrakos, 2005)." In particular, economic integration eliminates border obstacles for factor movements and further intensifies itself (a self-sustained process) via the reduction of trade costs. Non-economic integration refers to the prevailing sociocultural conditions that influence border interaction in the border regions. Boundaries are understood as static lines and sets of practices, discourses, and perceptions that affect border interaction (Paasi 1999). State borders, therefore, are mapped on (and interact with) a plethora of other sociocultural boundaries that distinguish national, ethnic, or linguistic groups (Anderson and O'Dowd, 1999). Under this perspective, border regions are examined as a social construction, where the role of norms, collective identities, and shared memories is vital in interaction. Other examples of integrated borders include the Schengen Area, which was established through the Schengen Agreement. It allows for the free movement of people across the borders of the participating countries. The Schengen Agreement created an integrated

region for the movement of people in Western Europe¹¹ (Bernhard Struck, *Border Regions*, 2013).

Types of Borderlands

Adesina identifies four main categories of borderlands based on Martinez typologies:

1. **Alienated borderlands:** In alienated borderlands, borders are functionally closed, and cross-border interaction is absent. They are usually rigidly controlled and often militarized. Cross-border relations are marked by tension even though divided groups share a common ancestry. Former communist states and the current North and South Korea border relations fit this category.
2. **Co-existent borderlands:** In co-existent borderlands, international arrangements make contact possible but difficult, as control is prioritized over permeability. Limited exchange occurs, but long-term cooperation is deemed undesirable for political or military reasons. Co-existent borderlands exist when the states involved can reduce the threat of armed conflict along the border and officially allow limited transboundary interaction, generally within formal parameters established by the neighbouring states. Examples of co-existent borderlands can be found in North America, Latin America, Asia, the U.S., and Canada.
3. **Interdependent borderlands** are found where borderlands are symbiotically linked with each other in terms of the economic climate and probably social and cultural systems but where concerns over 'national interests' in either or both states compel the governments to monitor the boundary and borderland carefully. States and authorities only allow an opening to the extent to which this serves the state's agenda; interdependence does not imply a balanced relationship but can include economic complementarity. They are places where interdependence creates many opportunities for borderlands to establish social connections across the boundary or border as well as allowing for significant transculturation to take place'. Borders are semi-open; economies are linked across the boundary, but concerns lead to careful monitoring, particularly on issues such as immigration and crime. Contacts are frequent, mutual trade and exchange across the frontier assume a complementary character, and a typical borderland mentality is developed on both sides of the border. However, the border is only open insofar as the state's interests are not damaged. Citizens here usually develop a closer relationship; independent border-landers also engage in friendly cooperative ventures, and both share similarities in economic and social patterns of interactions. For example, Since the early 20th Century, the Central Europe region has been described as an "interdependent borderland" (Bernhard Struck, *Border Regions*, 2013). <http://ieg-ego.eu/en/threads/crossroads/border-regions>. Struck argues that in integrated borderlands, formal state borders exist, but the societies on either side of the border are connected in a symbiotic relationship, with considerable economic and cultural exchange.
4. **Integrated borderlands:** Integrated borderlands represent a stage in which neighbouring states have decided to eliminate the boundary in all but name between them, they no longer exist as significant barriers to economic transactions or human movement and

¹¹ see <http://ieg-ego.eu/en/threads/crossroads/border-regions>

exchange, and borderlands, for all practical purposes, mingle economically and socially with their neighbouring counterparts in an environment of political stability, military security, and economic strength. These exist where the economies of adjacent states are functionally merged, with the unrestricted movement of people/goods, across the boundary. Borderlanders perceive themselves as —members of one social system; all barriers and obstacles to cross-border communication, exchange, and movement of people, goods, services, and capital have been removed, and a common cultural and cross-border political identity develops.

5. **Cross-border trade borderlands:** Dobler (2016) explains the notion of cross-border trade, signifying a typology of borderlands in Africa. Cross-border trade borderlands are further categorized into "trade across the 'green' border of bush paths and villages, the 'grey' border of roads, railways and border towns, and the 'blue' border of transport corridors to oceans and airports (Dobler, 2016)." **The green border** is a path through the bush. People living in borderlands routinely use the border's proximity to cross it with goods. They might or might not become professional traders; if they do, they trade in small volumes at first, crossing the boundary on foot, on bicycles or motorcycles, or in canoes, often outside official border posts. Their domain is the green border: bush, savannah, or desert and the myriad paths across it. In most African countries, they cross the border without any visa stamp or prior authorization. People living in border areas use environmental resources on the other side, grazing livestock, using water holes, foraging, or hunting; they profit from infrastructure by going to hospitals. **The grey border:** travellers use roads and railways. Paths through the bush can only be used on foot, by bicycles or motorcycles. Higher trade volumes need a different infrastructure: roads or railway lines on which containers and trucks can move. The name symbolizes the colour of the tarmac. **The blue border:** airspace, oceans, pipelines, and corridors actors of the grey border can turn over large amounts of goods and make huge profits. However, the specific social space in which they are successful also limits the scope of their business. It is not easy to keep grey border businesses profitable from the capital. Their owners or at least trusted managers must be at home in the borderland and know their way through its messy, deliberately opaque, frequently changing social landscape. Illegality often increases profits but comes with the price and risk of co-opting others. If the distance between a businessperson and the local context becomes too great, those others can increase their demands or occasionally stake a hostile takeover of the business.

3.2.3. Attributes of borders and borderlands

Several critical considerations concerning the characteristics of borders and borderlands should guide project managers in implementing an integrated approach to projects in borders and borderlands.

Complexity

There are huge factors the project manager has to deal with when implementing projects within borders and borderlands. Complexity in this context relates to the social, political, economic, and geographical factors that influence the nature and organization of borders and borderlands. Complexity from social factors resides in the fact that diverse cultures, languages, and social

groups characterize these spaces. Politically, they intersect with different political interests from different groups in other jurisdictions. Economically, they are marginalized communities.

An integrated approach would strive to consider the perspective of all actors and all sectors, but this poses severe challenges for the project managers working on development projects.

Diversity

Given that borders and borderlands are an intersection of multiple cultures and ethnicities, they illustrate a wide range of values, beliefs, behaviours, and interests, some of which might be conflicting. Thus these differences must be efficiently bridged when applying an integrated approach. Diversity can also stem from the various borderlands typologies with different priorities and needs. Therefore, a project manager must have comprehensive knowledge of the context of the given borderlands and diverse stakeholders and the requirements of project beneficiaries.

Dynamics

Contemporary studies on borders and borderlands indicate that these spaces are not static as traditionally presumed to be. Borders and borderlands face numerous and sudden changes and are continuously transforming.

Limited resources

Borders and borderlands are marginalized communities and always face exclusion from central governments. The mapping of funding opportunities for development projects in these spaces must consider different sources that might target specific projects and priorities. It is also essential to map various networks of practitioners to avoid duplication of tasks and efforts.

Risk

Borders and borderland regions are prone to intercultural and ethnic conflicts. These places are also susceptible to sudden changes, further creating uncertainty.

Box 8. Dynamic and characteristics of borders and borderlands

Different borders and borderlands display unique dynamics and characteristics that present different challenges, opportunities, needs, and priorities. Mandates and priorities of the implementing organization will also inform the nature of the projects adopted in a given borderland. Therefore, projects in and associated with borders and borderlands are various depending on the features of borders and borderlands and the mandates and priorities of the implementing organizations. Projects in and associated with borders and borderlands may include:

- Transboundary projects (such as Cross-border trade (formal and informal) and water-related projects)
- Policy support and advocacy
- Mobility and Migration
- Security, peacebuilding, and conflict mitigation
- Counterterrorism
- Livestock and natural resources use
- Environmental management and climate change

- Literacy, including financial literacy
- Transfer of technology
- Law enforcement and regulation of illegal activity, etc.
- Political participation
- Economic empowerment
- Gender empowerment
- Food insecurity
- Law enforcement
- Cyberspace security

4. Multidimensional Integrated Approach (MULIA)-based project in Borders and Borderlands

The conceptualization of multiple dimensions of the project in the previous section (2.4 What do we integrate at the project level?) introduced diverse dimensions of the projects and their nature. Integration at the project level takes place in these multiple dimensions. Various elements in these multiple dimensions, such as goals and objectives, resources, aid modalities and available skills, knowledge sets etc., tend to be combined depending on the projects' contexts. We call this framework of integration at the project level Multidimensional Integrated Approach (MULIA) in this Guidelines. MULIA-based project (MULIA-BP) focuses on integrating multiple elements in multiple dimensions to create synergies of the project and strengthen the sustainability of outcomes the project aims to create.

4.1. Features of MULIA-BP in borders and borderlands

The MULIA-BP in borders and borderlands has specific features reflected in project design, implementation and evaluation. These specific features are also reflected in the overall strategy, tactical and operational implementation plans, principles, values and ecosystem of the projects. These features include:

1. **Policies and project activities to satisfy diverse needs:** Given that borders and borderlands are an intersection of multiple cultures and ethnicities, they illustrate a wide range of values, beliefs, behaviours, and interests. It means project managers and team members should identify and understand the *diverse concerns and needs* of the target population residing in borderlands. Policies or project instruments which are a means to satisfy needs should be analysed from the perspective of the *needs satisfaction range*, defined as a range within which individuals satisfy their needs but not too much to surpass environmental limits (Brand-Correa et al. 2020). The level of service and goods the project provides to target participation can vary depending on the socio-economic, technological and infrastructural conditions. The project managers and team members need to identify the most effective leverage points to intervene and prevent the satisfaction of the needs from surpassing environmental limits.
2. **Addressing trade-offs within and between dimensions of the project: A wide range of values, beliefs, behaviours and interests of the target population residing in borderlands often conflict with each other.** *Understanding and addressing the*

conflicts and trade-offs between visions, goals, and objectives of the project which reflect those of the residents in borderlands are inevitable when designing and implementing MILIA-based projects, particularly when deciding on the allocation of resources and thresholds of goals or objectives. Identification of conflicts and trade-offs between visions, goals, and project objectives is often challenging. An interactive communication-based method such as Analytical Hierarchical Process (AHP) helps project managers and team members to identify potentially conflicting visions and goals, cluster similar objectives, and visualize and quantify the weights of the visions and goals or the objectives of the project.

Box 9. Analytical Hierarchical Process (AHP) identifying trade-offs within and between dimensions of the project

The Youth Volunteer Supporting Peace and Recovery in Darfur (YoVoReD) is a training project targeting youth based on an integrated approach to political, social and economic empowerment in Darfur, Sudan. Its fragile context is featured by that poverty, inequality, and environmental degradation widespread in Darfur have been exacerbated by tensions and violence between ethnicities and between groups working on animal husbandry and agriculture, and discrimination against women under a strongly patriarchal culture and tradition, or vice versa.

YoVoReD project aims to address multiple goals in the dimensions of social development with a focus on gender empowerment, economic development with a focus on vocational training and peace with a focus on negotiation skill training through the comprehensive training programme including gender empowerment, vocational training and negotiation skill elements for youth dispatched from local villages. Trainees, after the training, play the role of a key person in improving livelihood conditions in social, economic and peace dimensions.

A recent study (Kim et al. 2022) using Analytical Hierarchical Process (AHP) (Saaty 1980) reveals how the YoVoReD project harmonizes and avoids trade-offs and tensions between the visions and goals, and needs and concerns of multiple stakeholders (implementing agencies, local government officials, and beneficiaries). AHP is the multicriteria analysis technique for understanding the complexity of preferences and constructing hierarchic structures consisting of a goal, criteria and alternatives, which can help design and implement an integrated approach by avoiding and addressing tensions and trade-offs of various issues in multiple dimensions of the project. Different choices are paired for comparison for judgements by different stakeholders using numerical values taken from the AHP absolute fundamental scale of 1-9. These comparisons lead to dominance matrices from which ratio scales are derived in the form of principal eigenvectors. The synthesis of AHP combines multidimensional measurement scales into a single one-dimensional scale of priorities.

Based on the analysis using AHP, Kim et al. (2022) demonstrates how various the perceptions of challenges and problems (or concerns and needs) of different stakeholders are and how YoVoReD projects design and implement activities of the project to address these multiple concerns (e.g. lack of youth economic empowerment, lack of youth political empowerment, lack of community economic empowerment, and lack of community political empowerment) in a harmonized manner.

Source: Kim et al. 2022 and Melon et al. 2022

3. **A better rather than a perfect fit:** In the context of MULIA-based projects, interactions within and between many dimensions of the project create complexities. Project managers and team members may not be able to easily choose the most efficient or effective means to fit various elements in dimension and multiple dimensions. To support a better fit between the project and the contexts of borders and borderlands, they may have to choose the most appropriate tools to influence change within the social, political and environmental realities of their particular contexts. Therefore, MULIA-BP in borders and borderlands should be considered one of many relevant pathways rather than a sole pathway to the expected outcome. Project designers and managers should acknowledge the non-linearity and emergent nature of the project. The project should be understood as an “evolving” project which can guide and be linked with follow-up projects. It also implies that evaluators of the projects on borders and borderlands should acknowledge that a realistic, flexible and adaptive approach should be recognized as good practice.
4. **Pragmatic rather than mechanical responses to humanitarian, development and peace nexus:** Projects in borderlands are more likely to have the solutions to humanitarian concerns and elements to manage complex war or conflict-to-peace transitions. Humanitarian-development nexus or humanitarian-development-peace nexus, a form of the integrated approach to the “transition or overlap between the delivery of humanitarian assistance and the provision of long-term development assistance” (Strand 2020, Oelke and Scherer 2022), is a widely accepted discursive and institutional framework for many projects where humanitarian, development programmes and peacebuilding are needed at the same time. Like other integrated approach-based projects, the nexus approach has also proven easier said than done. HD or HDP nexus exists as a broad concept, leaving plenty of room for diverse interpretation and understanding and leading to different implementations of HD or HDP nexus. (Oele and Scherer 2022). Indeed, humanitarian action and development assistance have distinct institutional and discursive segments with different, well-established, diverse concepts, theories, ethics, principles, values, beliefs, and perceptions about emergencies. However, those concepts, theories, ethics, principles, values and beliefs and perceptions in either humanitarianism or development assistance are not blueprints or straightjacket but elements constituting frameworks which allow contextual interpretation and application by different actors in different settings. Prioritizing long-term development goals or humanitarian across the response should be within the framework of the right mix of humanitarian, development and peace approaches. The nexus approach should be to deliver timely humanitarian

assistance where needed or scale up development assistance when needed. Recognizing and responding to the changing contexts of the place where the HDP nexus approach is implemented is key to a successful implementation of the HDP nexus approach (Fanning and Fullwood-Thomas 2019).

A pragmatic stance of the project planners is particularly important to understand and concretize the humanitarian-development nexus or humanitarian-development-peace nexus into a project, particularly in the context of changing needs and situations related to the crisis in borders and borderlands.

5. **Team coordination:** When there is no dependence, there is nothing to coordinate (Malone and Crowston 1994). Coordination, therefore, refers to identifying and managing dependencies between activities. Therefore, the project team's coordination capacity is central to an IABP in borders and borderlands with complex problems associated with interdependencies. In the project context, they include: shared resource constraints (when the project activities require the same (limited resources); output as throughput (when one project activity proceeds with something that is used by another project activity); top-down goal decomposition (when a group of project activities are all “subtasks” for achieving some overall goal of the project); and shared reputation (when activities of one team affect the perception of external stakeholders, in particular beneficiaries about the project as a whole, including the other team) (Malone and Crowston 1994).

Coordination of divisions, departments or teams (herein work teams) working for the project refers to the processes and strategies the project employs to help their work teams to collaborate more effectively on their individual and collective goals. The establishment of good coordination or improvement of coordination is key to the success of a MULIABP. It ultimately aims to integrate and align interdependent members' actions, knowledge, and objectives to achieve common goals (Arrow et al. 2000, Brannick et al. 1995).

There are two types of team coordination: explicit and implicit (Cook 2020). Explicit coordination includes an organizational change to ensure better coordination between work teams. Examples include: a coordination team with authority, resources and supervisory power to coordinate sectoral projects or activities; effective network processes, delegation, planning and direction communication. Implicit coordination refers to how work teams adapt to the project's changing needs and other teams' changing needs proactively on their own, apart from the rules and regulations imposed by explicit coordination (see the Box X Coordination of work teams). Examples are knowledge and information transfer using the information technology of group work or cooperative work based on culture and behaviour patterns to facilitate ICT-based knowledge and information transfer. (see the Box X Knowledge and information transfer using the information technology of group work or cooperative work).

Box 10. Coordination of work teams

People from different divisions, departments or teams (herein work teams) may have different value systems, work principles and modus operandi. Coordination of work teams is to keep these different teams aligned and focussed on the common goal, i.e. achievement of the project's goals and objectives, and facilitate cross-team collaboration.

Coordination should address the obstacles to cross-team collaboration, such as less clear governance structure, poor accountability and unspecified goals, culture and work patterns of siloed work teams, and less institutionalized cross-team collaboration.

To facilitate collaboration between teams, coordination between teams should be a clear strategic goal in all project management processes. Coordination should be assumed by a high-level coordinator who has been trained for the management of collaboration. The coordinator should consider diversity aspects related to disciplinary knowledge and culture.

And each team should have a leader who is accountable from the very beginning to the very end of the process within that team. And the team leader should hold his team members accountable for their assigned tasks.

Developing and applying a process that governs how work will be done across individual roles and responsibilities. In particular coordinator in this process should explicitly recognise every team member's contributions toward effective collaboration and goal attainment.

Source: (Boughzala and de Vreede 2015)

Box 11. Knowledge and information transfer using the information technology of group work or cooperative work

In MULIA-BP, a network of many work teams conducts diverse activities for the project. They are building blocks of the internal network of the project. To coordinate these work teams, the flow of knowledge and information has been recognized as crucial. The benefits of a knowledge and information transfer process are significantly influenced by the connection between the sending and receiving teams, including the mechanisms and channels used to transmit the knowledge and information since these mechanisms and channels often determine the amount of knowledge shared, both at sending and receiving teams. ICT such as groupware, computer-supported cooperative work (electronic knowledge repositories, wikis), intranet, e-mail, portals and online communities) is widely used to make these mechanisms and channels efficient and effective.

However, ICT can hardly contribute to organisational knowledge transfer without establishing the culture and behaviour pattern to facilitate knowledge transfer. To facilitate knowledge and information transfer through ICT, the project needs to create organizational culture and behaviour patterns of work teams that

- 1) have the willingness and capacity to share knowledge and information with other work teams from within the project
- 2) have the capacity to produce correct knowledge and classify information
- 3) have the ability to absorb, i.e. identify, assimilate and exploit the knowledge provided by the sender
- 4) share underlying knowledge base
- 5) have trust in other work teams with the project
- 6) have the willingness to have a process of “show-how” in addition to knowledge transfer through ICT, in particular regarding non-codifiable element

Source: Szasz et al. 2017.

6. **Continuous adaptation:** Impact, sustainability, and effectiveness are the keywords of the projects. In a volatile environment of borders and borderlands, there is a continuous demand for adaptation to newer conditions as the project is implemented. In the volatile contexts of borders and borderlands, donors, funders and grant-makers should be ready to support justified adaptation and refocusing of project strategies during implementation as long as the project can deliver improvements to stakeholders and communities. And when the risks are exceptionally high, there should be fast-go/no-go decisions. To sustain these changing conditions, there arises the need for a MULIA-based project in which new dimensions responding to changing conditions are continuously integrated into the project. One of the issues to which project managers and team members need to pay attention for continuous adaptation is information technology, in particular, software for computer-supported cooperative work or groupware by which a vastly large number of people use computing and communications capabilities to help coordinate their responses to the changing conditions in almost real-time (Malone and Crowston 1994) (see Box X. Examples of information technology of group work or cooperative work). This software can help establish the so-called “adhocracies”, that is, rapidly changing organizations with highly decentralized networks of shifting project teams in volatile contexts of borders and borderlands (Toffler 1970)
7. **Multiple ways to establish goals:** A typical process of planning MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands is to establish multiple goals (i.e. goal selection) and then decompose these goals into subgoals (i.e. goal decomposition) which together will constitute the original goals. Goals and objectives can be established bottom-up based on needs assessment and participatory processes. However, it is also possible for the project planners to establish project goals and objectives differently. For instance, project planners can review and identify previous projects in the same region that have goals connected with the newly planned project (Malone and Crowston 1994). Based on the

goals and results of the previous projects, the project planners can design a new project with goals closely aligned with the changed conditions resulting from the previous projects. In this case, needs assessment and participatory process are essential more than ever since new projects combining new goals and the goals and objectives of the previous projects should take into account changing contexts and situations when designing and implementing (see the Box X. KOICA's Peace Village Development Projects).

Box 12. Integration of mine action and comprehensive rural development using existing projects and programmes: KOICA's Peace Village Development Projects

Kim and Kim (2022)'s research on KOICA's mine action and peace village projects in the borderlands of the Mekong region demonstrates how a project or programme develops into a more integrated form through horizontal scaling-up, which can be realized through quantitative expansion and replication, vertical scaling-up through strengthening capacity and institutionalization, and functional scaling up that seeks more significant impact on a programme level with a holistic approach (integrating new elements or 'piggyback' on existing programmes). In the Mekong region, Kim & Kim argues that in Lao PDR and Cambodia, KOICA's Peace Village Development Projects (PVDP) integrated mine action with comprehensive rural community development through the mixture of these scaling-up processes, in particular, combining existing projects. PVDP integrated the removal of UXO and landmines (Peace), protection of human rights of the disabled and mine victims (People), and inclusive rural development (Prosperity) in consideration of cross-cutting issues of gender, environment, and climate change. Needs and capacity assessment as a comprehensive situational analysis for each targeted province and active involvement of diverse stakeholders were key elements to successfully design and implement the project based on a mixed scaling-up process. Donors' strong-willed program implementation and proactive engagement by the middle-ground facilitators (mine action authorities or local communities) were crucial enablers for a holistic, integrated scaling-up of projects.

Source: Kim and Kim (2022).

4.2. Design of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands

Understanding of lifecycle of an international development project helps to create templates and checklists which project managers and team members use to do timely validation of the project's direction throughout the project cycle. It also helps to create a discipline of documented lessons learned that are transmitted from project to project (Zeitoun 2002). Although the MULIA project cycle is similar to that of a typical international development project cycle, it has several unique features. Firstly, the preparation phase needs a careful context and situation analysis through which project planners can decide whether MULIABP is needed for and fits the targeted population and community. Secondly, in the design stage, assessing organizational capacity, in

particular, the 8(8), is important since project performance or its management itself demands a specific set of knowledge, experience and skills in the context of borders and borderlands (see 8) Competent project manager with high interpersonal skills in 2.6. Successful factors of integrated approaches). Thirdly, in the implementation phase, it needs to pay more attention to risks and threats compared to the traditional project in the centre. Finally, evaluation needs to incorporate an additional dimension of integratedness to assess a project's success.

Table 4. A Typical Project Life Cycle for a MULIA-based Project in Borderlands (INCOMPLETE. Design in progress)

Stage/Phase	Preparation	Project Design	Implementation	Closure	Ex-post evaluation
Product/process /deliverable	Content Analysis and Situation analysis, Project proposal, Stakeholder analysis, Cost and benefit analysis, Project charter, Project management plan, information gathering	Budget and cost estimates, Scope statement, Project Schedule, Stakeholder Engagement Plan, Stakeholder Agreements, Project Objectives Project Outcomes, Project Deliverables, Risk Management Plan,	Create multi-stakeholder project Team, resource mobilization, deliverable, project outcomes, lessons learned register, work performance data, direction and managing of project work, change management, coordinating with partners	Final report, M&E Reports, knowledge management	
Decision Maker	Project manager, Project team, Donors	Project manager, project team, experts, beneficiaries	Project manager, project team, beneficiaries	Project manager, project team, M&E team	Ex-post Evaluation Team
Stakeholder involvement		Defining the project goals and objectives, identifying priorities	Provide feedback	Provide feedback	Provide feedback

4.2.1. Assessing the context of MULIABP

The first step in designing MULIABP is to understand the contextual conditions that influence the project. The context can be analysed with a focus on challenges in the following eleven categories¹². They are: Political; Legal; Cultural; Technical; Managerial/organizational; Economical; Environmental; Social; Corruption; Natural; and Violence and conflicts challenges. The information and knowledge of the context can be useful for the situation analysis, too (see 4.2.2 Situation analysis).

Political challenge

Political challenges refer to issues at the national and regional level, including inconsistency in policies, laws, and regulations and political instability. These challenges increase uncertainty about the return on investment in development projects. In most cases, the probability of a political challenge is small, but its impact is relatively significant. Underdeveloped institutions and civil society, coupled with political instability due to frequent changes of governments, accelerate the abrupt change of policies which adversely affects the achievement of development project objectives. Factors to increase political challenges include: a political takeover or military coup; war or revolution; allegations of corruption causing government resignation, and nationalization of assets with or without adequate compensation. It is difficult to understand the political challenge when the project's site is in borderlands where the central government have lost their monopoly on the legitimate use of violence. At the same time, the internal sovereignty of the local power can facilitate the circulation of weapons, the establishment of bases, and the recruitment and training of recruits among minorities whose grievances against the central government (Innes 2007, Gray and La Tour 2010, Radil, Irmischer and Walther 2022).

Legal challenge

Legal challenges refer to issues at the national and regional level (sometimes international level), including changes in government policies, laws and regulations. They tend to affect issues including pricing, taxation, royalties, ownership, arbitration, convertibility, corporate law, accounting rules, funds remittances, process regulation, organization and environmental issues (Cho 1999). Law is essential to drawing lines between national identities and the country's boundaries. Borders are constructed in law through formal controls on entry and exit, the construction of rights and duties of citizenship and non-citizenship, and the regulation or legitimation of state power (Dudziak and Volpp 2005). Planners of MULIABP should understand the laws exercised in the project areas, particularly those directly and indirectly, related to the project activities. They should also pay attention to the changes in the laws affecting the conditions and expectations according to which projects are designed and implemented since they sometimes negatively affect projects.

¹² This is a modified version of Young Hoon Kwark, Critical Success Factors in International Development Project Management in 10th Symposium Construction Innovation and Global Competitiveness edited by Ben Obinero Uwakwe, Isaam A. Minkarah
https://books.google.fr/books?hl=en&lr=&id=i1BuBwAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PA358&dq=project+development+and+management+&ots=FtO_nGVf_0&sig=LYDnlhsD2D2C9RB2iRIQv_L80OU&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=project%20development%20and%20management&f=false

Cultural challenge

A cultural challenge to a development project is the least known but the most hazardous challenge. It is equally so in the case of a project in borders and borderlands. Firstly, international consultants or consultants from outside of the borders and borderlands may have different socio-cultural backgrounds from those of the residents or beneficiaries of borders and borderlands. Those consultants, even though familiar with the socio-cultural backgrounds of the centre of the country, may not be familiar with the specific customs and cultures of the borderlands. It may result in setting the wrong objectives and goals of development projects and directing development efforts at the wrong groups. In the worst-case scenario, a lack of knowledge about project areas can result in the rejection of the project by the intended beneficiaries in the borderlands, which may result in conflicts.

Understanding culture is particularly important to formulate MULIABP in borders and borderlands. Cultural differences emerge in many forms, from assumptions to project design to technology transfer and management styles (Staudt 1991). Experts from different agencies and sectors have different intellectual assets and principles of discipline and sometimes different vocabularies and concepts. They may have different approaches to engineering and project management practices. This may cause a conflict of interests, extra pressure on execution, and frustration, which restrains or obstructs project progress and often leads to lost opportunities. It can result in project cost overruns and schedule delays.

To make MULIABP in borders and borderlands, the project manager must take cultural factors of tradition, values, customs, and beliefs in the project area into consideration and familiarize themselves with concepts and vocabularies, basic assumptions and principles of different sectors of development at the project planning stage, so that project objectives are consistent with the values and customs of the stakeholders in borderlands. An understanding of the project objectives and processes should be shared amongst all the staff involved.

Technical challenge

Technical challenges refer to the issues associated with the application or use of technology, including design, engineering, procurement, construction, equipment installation and operation of the equipment and its compatibility with the accomplishment of project objectives. Since the project sites in borders and borderlands usually lack adequate infrastructure, technical standards, specifications and application and construction methods of technology should be carefully selected to be appropriate to the local infrastructures and financial, human, and material resource conditions.

Box 13. Example of the project addressing technical challenge: Improvement of the cross-border Wifi Internet Communication and internet access at the level of Oradea Metropolitan Area and Debrecen City (DiGiConnect)

One of the ways to address the technical challenge is to establish a project aiming to address the technical challenge in borderlands specifically. The DiGiConnect project is a good example. The project has the main idea of installing some WiFi host spot points and fixing internet access points in the rural area of the Oradea Metropolitan Area (Communes: Bors, Biharia, Cetariu, Paleu, Osorhei, Ineu,

Sinmartin, Nojorid, Santandrei, Girisu de Cris, Toboliu) and Debrecen City. The project offers a solution to cross-border information transfer and communication (people to people and people to economic actors) at the level of rural and urban areas. The project aims to help the schools, residents, public institutions, and visitors (investors and tourists) to communicate, get information, transfer information, solve administrative duties and banking, reduce isolation and achieve many other purposes related to internet access and digital communication. The project planners recognized the importance of a modern WiFi connection and internet access points in the context of a developed union of European countries and cross-border cooperation. One of the project's outcomes is economic development and cohesion. The project results are accessible for free for everybody, without any discrimination (related to SDG10) and the used technology respects the principles of environment protection (environment-related SDGs).

Source: (European Union 2015).

Managerial/Organizational challenge

Managerial or organizational challenge is common in all development projects but particularly common in projects based on an integrated approach. The managerial or organizational challenge is often from the following: inadequate communication, unclear objectives, too optimistic goals concerning project cost and schedule, lack of project sponsorship, unclear lines of responsibility, authority and accountability, slow and cumbersome decision-making process, lack of training of the local staff for sustainability and lack of end-user participation. All the factors causing managerial or organizational challenges are pertinent to an integrated approach which involves staff from different sectors. In borders and borderlands where management activities cover more dimensions (related to security issues), managerial and organizational challenges are more significant than the project in the country's centre. Allocation of more resources in managerial and organizational activities is required, which is partly related to the following economic challenge.

Economic challenge

Economic challenge refers to the issues associated with the conditions and availability of financial resources at both macro and micro levels. Both economic and political factors can cause economic challenges. They include increased competition, decreased consumption and regulatory changes causing changes in the conditions of concessions awarded to the project. Political instability in borders and borderlands affects economic conditions significantly and makes project development plan inaccurate.

Environmental challenge

Borderlands can vary ecologically, ranging from desert scrub to forest woodlands to wetland marshes, both freshwater and salt. Many factors conflict with established environmental regulations of the countries facing borders. They include: pollution-related factors, security-related factors and economic factors. One country's unsustainable consumption of natural resources, including minerals, water, land, flora and fauna, can affect borders and the other country facing the border. Fortified or militarized borderlands significantly disrupt the natural ecosystems of the area in which they are located. For instance, they affect a species' geographic

range, or area in which it is found and sometimes, by putting natural habitats at risk, alter patterns of nature (such as natural water flows, seasonal migration of wildlife, and wildfires) and exacerbate the risks of natural disasters impacting people and animals. Threats to the ecosystem in borderlands are increasing since, in many countries, defence-related laws waive environmental rules and regulations in the name of national security. Cross-border pollution is a growing international problem. Wind and water don't respect national boundaries, and one country's pollution quickly becomes another country's environmental and often economic crisis. Further, when the problem originates in another country, it is not easy to find a solution since the solution often should be made through long and complex diplomatic or international negotiations. If the origin and affected areas of cross-border pollution (e.g. polluted water and air and toxic chemicals) are not remote from the borderlands themselves, cross-border pollution may also be a problem the MULIABP aims to address.

Social challenge

In borderlands, it is common to find diverse familial forms associated with cross-border movements, such as migrant, mobile and mixed families with their particular geographical morphologies, such as transnational, pluri-local, separated or reunited families. Various socio-economic and political conditions such as socio-economic positions, occupations, nationality, legal security, access to citizenship and mobility rights create fluid and complex social formations and intersect in complex ways with the level of (non)movement of people across the borders. One of the social challenges MULIABP needs to analyse and understand, in addition to the usual ones on the social conditions and challenges, is associated with familial forms associated with borders, which are often called transnational families. Central to understanding social challenges is a possible disconnection between family and household, often associated with transnational care and parenting. It is also essential to pay attention to new family and community rituals such as calls and video calls, home visits, family gatherings, widespread economic activities such as gifts and remittances and patterns of transnational lives associated with length of stay and the patterns of being home and away. It is particularly important to pay attention to gender, and generation issues related to social challenges of borderlands and borders since women and children living in borderlands do not share the same experiences, concerns and expectations in terms of transitional mobility as those male adults (Dreby 2006, Parreñas 2008, Parrenas 2001, Bonizzoni and Leonini 2020). In most cases, all these factors have more significant implications for the projects than those in the centre. Analysing and understanding social conditions and challenges in borders and borderlands is increasingly important as the number of people who cross borders due to climate change, environmental degradation, and natural disasters is growing while the number of countries building walls and securing borders to prevent the movement of people is increasing.

Corruption challenge

Several factors make border activities vulnerable to corruption. They include: poor external oversight, the level of autonomy and discretionary authority of border officials, inadequate salary and working conditions of border officials, high tariffs and complex regulatory frameworks incentivizing bribes, the pressure of organized crime networks, and the organizational nature of border protection agencies. Corruption at borders takes various forms, including petty bribery, bureaucratic corruption, misappropriation, organized crime-related corruption and political corruption. Border-related corruption affects various dimensions. In addition to the direct impact

on customs, there are also other impacts on intra-regional trade, international exports, revenue collection, and the general business environment. It particularly affects a wide range of cross-border crimes, such as smuggling people and illicit goods, drug and human trafficking, weapon trafficking, terrorist activities, fuelling violence, and insecurity in the border regions. It also adversely affects long-term economic growth through its impact on investment, taxation, public expenditures and human development, the regulatory environment, and the legitimacy and efficiency of state institutions and their interventions (Chêne 2022).

Natural disaster challenge

Many communities in the borderlands are located in natural disaster-prone areas, and people are more exposed to hazardous events. Communities in the borderlands, if they are in a populated area, are particularly vulnerable to natural disasters such as wildfires, floods, and landslides, especially when there is a lack of coordinated and cooperative efforts on both sides of the border. The movement of people after natural disasters, i.e. crossing the border to flee for perceived sanctuary or support relatives living on the other side of the border, often makes responses to natural disaster challenge more complicated. For planners of the MULIABP, regarding these natural disaster challenges, one of the most important conditions to be checked is whether there is an inclusive and collaborative disaster governance networks and structures that extend across national borders (Hannigan 2018). The checklist may include the usual elements of disaster risk management, including risk assessment, mitigation, planning, training and exercises for a response, and a good recovery plan that incorporates cross-border events' political, social and diplomatic challenges (Edwards 2009).

Box 14. Dominican Response to the Haiti Earthquake

One of the good practices regarding inclusive and collaborative disaster governance networks and structures that extend across national borders is the response of the Dominican Republic, Haiti's closest neighbour to the Haiti earthquake. In the immediate aftermath of the earthquake, the Dominican Republic sent massive cross-border emergency assistance teams to Haiti, providing critical medical assistance, logistics support, and humanitarian aid. It played the role of a vital first responder to the crisis in Haiti, reaching earthquake victims well before the arrival of any other international actors. The case of the Dominican Republic serving as the first responder to the Haiti earthquake is particularly insightful since it shows that even though the Dominican Republic is a low-income country with little experience in international response, it has extensive know-how in managing its own, a primarily weather-related disaster which is similar to that of Haiti, the other side of its border. The combination of geographic proximity, ground knowledge, and will to help, capabilities that proved indispensable to Haitians in the hours and days following the earthquake, made the Dominican republic case one of the best practices of inclusive and collaborative disaster governance networks and structures that extend across national borders.

Source: Forman and White 2011.

Violence and conflicts challenge

Borderlands are the spaces for the legitimacy and security of states because of their association with sovereignty and the provision of order. They are also spaces where non-state groups bypass or challenge the state's legitimacy and security. This dualistic nature, common in many borderlands, particularly in North and Sub-Saharan Africa, is often considered universal to all the borderlands where the state and non-state actors confront each other. However, not all borderlands are the same in terms of the intensity and frequency of violence and conflicts, and the evolution of conflict is a complex and dynamic process affected by the characteristics of the borderland in question and the large geopolitical context underpinning the violence and conflict (Radil, Irmischer, and Walther 2021). The intensity and frequency of violence and conflicts in the borderlands where state and non-state actors confront each other are more likely to be high when the state control of borderlands is ephemeral since it is difficult for the state to manage and control the movement of people. The weak state control of the borderlands is common in long stretches of borderlands in a dry, flat, and largely sparsely inhabited region (Trémolières, Walther, and Radil 2020). Planners of the MULIABP need to understand the overall relationships between violence and borderlands region-wide on the one hand, and the impacts of the violence on civilian populations, policy responses to such violence, and the root causes of the conflicts that make the region remain inaccessible on the other. Planners of MULIABP should also check how and to what extent states achieve and maintain internal sovereignty in the project site areas and whether the government has the will to counter non-government actors. One additional issue which should be taken into account is that armed groups tend to relocate some of their activities to neighbouring countries easily when the central government forces lead a significant counteroffensive in the region of their bases. Safe areas for the project can now easily be turned into a haven for armed groups under certain circumstances.

4.2.2. Situation analysis

Situation analysis includes needs assessment, problem analysis and stakeholder analysis. It is a crucial part of project planning since it helps to demonstrate logical links between the identified problems and their causes, frames the problems in a cultural and/or social context, and suggests possible approaches (Brock and Columbia 2008, Meehan 2022). The situation analysis should be conducted with the full participation of project stakeholders.

Data analysis and the needs assessment methods, including observation, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion, mapping, and workshops, help to identify problems and their causes and consequences, and information about these problems, such as national and local regulations and policies that affect these problems. Due to the complexities specific to borders and borderlands, needs are more diverse in borders and borderlands. And people who participated in the needs assessment processes did not provide correct information on real and perceived needs and desired interventions. The needs identified through needs assessment methods may not be consistent with the needs identified by the literature review or observations. The project planners should identify this inconsistency and find a way to identify the beneficiaries' real needs.

In borderlands, top-down strategies responding to national security agendas interact with the needs of inhabitants of borderlands and the specific interests of unique circumstances of local authorities of the borderlands. Sometimes, in the case of open borders, inhabitants of the

borderlands are also involved in a host of relationships across the border. The bi-national interactions between the central government and local authorities and the relationship across the border make stakeholder analysis in the context of borderlands much more complicated since inhabitants routinely engage with this bi-national interaction (Alper and Hammond 2011). Stakeholder analysis in the context of borderlands to gain knowledge of the needs, attitudes and perspectives of border stakeholders requires special attention in addition to the conventional stakeholder analysis since stakeholders experience the border territorially, institutionally and culturally. For instance, stakeholders who work and live in cross-border communities face challenges specific to borderlands and borders, such as inadequate border infrastructure and lack of input in border-related decisions (Alper and Hammond 2011). In the case of open borders, they facilitate trade and tourism while protecting their security and cultures (Papademetriou and Meyers 2001). Through the accumulated experiences with the border, stakeholders formulate their ideas, attitudes, perceptions and interests related to borders and borderlands, including how the borderlands should work and how the conditions of borderlands should be changed. (Alper and Hammond 2011). The project planners, keeping in mind these specific features of stakeholder analysis in borders and borderlands, can utilize the standard tools of the project design matrix.

Box 15. Key steps of situation analysis for MULIA-BP in borderlands

Situation analysis is a process of critically evaluating internal and external conditions that affect a project which is conducted prior to a project launch. It helps to gain knowledge about the context of the project, identify current opportunities, challenges and risks to the project, identify broad project goals and important linkages between goals, devise a strategy to move forward from the current situation to the desired situation and share a common understanding of the overarching goals of the project among project amongst project team members.

In a broad sense, it is composed of six steps: Understand the broad context; Identify local challenges; Assess the organisation's capacity; Choose broad goals; Identify linkages between goals; and Reassess the local context.

In the step of understanding the broad context, information on the following issues is often needed: population profile, education profile, economic profile, environmental profile, political profile, and cultural profile. In borderlands of developing countries, particularly those with porous borders, accurate information on these issues is often unavailable. For situational analysis, the estimate often suffices.

In the step of identifying local challenges, significant challenges or problems people and the environment in the areas face should be identified. Consultation with the local community through workshops, surveys or interviews to identify problems and challenges from the perspective of the local community is helpful. From the perspective of MULIA, it is critically important to be as broad as possible when identifying problems. And it is also important to understand the severity of each problem, its root causes and the broad groups of people and environment affected

by these problems. Tools such as 5C Analysis (Company, Competitors, Customers, Collaborators, and Climate) can be used in this step.

In the step of assessing the capacity of the organization, capacities of your organization such as the capacity of staff, relationships, obstacles and insufficiencies of the organization and its staff members (in particular those who would participate in the project) are assessed by various tools such as SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis and SCOPE (Situation, Core Competencies, Obstacles, Prospects and Expectations) Analysis.

In the step of choosing broad goals, broad problems and goals to address those problems through the project are chosen. The problems and goals reflect the strengths and weaknesses and what can and cannot be done by the project. The scope of problems and goals should be broad as follows: low level of education among youth and improvement of education levels amongst youth within the community, scarce economic opportunities of youth (particularly women) and improving the economic opportunities for youth (particularly women), and high level of violence and decreasing rates of violence. Tools such as 5C Analysis (Company, Competitors, Customers, Collaborators, and Climate) can be used in this step.

The step of identifying linkages between goals is particularly important in IABP. This step aims to develop a comprehensive list and map of all potential linkages. Participation of all the direct and indirect stakeholders of the project in developing a list of potential linkages is crucial. The hierarchy of the linkages can be established through various methods such as AHP and Likert Scale. Although the less-important linkages will fall to the bottom of the list, they should be excluded entirely from the start. The list and map of potential linkages should include clear explanations of: what goals are linked with each other, why participants think they are linked, and what problems threaten the linkage.

The last step of reassessing the local context is to reassess the context reflecting the broad problems and goals. It helps project planners focus on more specific problems, goals and tasks and elaborate the project's design. Tools such as 5C Analysis (Company, Competitors, Customers, Collaborators, and Climate) can be used in this step.

Source: (Grassroots Collective 2018)

Developing a strategic view of the relationships between different stakeholders and the issues they care about most is one of the central elements of situational analysis. Various stakeholder mapping techniques help develop this strategic view. One of the most used ones is the power/interest matrix (Medelow 1981). Through the power/interest matrix, it is possible to understand to what extent each stakeholder is interested in impressing its expectations on the project decisions and to what extent each stakeholder has the power to impress its expectations on the project decisions. Through this power/interest matrix, project management can thus produce a better picture of how communication and relationships between stakeholders can affect the project and its implementation (Ferretti 2016). After this process of developing a strategic view of the stakeholders, based on the information on the power and interests of

stakeholders, the project can invite key stakeholders to participate in dialogues or brainstorming sessions where cognitive mapping techniques can be used to identify and discuss the objectives to be pursued with a more systematic and interdisciplinary approach. A plurality of points of view provided by key stakeholders allows us to imagine different possible approaches to the problems the project aims to address, intervention methods, and decisional procedures. Identifying linkages between goals is crucial in making a comprehensive list and map of all potential linkages. Project planners should identify integrated goals and targets which IABP should address (see Box 15 for the Key steps of situation analysis for MULIA-BP in borderlands).

Project planners should proactively evaluate the project environment to identify the stakeholders and factors that need special attention. In particular, project managers and team members need to understand and accommodate stakeholders interested in the project's outputs (e.g. residents in borderlands). Many projects fail due to inadequate consultation and weak acceptance of the project during design and implementation (Zeitoun 2002). In addition, in a MULIA-based project, project managers should have a deep understanding of policies and attitudes of policymakers towards the borders and borderlands where the project is launched. Policymakers with no direct interest in a particular project may create conditions to dramatically change the political, economic, social and cultural environments in borderlands, and borders may have significant consequences for a particular project. Since they affect the project environment significantly, they are also important stakeholders to whom project managers and team members should pay attention.

In conventional projects, project premises are often defined by administrative geography. But in MULIA-BP across borders and borderlands, project planners should recognize the geographical areas affected by project consequences as relevant project premises since the carved up project areas in accordance with national territories do not always correspond to areas affected by the projects. For instance, the carved-up ocean space in accordance with national zones is not always corresponding to distinct ecological systems or activity systems. Sometimes, spectacular events (e.g. natural disasters) are linked to the gradual, protracted development patterns and how the benefits of specific groups are related to society in general or other groups within the project. In this way, the premises of a project related to the spectacular events can be expanded to the areas shaped by general patterns and structures, which can have a more widespread impact in the broader area.

4.2.3. Setting goals and objectives

One of the crucial elements of project planning is the goals and objectives. Integration of objectives and goals concerns decision-making in specific domains that take policy goals of multiple sectors, arguably adjacent, into account. Actors are expected to be aware of policies' cross-sectorial implications and exhibit a willingness to engage in integration.

There are two specific features of the goals and objectives of the MULIABP in borders and borderlands. First, there are multiple goals and objectives whose linkages and hierarchy should be identified. Secondly, the MULIABP has as its default goal integratedness, including integration of goals and objectives, coordination of sectoral activities and collaboration between work teams (See Box X. An example of MULIABP goals related to integratedness). For instance, strengthening the coordination system of partners, strengthening multi-sectoral engagement with beneficiaries, and combining SDGs are the activities contributing to achieving this default goal of

the MULIABP. The second feature related to the integratedness of goals and objectives is unique since it is very rare that projects have a specific goal related to collaboration and coordination, which are key elements to making synergies. Therefore, MULIABP in borders and borderlands should identify and combine goals and objectives and include a goal related to integratedness into project design.

Box 16. An example of MULIABP's goals related to integratedness

USAID’s CHAIN project is an excellent example of MULIABP with a specific goal related to integratedness. Although designed as an integrated approach with organizational integration, the initially approved Result Framework does not have an outcome specifically related to coordination and collaboration. The Independent mid-term review team suggested including outcomes related explicitly to an integrated approach, particularly coordination and collaboration between partners (Park, Yoon, and Ahn 2021; David et al. 2018). The revised Result Framework suggested by the independent mid-term review team, if followed, will direct “implementing partners to participate and strengthen coordination mechanisms at national level (output 4.1), at district level (output 4.2), and to ensure collaboration with one another that demonstrates benefits to clients (output 4.3)”(David et al. 2018:96).

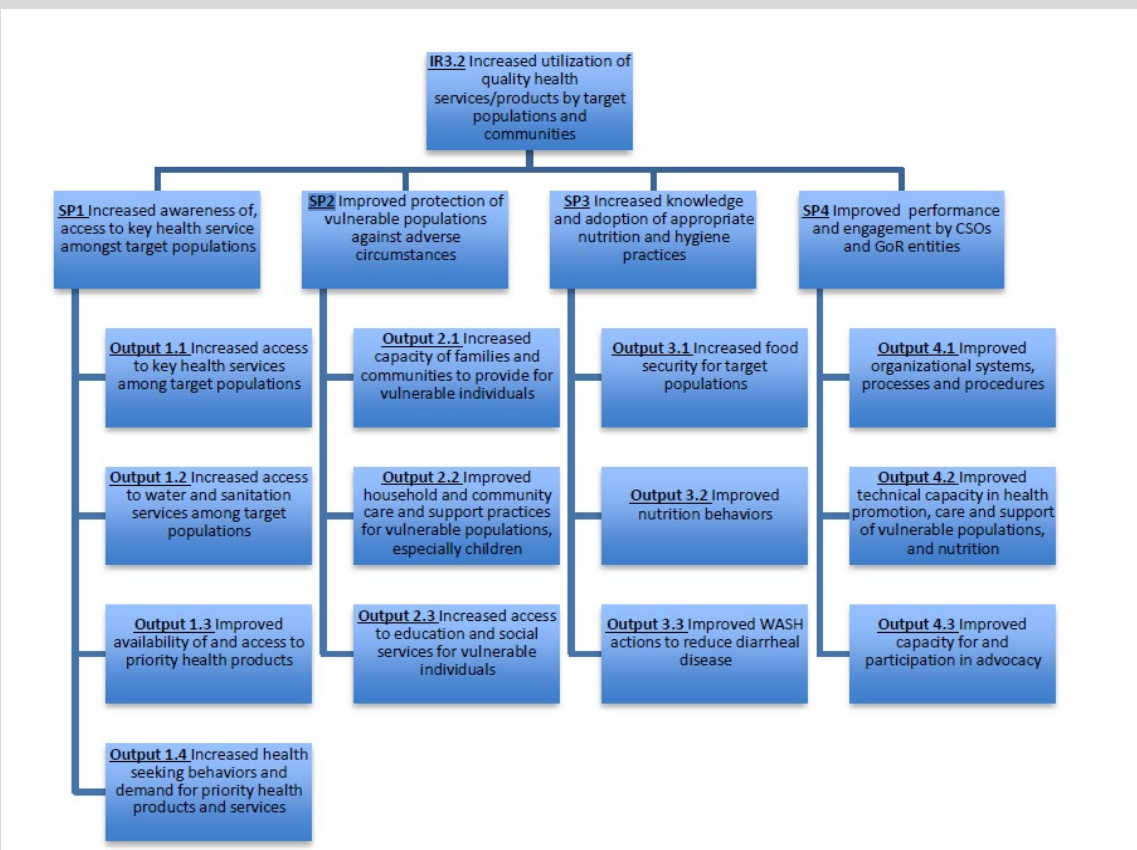


Figure 4. Original CHAIN Results Framework From PAD

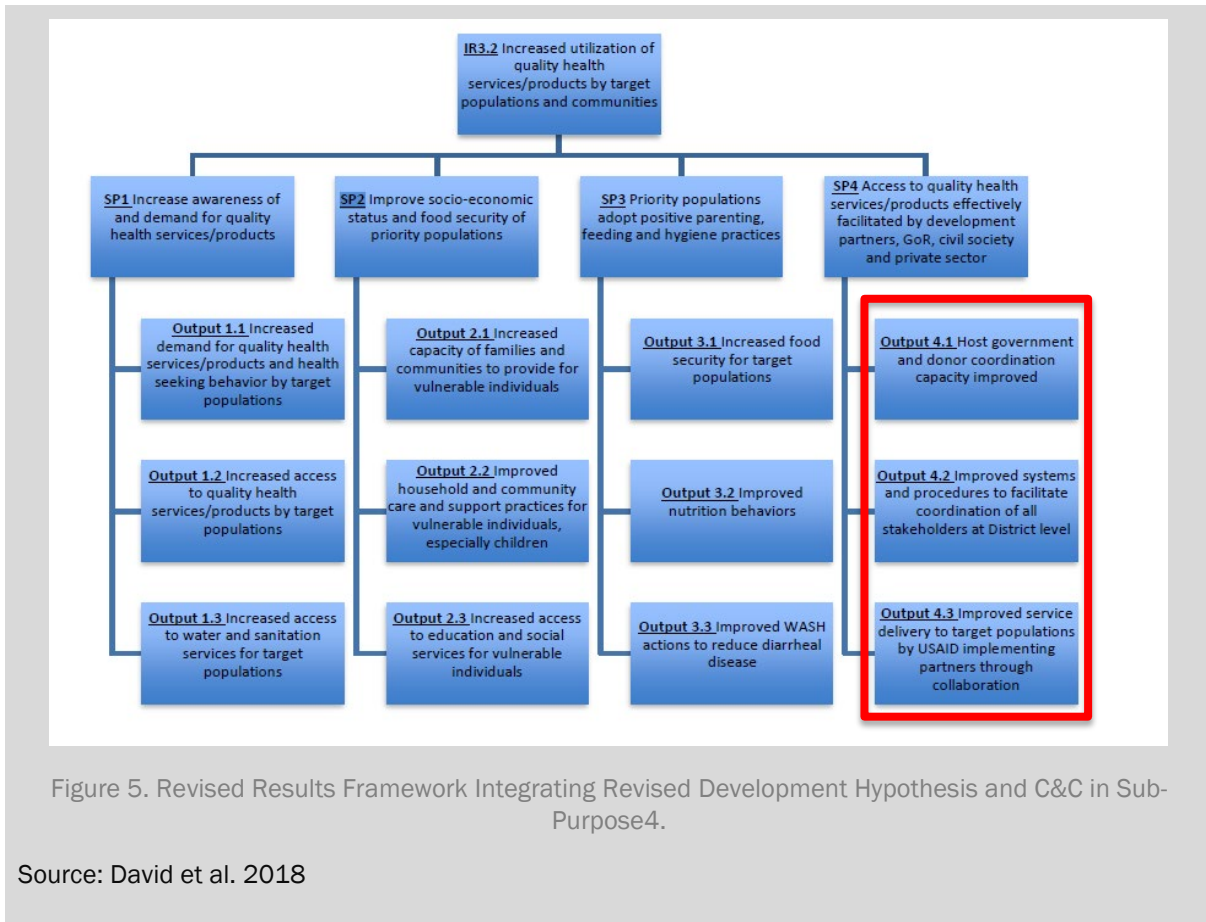


Figure 5. Revised Results Framework Integrating Revised Development Hypothesis and C&C in Sub-Purpose 4.

Source: David et al. 2018

4.2.4. Assessment of organizational capacity

MULIABP in borders and borderlands requires additional steps beyond those of conventional assessment of organizational capacity. They include: assessing organizational capacity in integrating multiple goals and objectives into goals and objectives of the MULIABP or in integrating a specific goal or objective into another goal or objective of an ongoing project and the capacity of the project manager.

Organizational capacity for integration

Interventions based on MULIA have significant variability in their success in integrating diverse elements in different project dimensions (see 2.4. Dimensions of integration) at the project level. Organizational capacity is one of the significant variables in determining the level of integration. They include: knowledge and information on the linkages between sectors, institutional experience on IABP, and organizational and institutional mechanisms (including funding structure) associated with delivering goods and services related to multiple goals and objectives (USAID 2021, Cash-Gibson and Rosenmoller 2014). Knowledge and information leading to successful integration are usually highly context-specific. Therefore, exporting or importing specific knowledge and information on the linkages between sectors from one project to another should be conducted considering context specificity and limited transferability. Project planners should check the context, resources, capacity and commitment to an integrated approach, history of change and innovation and beneficiary-centredness of the project from which knowledge and information are drawn.

Institutional experience and organizational and institutional mechanisms associated with the integrated approach, i.e. delivery of goods and services related to multiple goals and objectives, are other factors that determine the organizational capacity for integration. Experiences of the project planners and implementers with a commitment to an integrated approach can be transferred through both formal and informal communication channels and affect the decision-making process, taking into account multiple value criteria and attributes of various ideas on the project. A funding mechanism with a funding envelope to allocate resources specifically for IABP or funding for cross-sectoral issues such as gender and climate change which can be integrated into all other sectoral projects is a particularly important mechanism to facilitate the design and implementation of IABP.

Polymath project manager whose knowledge and expertise span several fields and disciplines

It isn't easy to decide on the organizational design of the project without also deciding on whom to be selected as the project manager. In general, project managers are expected to have the ability to combine technical knowledge of the subject matter with general management skills to lead the entire project team. Many project managers tend to start their careers with a specific technical knowledge base that may result from an academic degree. And they tend to develop their careers by focusing on micro-specialization and years of advanced technical training, which broadly correspond to this specific technical knowledge (Schneyer 2007). The MULIA-based project, however, requires a kind of project manager whose knowledge and expertise span several sectors, fields and disciplines. Identifying or becoming a well-rounded polymath project manager is difficult but not impossible. Project managers who continuously build a strong base of knowledge, skill and experience, and learn techniques to acquire needed subject-matter expertise quickly, then convert the knowledge, skill, experience and technique into trusted relationships with beneficiaries and team members can become a polymath project manager. Suppose the project manager has weak or no knowledge and skillset which are required for a MULIA-based project. In that case, it is also a good idea to appoint a project coordinator who entices the functional departments into performing the work on schedule and within budget and informs and assists the project manager in solving conflicts between functional departments.

4.3. Implementation of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands

Project implementation (or project execution) is the stage where visions, goals, objectives and plans become a reality. It requires the coordination of a wide range of activities, diverse institutional arrangements, and different time frames for activities. In general, a project is implemented within two frameworks: normative frameworks and organizational frameworks. Normative frameworks are laws, policies and regulatory mechanisms at different levels of governance (e.g. global, national, provincial, and local authorities) that constitute the rules and regulations by which the project activities should abide. Since informal norms are also important in borders and borderlands where multiple cultures shape the thinking and behaviours of people, normative frameworks also include informal norms, particularly those directly related to the project activities. The normative framework often provides what the project is or is not allowed to do and the responsibility of the project for various aspects of life and environment of the border and borderlands.

Organizational frameworks (or sometimes called institutional frameworks) refer to a set of formal organizational structures and rules. They shape all the activities such as forms, mechanisms, informational and capacity building to produce project outputs and facilitate and exercise stakeholder participation. Key elements making the institutional framework clear are: a clear definition of roles and responsibilities of the project, teams implementing projects and stakeholders; the separation of regulatory and operational responsibilities; identification of local (or central government) responsible for the project activities and outputs; identification of the private sector and civil society associated with the project activities and outputs; a clear rule of the appropriate level for different kinds of management; identification of existing capacities of an organization; identification of cross-sectoral issues such as gender, climate change and peace associated with project activities and outputs, and planning to make gender-sensitive project activities and outputs (International Ecological Engineering Society 2006).

4.3.1. Identify various dimensions of intervention of MULIABP

Interventions can be designed and executed in multiple dimensions and also from multiple perspectives, i.e. with multiple purposes. The key perspectives can be illustrated with the following examples.

Strategic interventions

Strategic interventions refer to the understanding of and affecting the resource and capacities of people or communities who are the beneficiaries of the project, the ways these resources and capacities affect activities and outputs of the project and ultimately contribute to enhancing well-being and natural environment of people living in the project site. These capacities and resources can be categorized as those associated with natural, cultural, human, social, political, financial and artificial (built) dimensions. They are also called capitals since they are invested in creating new resources over a long-time horizon (Flora, Flora, and Gasteyer 2019; Emery and Flora 2006). These seven dimensions of resource and capacities or capitals are interdependent, interact with each other, and are built upon one another. Based on the understanding of these resources and capacities, in particular, their impact on the project and the well-being and natural environment of people living in the project site, project managers and members identify the points of intervention which increase the resource and capacities, i.e. strategic intervention and plan and execute interventions.

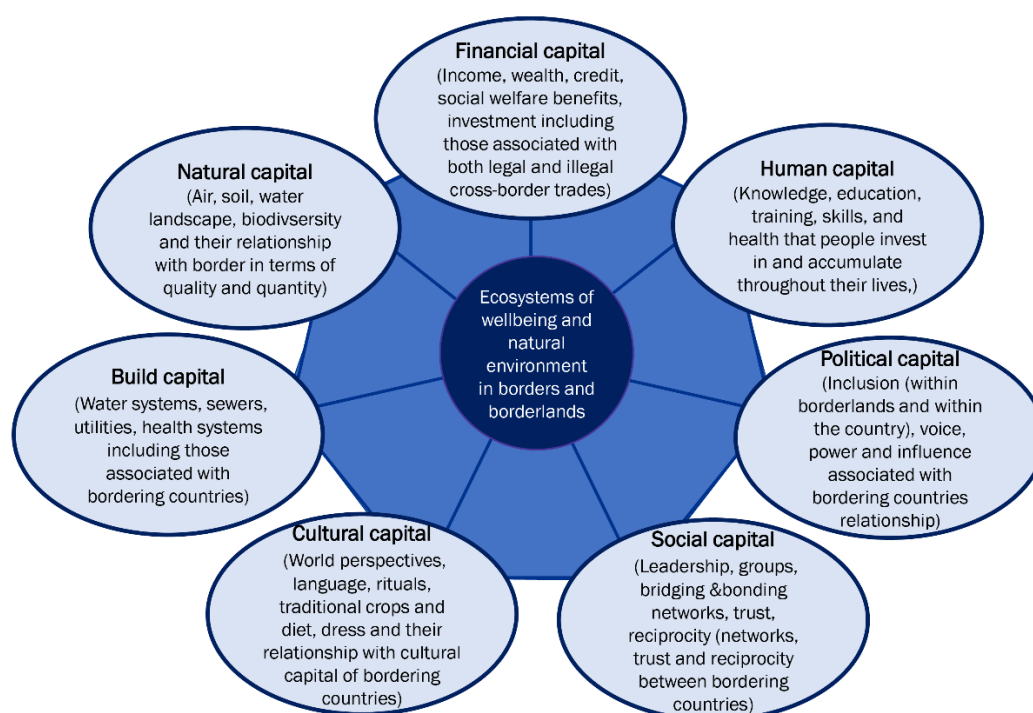


Figure 6. Seven types of resources and capacities (capitals) of people or communities in borders and borderlands

Adaptative interventions

Adaptative interventions refer to balancing between implementing a project as it was designed and ensuring project activities are relevant to the needs of the target population or communities. In adaptative interventions, researchers suggest paying attention to the following changes and adaptations (Reinschmidt et al. 2010).

- i) Cultural adaptation: Tailoring the intervention to meet the targeted population or community's worldview and lifestyle
- ii) Cognitive adaptation: Changing the language or age level of the intervention for beneficiaries
- iii) Affective-motivational adaptation: Adjusting aspects related to gender, ethnic, religious, and socio-economic background of project stakeholders
- iv) Environmental adaptation: Reflecting ecological aspects of the target population or community in project implementation
- v) Adaptations of project contents: Tailoring of language, visuals, examples, scenarios, and activities used during the intervention
- vi) Adaptation of project form: Changing project structure and goals, which have the potential to reduce project effectiveness

Since it is important to stick to the original design of the project (or project fidelity, defined as the extent to which the delivery of the activities of the project adheres to the project's original design), project managers and team members should carefully consider how much they are adapting a project to external and internal factors (RHHub 2022). One of the best principles

underpinning adaptation interventions is to involve members of the target population or communities in the project implementation process to decide the adaptation level.

Promotional interventions

In marketing studies, promotion adaptation means a global marketing strategy in which the product sold in domestic markets is not altered in any important ways, but market communications are adapted to local conditions (Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993). It can be applied to project implementation since the policy ideas or project ideas to meet the needs of the target population or communities are not altered, but the communication about activities and policy ideas underpinning those ideas can be adapted to local conditions, in particular, depending on the level of understanding and cultural perceptions of the policy ideas or activities of the project. Positioning the project in a broad context of a development plan, packaging or labelling adapted to the perception or needs of the target population or communities can play a significant role in reducing unnecessary resistance or work burdens, in particular in borders and borderlands where the specific border-related perceptions and attitudes towards issues are prominent.

Preventive interventions

Preventive interventions refer to a wide range of activities to reduce risks or threats to the project. As in medical science, preventive interventions can be categorized into three (Institute for Work and Health 2015). The primary preventive intervention aims to prevent risks or threats to the project before they occur. There are risks or threats that the project team managers and members may not control. But there are risks and threats under the control of the project team managers and members, and primary preventive interventions aim to control these risks and threats. It is done by preventing the exposure of the project or its team to hazardous conditions that cause risks or threats. Rules and regulations taking into account potential risks and threats to the project and education and training to detect and avoid risks and threats are examples of primary preventive intervention. The secondary preventive intervention aims to reduce the negative impacts of risks and threats that have already occurred. The secondary preventive intervention is done by detecting and treating risks and threats as soon as possible to halt or slow its progress, establishing strategies to prevent the reoccurrence of risks and threats, and implementing measures to fix the project affected by risks and threats. The regular process of checking the risks and threats and the establishment of emergency measures to minimize the negative impacts of risks and threats are examples of secondary preventive interventions. The tertiary preventive intervention aims to soften the impact of risks and threats by empowering project managers, team members and stakeholders in terms of their ability to function flexibly for the project. Empowerment measures, such as education and training to enhance knowledge and skills directly related to the project, can be examples of tertiary prevention interventions.

4.3.2. The establishment of governance for MULIABP

Project governance is an oversight function of the project life cycle that is aligned with the organization's governance model. The project governance framework provides the project manager and team members with structure, processes, decision-making models and tools for managing the project. Key elements of the governance framework are: criteria for acceptable deliverables and project success; process to identify, escalate, and resolve issues that arise during the project; the relationship among stakeholders; organizational rules to define roles of project managers and team members, processes and procedures for the communication of information;

processes for decision-making; process to review and approval for changes to the budget, scope, quality and schedule which are beyond the authority of the project manager etc. It supports and controls the project for successful delivery. In the context of complex and risky projects such as MULIA-BP in borderlands with medium or high-security risks, project governance is a critical element of the project ecosystem.

The governance of MULIA-BP has several distinctive features compared to that of a traditional project. First, it has a broad scope of stakeholders, sometimes including people in bordering countries. Therefore, the mechanisms of participation and engagement of stakeholders and communications are much more complicated. Where there is a high risk of conflicts or violence, mechanisms for collaboration (or coordination mechanisms) need to incorporate specific techniques for alleviating or using conflicts between antagonistic stakeholders effectively in the governance system of the project.

In the context of the MULIA-BP in borderlands, although the project governance framework plays a central role in shaping the patterns of planning, executing, controlling and closing the project, the project manager and team members should be allowed to have flexibility in changing and interpreting the governance framework depending on the contingencies. The rule on flexibility, however, should be clearly described in the project management plan.

4.4. Evaluation of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands

The project's evaluation has shifted from traditional implementation and output-focused evaluation to result-based evaluation as the development agenda grows in scope and complexity. It means evaluation should answer not only the question of whether the project itself has been smoothly or successfully but also the question of to what extent the project affects the country, sector, theme, policy, and global conditions (Morra, Rist, and Ebrary 2009). This necessity is also reflected in the shifting focus of developmental audits from financial and compliance audits to audits of policy effectiveness and efficiency, including cross-sectoral or multi-actor dimensional policy effectiveness (Sachs et al. 2018; United Nations 2018). Evaluation of the MULIABP particularly should pay attention to siloization/pillarization, which has had adverse effects on public service delivery. Siloization/Pillarization of goals and objectives and the divisions, teams or departments within an organization or policy community is often the source of inconsistencies in policies, which becomes a source of implementation gaps (Goggin et al. 1990, Mazmanian and Sabatier 1989). Since siloization and pillarization are a fundamental threat to MULIA-BP, siloization/pillarization is a key subject for monitoring and evaluation. In this line, in MULIA-based projects, evaluation aims to measure the integratedness, such as the level of siloization/pillarization, in addition to the project's outputs and outcomes which are the key subjects of conventional evaluation.

The degree of integration can be measured in multiple dimensions of integration (see 2.4. Dimensions of integration at the project level) by various methods such as the Likert scale on the questions such as:

1. Is there executive support for the IABP?
2. Has the project manager sufficiently integrated visions and multiple goals from outside (such as the SDGs) into projects?

3. Do the project team members have integrated visions and multiple goals from outside (such as the SDGs) into projects?
4. Whether the project has multiple SDGs and their targets?
5. Whether the project has visions and goals which have a prominent causal sequence?
6. Does the project have policy instruments corresponding to multiple ministries or departments of the local and/or national governments?
7. Whether the project has a systemic and regular mechanism to learn and share knowledge and skill with project team members?
8. Does the project have a systemic and regular mechanism to gather, review, analyze, organize, and interpret relevant information to problems?
9. Whether the project has a systemic and regular mechanism to learn and share the knowledge and skills of the locals who live and work in the project area?
10. Whether the project has a systemic and regular mechanism to learn and share the knowledge and skills associated with cross-sectoral issues such as gender equality and empowerment of the vulnerable, in particular women, girls and children, climate change and peace?
11. Whether the project has a space where members undertaking separate unit operations can discuss and share information and experience?
12. Does the project have project managers and team members recruited from the project areas and work closely with the communities of the project area?
13. Whether the project has multiple groups of beneficiaries categorized along the line of gender, race, age and geographical location?
14. Does the project have a monitoring and evaluation system to measure integratedness in addition to the project's effectiveness in terms of achieving the project objectives?

These questions are closely associated with what Amartya Sen called comprehensive outcomes (Sen 2010). Comprehensive outcomes, as opposed to culmination outcomes which are actually realized outcomes are those associated with actions, agencies and relations which produce desired outcomes. Borrowing the metaphor of Michael Samson, "... culmination outcomes focus on the "golden eggs" produced by good... policy ... (while) comprehensive outcomes include a focus on the goose that is important for the sustainability of the golden eggs". Comprehensive outcomes, therefore, demonstrate the effectiveness of the project itself, and imply replicability of the modus operandi of the project in other projects to produce better outcomes or "golden eggs" (Samson 2012).

Counterfactual analysis is also helpful in demonstrating the effectiveness of a project. A "counterfactual is a subjunctive conditional in which the antecedent is known or supposed for purposes of argument to be false (Mahoney and Barrenechea 2017, 306). The 'counterfactual' questions or measures what would have happened to beneficiaries in the absence of the intervention. The impact is estimated by comparing counterfactual outcomes to those observed under the intervention. It is a useful method since the counterfactual questions easily add hypothetical interventions that have not been taken by the project to compare the counterfactual and observed outcomes. Using counterfactual analysis, the impact of the MULIA-BP can be compared with the single-sector-focused project.

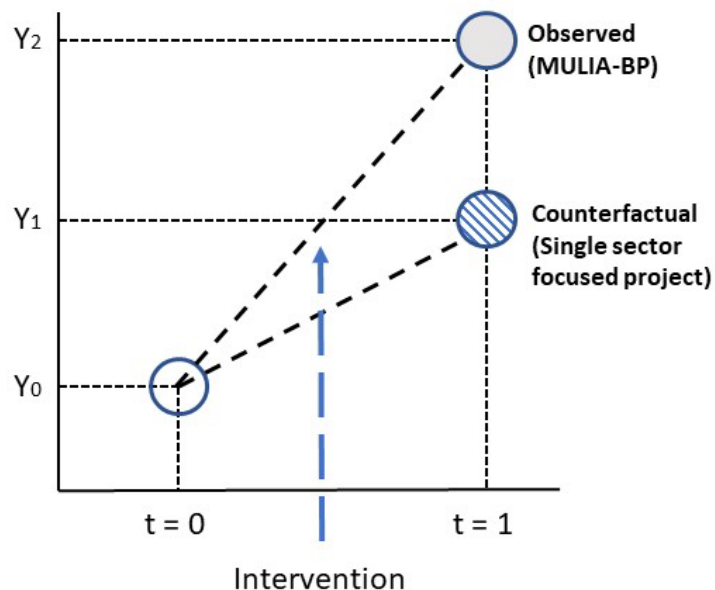


Figure 7. Diagram of counterfactual analysis of the MULIA-BP

Box 17. Need to develop a monitoring and evaluation framework reflecting the specificities of the project

Evaluation of MULIA-based projects is crucial first, to determine the level of "integratedness" of the projects being implemented in borders and borderlands and, secondly, for tracking the benefits or added value earned by implementing a MULIA-based project rather than sector-based projects. Therefore, it is essential to develop monitoring and evaluation tools and a framework for measuring the integrated project performance during its initiation. In the first instance, the evaluation based on an integrated approach aims to evaluate the degree of "integratedness" in the 12 dimensions of "integratedness" discussed under section 2.4 and ideally requires assessing outcomes corresponding to the level of "integratedness." In the second instance, the second evaluation aims to evaluate the gap between implementing integrated projects and sector-based projects. The idea is to assess the impact of the "integratedness" of the project in comparison to conventional non-integrated projects. The project team should develop a monitoring and evaluation framework reflecting the project's specificities that will incorporate the assessments on the integratedness and the gap. The framework will complement the guidelines to provide knowledge and information on managing and evaluating integrated approach-based projects.

Source: Authors

4.5. Challenges and opportunities of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands

Challenges

- Bringing on board a wide array of stakeholders can be challenging, particularly when mobilising people and building trust.
- Lack of trust among partners and individual project teams poses a big challenge. The success of a MULIABP will largely depend on the trust that has been created among partners. This takes into account the time and effort invested during the planning phase to create that trust.
- Policies, regulations and restrictions that the donors may place against the recipient organisations may hinder the smooth running of MULIABP projects.
- Knowledge transfer and information sharing may be hard to achieve without appropriate structures, such as CoPs, as well as other institutional arrangements that could facilitate such undertakings.
- Being able to monitor and evaluate the impact of implementing an integrated approach may not be the primary target for the M&E team. It is important to note that monitoring project impact and output differs from monitoring the impact of an integrated approach. Project implementers should intentionally plan and implement the M&E focused on defining how MULIABP enhances development outcomes. This calls for specific funding that should be budgeted for at the beginning of the project or projects under an integrated approach.
- Where no strong culture of teamwork has been created between the integrated teams or projects, members working on the projects may be demotivated to carry out the project tasks, and this might negatively affect the project outcomes.
- There is a likelihood of conflicting team priorities, given that an integrated approach to project management involves different organisations and or teams working on the same project from a multidimensional approach, different partners or teams might have different priorities. Thus, synchronising the project activities and tasks from the start is key to the success of a MULIABP.

Opportunities

- There is consensus among development practitioners that an integrated approach to implementing development projects will enhance the achievement of Agenda 2030.
- Organisations can work together and stop working in silos. Organisations need each other.
- An integrated approach to implementing development provides an opportunity to work through local organisations and be more impactful by intentionally integrating projects where the context permits. This also leads to better project outcomes, and the overall project costs could eventually be reduced.
- Integration of development projects also promotes participation of a diverse pool of stakeholders, inclusion, transparency, and accountability. These principles are at the heart of every development project.

5.(Provisional) Checklist of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands¹³

In accordance with the process-based approach, all the projects have the following five process groupings as an organizational structure (Project Management Institute 2021).

- Initiating: This is a process of defining a new project or a new phase of an existing project.
- Planning: This is a process to establish the project's scope, refine the objectives, and define the course of action to attain the project's objectives.
- Executing: This is a process to complete the work defined in the project management plan
- Monitoring and Controlling: This is a process to track, review and regulate the progress and performance of the project. It also involves identifying any areas in which plan changes are required and initiate the corresponding changes.
- Closing: This is a process to formally complete or close a project, phase or contract.

These processes constituting the whole process of the project correspond to the stages of the lifecycle of MULIABP across borders and in borderlands. Initiating corresponds to the preparation, planning to project design, executing and monitoring and controlling to implementation, and closing to closure. The process-based approach does not have an ex-post evaluation, which is an important stage to ensure the sustainability of the MULIABP across borders and borderlands. In this section, we use standard processes to make this checklist look familiar to project managers and staff who are used to the process-based approach, with one additional element of ex-post evaluation.

The checklists of various processes or stages of a MULIABP across borders and in borderlands have a set of flowchart questions and answers which will guide respondents to relevant information and the next steps. The questions are designed to draw out respondents' perceptions, guide them to the body of knowledge in the Guidelines and beyond, and help them reflect on the context of the project. By following and responding to the questions, project managers and staff can establish what processes are needed to improve for the successful project design, implementation and evaluation. The choice between "Yes" and "No" can be based on accumulated knowledge, facts and evidence or informed guesses. Respondents do not have to worry about "getting answers right" as the purpose of the flowchart exercises is that you follow the questions to deepen your understanding of the project environment and context, and various aspects of the project itself. When it is unclear whether "Yes" applies, we advise selecting "No" and then making sure that your knowledge of the context and environment of the project is accurate and up to date. Overall, the flow chart questions and the guidance combine general recommendations that can be adapted to different circumstances of the respondents and specific ones in which project managers and staff can draw lessons from the Guidelines and other materials of empirical cases. The insights gained from this checklist section can help project

¹³ To be updated in early 2023

managers and staff contribute to better designing, implementing and evaluating MULIABP across borders and in borderlands. Multistakeholder group exercises following the flowchart questions offer more benefits since they create spaces where participants can exchange knowledge, experiences and views on the environment and contexts of the project and diverse aspects of the project itself.

5.1. Checking the initiating and planning processes

5.1.1. Checking the environment of MULIABP in borders and borderlands

1. Given the context and challenges of a particular border or borderland typology, would MULIABP be the most appropriate approach?

- Yes: Continue the project process
- No: Identify why MULIABP is inappropriate and discuss it with stakeholders. If most stakeholders agree to the inappropriateness of MULIABP, find other appropriate approaches. (See “Does the integrated approach fit for purpose?” in 2.7 When and how do we establish an integrated approach at the project level? in this Guideline; and 2.2 Synergistic Effects of the Integrated Approach by Kim et al. (2022)).

2. Are regional borderlands in the project site disproportionately violent compared to other state spaces?

- Yes: unless there is a high level of security measures, avoid the place for the project (See 4.2.2 Situation analysis; and “Political challenge” in 4.2.1 Assessing the context of MULIABP in this Guideline)
- No: initiate the process of the project.

3. Have these conditions changed over time?

- Yes: check the security measures to guarantee the safety of project staff, including the contingency and exit plans (See “Managerial/Organizational challenge” and “Violence and conflicts challenge” in 4.2.1 Assessing the context of MULIABP; and 4.3.2 The establishment of governance for MULIABP in this Guideline)
- No: continue the project process

4. Whether there is a level (high enough to prevent and resolve conflicts) of border governance and governance in borderlands

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Wait until a high level of border governance to prevent and resolve conflicts is in place (See “Political challenge” and “Legal challenge” in 4.2.1 Assessing the context of MULIABP in this Guideline)

5. Whether resources (in terms of financial costs, time, and human resources) needed for the successful application of an integrated approach are available?

- Yes: Continue the project process
- No: Check the necessary resources and secure the resources (Planning for and implementing multiple projects in multiple sectors and bringing together multiple

partners and stakeholders would call for more resources (See 1) An enabling environment for an integrated approach in 2.6 Successful factors of integrated approaches in this Guideline; and “Conclusion” in Kempf et al. (2022))

6. Whether the stakeholders, including the security sector, cooperate with each other to prevent and resolve conflicts in borderlands

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: begin a project process to facilitate the formation of stakeholder groups to prevent and resolve conflicts or wait until the cooperative stakeholder group is established (See 5) Engaged stakeholders in 2.6 Successful factors of integrated approaches; and Project stakeholders in 2.4 Dimensions of integration at the project level in this Guidelines)

7. Do central and regional administrations and the local community have a strong will to enhance cross-border cooperation?

- Yes: continue the project process, which can be related to cross-border cooperation
- No: Better focus on borderlands within a national boundary (See Kempf et al. (2022); 3.1 Conceptualization of borders and borderlands; 3.2.2 Diverse types of borders and borderlands; and 4.2.2 Situation analysis in this Guideline)

8. Have project planners identified security challenges such as cyber-attacks, terrorism, violent extremism, human trafficking and drugs etc.?

- Yes: continue the project process, which can also contribute to addressing these challenges
- No: Identify security challenges first (See Kempf et al. (2022); and “Political challenge” and “Violence and conflicts challenge” in 4.2.1 Assessing the context of MULIABP)

5.1.2. Checking the planning of MULIABP in borders and borderlands

At the planning stage of the MULIA-based project, project managers should check the following attributes of the project related to the planning process:

1. Whether the project has a long-range view in designing the project?

- Yes: Continue the project process
- No: Options or alternatives on inputs should be evaluated not only on their short-term merits but also on their long-term consequences. For instance, if the outputs are associated with renewable resources (e.g. water), planners should identify exploitation limits or maximum sustainable yields. Planners should aim at zero use if the outputs are associated with non-renewable resources. (See Box 6 and Box 18 in this Guideline)

Box 18. Checking the goals and objectives of MULIABP in borders and borderlands

After checking the key attributes of the project, project planners should identify and structure the multiple objectives and their related attributes of the project (i.e. measurable characteristics which can be used to quantify the objectives (Ferretti 2016). Project planners shall evaluate a set of relevant objectives to be achieved by the project. Since the objectives often correspond to the project's concerns, project planners must pay attention to the concerns of as many stakeholders as possible.

After identifying and structuring the multiple objectives, project planners must decide how important each objective is. At least three factors determine the degree of importance of the objectives: the problems the project aims to address, the actors involved in the decision-making process, and the political, economic, social and cultural environment in which the decision takes place. Since the stakeholders influenced by environment and technical and financial constraints assess the degrees of importance of the objectives differently (See the case in Mekong Delta below), planners need tools for a clear and transparent thinking strategy to judge the degree of importance of the objectives

Case: Dike-protected project vs flood-based project in Mekong Delta

Due to the progressive contraction of the natural floodplains in the Mekong Delta, the deposition of fertile sediments has reduced, and the environment has degraded, endangering the sustainability of farmers' livelihoods. Therefore, the Mekong Delta Plan recommended discontinuing high dike construction in the upper delta and restoring the floodplains. However, the lack or absence of high dikes requires a radical change in the agricultural economy and livelihood of people in the Mekong Delta. They have to halt the intensification of rice-based farming systems and develop alternative farming systems that can flourish on restored floodplains. It requires "living with floods" livelihood strategies. According to the research by Dung Duc Tran et al. (2018), double or triple-rice farmers preferred triple-crop rice farming systems under high-dike protection, while farmers and experts preferred flood-based farming systems under low-dike protection.

Source: Tran et al. 2018.

2. Whether there is a clear strategy that will link social, economic, political and development goals through an integrated approach in the borders or borderlands regions?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Consult the experts on a holistic approach to do a situation analysis of the project (See 2. Integrated Approach in this Guideline)

3. Have the project manager and the project team identified, developed and catalogued the threats and opportunities that may affect the application of an integrated approach in the current project or projects?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Develop a risk register (See 4.2. Design of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands and Box 19 in this Guideline)

Box 19. Risk Register

A risk register is a tool for risk management in project planning and implementation. It contains identified risks in a project that are most likely to occur during the project implementation and potentially negatively affect intended outcomes. It is a part of a risk management plan. Although risk registers may vary depending on the project, they usually contain the following:

Risk identification ID: A name or ID number of the identified risk

Risk description: A concise explanation of the risk

Risk categories: Categories of risks such as internal or external risks or schedule, resource and technical capacity

Structure of risks: A structured chart of categorized risks

Risk analysis: A short qualitative or quantitative analysis of the risks' probability and their impacts

Risk hierarchy: A table of risks with their scores often obtained by multiplying the risk impact and probability values

Risk response brief: A short explanation of risk response to mitigate the risk's effect on the project.

Risk management unit: An assignment of risk to project members responsible for monitoring and deploying appropriate response and supervising it.

Various templates for Risk Register can be found online.

Source: Ray, Stephanie 2022. What is a Risk Register & How to Create One, Risk Management <https://www.projectmanager.com/blog/guide-using-risk-register>

4. Do the project team and manager have common objectives, goals, and other processes they intend to integrate?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Discuss the following questions and make common objectives and goals. What existing knowledge and skills associated with the project do project team members and experts have?; What knowledge and skills are needed to understand the project's situations, environments or contexts?; What knowledge and skills are outside the usual scope of knowledge and skills relevant to situations, environments, or contexts of the project?; What knowledge and skills need to be applied to the project's situations, environments or contexts?; What are other viewpoints concerning situations, environment or contexts of the project and what knowledge and skills are associated with these other viewpoints? (See 2. Integrated Approach in this Guideline)

5. Whether the project has a clear theory of change?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Establish a theory of change that can describe why a particular way of working will be effective and demonstrate how change happens in the short, medium and long term to achieve the project's intended outcome. The theory of change in the planning stage requires a creative approach to build the theory. Focus on the change the project aims to make (rather than activities of the project) and open up the conversation with diverse stakeholders (e.g. key decision-makers of the project, wider staff group of the project, beneficiaries and informed external stakeholders) on the best way to achieve that change, stakeholders and partners to be involved in the project. It is important to determine in advance the conversations on how project planners are open to ideas of different levels of integration suggested by these stakeholders (NCVO 2020).

6. Has your organisation put in place cross-sectoral policy and project instruments and tools specific to the given project that must be followed in the planning for the integration of multiple projects?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Check the policies in different sectors with unintended or even intended consequences for impact areas of the project and identify and configure a set of policy or project instruments corresponding to those policy areas to reduce negative impacts on all the impact areas. Establishing a structure for a cross-sectoral toolkit helps identify and configure policy or project instruments for MULIABP. (See Box 20 in this Guideline).

Box 20. Cross-Sectoral Toolkit for the Conservation and Sustainable Management of Forest Biodiversity, Forest Management and Eco-tourism

An integrated approach to biodiversity in a forest, forest management to produce products or expand forest lands, and ecotourism are interdependent. At the policy level, policies to promote forest products or expand forest lands result in the expansion or contraction of forests, and noise and pollution from tourists may influence animal distributions, interest rates and currency valuation, which may affect the speed of logging. Sustainable management and maintenance of forests ensuring bio-diversity in an integrated manner requires an integrated approach to multiple policies and project instruments. An example of the structure of the toolkit of policy and project instruments organized around some key thematic areas is as follows.

Table 1. An example of a cross-sectoral toolkit

The Toolkit Matrix		Sectors (each at a project, regional, national and international levels)				
		Agriculture	Tourism	Mining	Spatial Planning	Energy
Tools (at different levels)	Case Studies					
	Laws					
	Codes of Conduct					
	Incentive Schemes					
	Market-based instruments					
	Infrastructure					

Source: Modification of Figure Page 5 (Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity 2008)

7. Whether the project has unrealistic expectations?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Project managers, team members and stakeholders often come into a project with different expectations. They often find a situation where some expect more from the project than others. These expectation gaps (or the presence of unrealistic expectations)

are from lack of planning (a plan without details and precise requirements), inaccurate quantitative specification of project costs, required resources and time of project managers, team and stakeholders, the uncertainty of the project scope and work amount, lack of necessary information or clarity on unexpected internal or external events, and lack of effective communication among project managers, team members and stakeholders. The fear of losing stakeholders' credit or support often makes project managers and team members have or transfer unrealistic expectations. Careful planning is central to managing expectations. Planning should be based on the available resources, the capability of the team, and the desired outcomes, achieve the same understanding of the project plan and objectives, take into account possible contingencies, establish channels of effective communication, and establish key performance indicators and milestones as markers that signify a stage in a project's development (EpicFlow 2021).

8. Whether the project has a mechanism for good communication amongst project team members?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Engage in discussions with partners and create a common communication strategy (See Box 6; 8) Competent project manager with high interpersonal skills in 2.6. Successful factors of integrated approaches; Box 13; 4.2.2. Situation analysis; "Organizational capacity for integration" in 4.2.4. Assessment of organizational capacity; and 4.3.2. The establishment of governance for MULIABP)

9. Have the project managers and team identified and mapped all the stakeholders and partners to identify opportunities for a MULIABP?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: check the following questions associated with stakeholder groups

9-1. Whether the project has expanded the scope of the reference group or external stakeholder group to the extent that all those who are not only benefited but also affected by the project.

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Identify stakeholders through stakeholder analysis (see: 4.2.2. Situation analysis)

9-2. Have the project managers and project team conducted consultations with all the stakeholders, particularly the beneficiaries and local actors involved in the borders and borderlands issues, that are aware of the needs, challenges, gaps and priorities of a particular borderland community?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: organise the consultation process (see: 4.2.2. Situation analysis)

9-3. Do local stakeholders and beneficiaries appreciate that it is one project engaging in several sectors across the board?

- Yes: continue the project process

- No: establish a plan of action to inform them of the nature of the project (i.e. integrated approach) and necessary elements associated with stakeholders (see: 4.2.2. Situation analysis). Making stakeholder agreements or memoranda of understanding is also helpful in raising stakeholders' awareness about the project's nature.

9-4. Has the project team, during the planning, identified the organisational needs of various partners involved in the MULIABP and aligned them with the respective project goals?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Start mapping of partners and establish the needs chart of various partners which are relevant to project goals (See Box 21 in this Guideline)

Box 21. Partners' needs chart

Partners' or organizational needs are the needs of the partners or organizations involved in the project, which are specific to the project. The analysis of the organizational needs focuses on the organization's vision, goals, objectives, current performance & strategy, particularly those relevant to the project they are involved in, and systems, requirements, and processes the organization currently has. The analysis and the chart as its output detail the needs the project can meet and suggest a strategy to provide incentives to the organization and get the organization satisfied with its process, output, and outcomes.

Source: Yi and Lee (2018)

10. Do project managers, team members and stakeholders commit to the project?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: involve some key players and team members from the project sites in the initial decisions and the planning process (See 2.3. Three types of an integrated approach; and 4.2.2. Situation analysis in this Guideline)

11. Whether the project has a mechanism for fostering collaboration and nurturing partnerships between stakeholders, including local actors.

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Based on observing how different stakeholders interact, establish mechanisms in which stakeholders respect the voices of other stakeholders. The mechanisms should be designed to show every stakeholder's opinion matters. Recognize power relations between stakeholders since some stakeholders, because of their political, social and economic status in the project site, can significantly affect the project. It is important to create an environment where powerful stakeholders commit to collaboration and partnerships for the project. (See 2.3. Three types of an integrated approach; "Understanding context is essential" in 2.7. When and how do we establish an integrated approach at the project level? in this Guideline)

12. Whether the project has buy-in and support from key stakeholders?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Without buy-in and support from key stakeholders, the project is more likely to have significant challenges. To gain stakeholders' buy-in and support, establish mechanisms to include all stakeholders in the project process, in particular the process of reaching a consensus on their needs linked to the project goals and objectives, provide clear goals, purposes and intentions of the project and its benefits, and discuss how best manage actual and potential risks or issues, and communicate with stakeholders about their needs, concerns or ideas (See 5) Engaged stakeholders in this Guideline)

13. Is the project team inclusive in the participation of traditionally marginalised groups such as women and youths?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Identify marginalized groups historically excluded from involvement in political, social and economic activities and faced structural barriers to civic participation in the project site by paying attention to such factors as gender, sexual orientation, race, wealth, and immigration status. Understanding preexisting relationships between these marginalized groups and other groups and prior experiences of these marginalized groups with other groups, including previous project-related personnel, is important to overcome the hurdles and bridge divides. Surveys, discussion groups, conversations, community gatherings and open forms can be helpful activities to understand more about marginalised groups and facilitate their participation. Using trusted leaders or figures by these marginalized group members as a messenger is one of the best ways to reach out to the marginalized groups (See “Does the integrated approach fit for purpose?” in 2.7. When and how do we establish an integrated approach at the project level? : “The Approach to Borders from the Perspective of Security” in 3.1. Conceptualization of borders and borderlands; Kim et al. (2022); and Kempf et al. (2022)

14. Are multiple and interdependent issues or issue aspects subsumed under a project framework?

- Yes: Continue the project process
- No: Integrate objectives and goals (See: 4.2.3. Setting goals and objectives)

15. Have the partners or the project agreed upon what type of integration they are undertaking?

- Yes: Continue the project process
- No: Organise communication channels through which project managers and the team can clarify what type of integration is needed and what processes and methods will be employed. (See: 12.3 Diverse natures of the integrated approach)

16. Whether local partners are committed to the project?

- Yes: Continue the project process
- No: Establish training and education courses to change local partners' culture, perceptions and attitudes (See “Knowledge and skills” in the 2.4. Dimensions of

integration at the project level; 10) Development of operational and tactical implementation plans to realize the overall integration strategy in 2.6. Successful factors of integrated approaches; “Understanding context is essential” in 2.7. When and how do we establish an integrated approach at the project level?; and Box 9 in this Guideline)

17. Is the project based on a framework containing newly discovered cause-effect relationships?

- Yes: Continue the project process
- No: The level of integration is often determined by the knowledge about the cause-effect relationship of policy options available during the planning period. Suppose the project framework has no newly discovered cause-effect relationship of policy options. In that case, it means the project is more likely to have the same level of integration as that of the past's most successful integrated approach-based project. Identify a new cause-effect relationship between project goals and objectives (See Box 6 in this Guideline).

18. Whether the project managers are “polymath project managers”?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: identify and appoint a polymath manager as a project leader (see: 4.2.4 Assessment of organisational capacity for polymath project manager whose knowledge and expertise span several fields and disciplines)

19. Is there strong leadership of the project?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: identify or create a project champion or sponsor with a special interest in supporting the project toward attaining its objectives (See 2.5. Instruments of integrated approaches in this Guideline)

20. Are there clear lines of authority and responsibility?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: make a Responsibility Assignment Matrix that aligns the resources with the various project deliverables. This Matrix assigning a task to each project team member shows who is responsible for which task and helps to understand what each team member is responsible for in the project and clarifies its role as responsibility, accountability, consultation and information (See Box 22 in this Guideline).

Box 22. Responsibility Assignment Matrix (RAM) or RACI (Responsible, Assists, Consulted and Informed) Matrix

The Responsibility Assignment Matrix clarifies the responsibilities of project team members and stakeholders. It assigns to team members and stakeholders four roles below.

- 1) Responsible: Those who complete the task
- 2) Accountable: Those who coordinate the actions, make decisions and delegate responsibility to team members or stakeholders
- 3) Consulted: Those who are communicated regarding decisions and tasks
- 4) Informed: Those who will be updated during the project and upon completion

There are various templates found online.

Source: Rittenberg, Julia and Watts, Rob (2022) Everything You Need To Know To Set Up A Responsibility Assignment Matrix (RAM)
<https://www.forbes.com/advisor/business/software/what-is-responsibility-assignment-matrix/>

21. Are there adequate resources?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: enhance the decision-maker's understanding of the needed associated resources and clarify the key project deliverables (See Box 6; 1). An enabling environment for an integrated approach in 2.6. Successful factors of integrated approaches in this Guideline)

22. Whether project managers, team members and stakeholders have a shared perception and agreement on a project's objectives?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: organise various forms of gatherings for project managers, project team members and stakeholders in which the concept of a project, in particular the integrated nature of goals and objectives, is widely shared and understood (See Box 1; 2) Consistency and compatibility in goals and objectives, and alignment of instruments and processes in 2.6. Successful factors of integrated approaches in this Guideline).

23. Are there detailed, realistic and timely project plans?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: check whether the objectives and goals of the project meet the needs of the beneficiaries, appropriateness of time and budget, check the list of constraints, check the communication channels within and between project team members and stakeholders, check the process to update the progress of work strands, and check the process of data production and management (See “Process” in 2.4. Dimensions of integration at the project level in this Guideline).

24. Are there good feedback and control processes allowing project managers and team members to detect project problems early?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: improve communications and use standardised project management software and other means to simplify timely data exchange. Appropriate use of electronic communications, including email, texting, instant messaging, social media, video and web conferencing and other forms of electronic media, can be useful to improve communications amongst stakeholders and project team members (See Box 6 in this Guideline)

25. Whether the project has carried out good analyses of significant risk factors and implemented a strategy for responding to project risks

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: enforce a discipline of using a risk handling matrix or checklists at the onset of the project and throughout the project phases (See Box 19 in this Guideline)

26. Has the project team and manager extensively conducted an environmental scan to identify the challenges and other environmental factors that might hinder the successful application of MULIABP suitable for a particular border or borderland typology, needs or priorities?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Identify the environment of the project, both external and internal such as who the partners are, what the potential resistance, strength and weaknesses they have and their perceptions about the project (the examples of the external environment), and the project team's strength and weakness (the examples of the internal environment). It will provide insights into the environment and context in which the project is implemented (See 4.2.2. Situation analysis in this Guideline).

27. Are there any possibilities that bureaucratic administrative systems delay the project process?

- Yes: put pressure on the local or national governments by showing them lessons learned of the consequences of such delays (See Kim and Kim (2022))
- No: continue the project process

28. Whether the cost-benefit analysis projects the benefits of applying an integrated approach are more significant than the associated costs.

- Yes: Continue with the integration approach.
- No: Evaluate the other alternatives, such as traditional project management approaches (See "Does the integrated approach fit for purpose?" in 2.7 When and how do we establish an integrated approach at the project level? in this Guideline; and 2.2 Synergistic Effects of the Integrated Approach by Kim et al. (2022)).

5.2. Checking the executing process

In checking the executing process of MULIABP across borders and in borderlands, one of the most critical dimensions to check is the project instruments, which can ensure smooth

implementation of the integrated approach across borders and borderlands. The checking should also aim to help project managers and staff identify and create potential project instruments that potentially provide solutions to the problems and achieve the fundamental objectives. Creating a Project Instrument Index, a document containing a list of instruments for the project execution, is the first step in checking the execution process. Project Instrument Index should include the tag number of all physical instruments (vehicles, field instruments etc.) and the location of software instruments (including recorded documents by whatever name denominated dealing with the project's missions, plan, strategy, risk management, joint working, methods, HR rules and regulations, financial rules and regulations, digitalization and measurement and assessment etc.). Project Instrument Index should be considered a live document that is kept updated during the project process. It shall be revised if there is any modification that impacts instruments. Project Instrument Index should have clear information on the instrument, including but not limited to: Tag number, Type of instrument, Location, Description, Control system, and Applicable reference (in the case of software instrument). Once the list of potential project instruments is finalized, it is necessary to determine the weight or the level of each attribute for each instrument. The performances of each instrument in other projects often provide a basis for judgement on the level of the attribute. This process should be as objective as possible and preferably done by experts. Therefore, project planners should invite experts to give weight to the attributes (Ferretti 2016).

The questions that project managers and team members should ask include the following:

1. Whether the project has conflicting priorities?

- Yes: Bring team members and stakeholders for a joint agreement on the priorities. Compile a collective list of competing priorities and check the assumption of each by understanding each other's positions and interests. Setting the ground rule to solve the problems associated with the conflicting priorities, establishing effective communication channels amongst project team members and stakeholders, and establishing effective liaison between the managers and staff and between the project team and stakeholders are helping to solve the issues associated with conflicting or competing priorities. (See Box 2; and 2. Addressing trade-offs within and between dimensions of the project in 4.1. Features of MULIA-BP in borders and borderlands in this Guideline)
- No: continue the project process

2. Does the project have a system of performance measurement on integration and management?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Establish a system of performance measurement and management in synchronising what the project wants to achieve and what is measured and rewarded. It is important to establish a performance measurement and management system that can be revised or renewed when the project is modified. (See 4.4. Evaluation of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands and Box 17 in this Guideline)

3. Whether the project has a mechanism to ensure continuous improvement?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Continuous improvement refers to a process of improvement targeting the elimination of waste or risk factors in all systems and processes of the project. It involves everyone working on the project (project managers, team members and stakeholders) to make improvements. It can occur through evolutionary improvement, in which case improvements are incremental or through radical changes through the adoption of innovative ideas or new technologies. It is important to identify and develop a number of tools and techniques dedicated to searching for sources of problems, waste and variation and finding ways to minimize them. (See 6.Continuous adaptation in 4.1. Features of MULIA-BP in borders and borderlands in this Guideline)

4. Does the project have a system in place for change management (changes requests from partners, cost changes, changes to the schedule, and policy changes in partner organisations)?

- Yes: Continue the project process
- No: Change management is a systematic approach to transitioning or transforming a project's goals, processes, or technologies through controlling changes and helping project team members and stakeholders adapt to change. A change management system should consider how an adjustment or replacement will impact goals, processes, outputs and outcomes, and team members and stakeholders of the project. Establishing a system consists of planning and testing changes, communicating, scheduling, implementing change, documenting change and evaluating the effects. Project managers should consider how a change in one area of the project could affect other areas and what impact the change could have on the project. (See 6.Continuous adaptation in 4.1. Features of MULIA-BP in borders and borderlands in this Guideline)

5. Are the project team and project manager documenting lessons learned to guide future integrated approach-based projects or projects and avoid a repeat of the same mistakes?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Documenting learned lessons from the project is to make a tool to improve the current and future project process. The lessons learned process comprises five steps: Identify the things you can learn from; Document the lessons learned; Analyse and create reports; Store reports in a shared database and retrieves and implement them on the current or future projects. Creating and sharing a lesson-learned document containing the collected results of surveys and team member input on what went well and what can be improved through the project lifecycle is helpful (Eby 2021).

5.3. Checking, Monitoring & Controlling processes

The role of monitoring in integrated projects within borders and borderlands is to collect, evaluate and demonstrate information on the feasibility, appropriateness, successes and gaps in using an integrated approach in that particular context. Under the circumstances, the monitoring and evaluation aim to capture the improvement made by an integrated approach including integrating different processes within the same project or cross-sectoral projects (Streicher-Porte et al. 2010).

1. Have the project manager and project team developed outcome-based and process-based indicators to measure the success of the integration approach in a particular borderland project?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Establish indicators to measure the impacts, success and benefits of the project, in particular long-term impacts of the MULIABP going beyond the time frame of the projects, and indicators to measure the integration as transfers of knowledge and skills, integration as cooperation and integration as synergy making (See Yi and Lee 2018).

2. Do all stakeholders have access to information to be used in the monitoring and evaluation process?

- Yes: Continue the project process
- No: Establish participatory monitoring and evaluation process in which stakeholders at various levels engage in monitoring or evaluating a project, share control over the content, the process and the results of the monitoring and evaluation activity and engage in taking or identifying corrective actions. It is important to have outsiders to facilitate the participation and evaluation of stakeholders (Dillon 2010). (See Box 22 in this Guideline)

Box 22. Examples of key indicators to monitor the outcomes and process of an integrated approach focusing on water and land-use management.

In the context of an integrated approach, the role of monitoring is to collect and demonstrate information about the consequences of the applied actions aiming to achieve multiple objectives and about the processes of the project associated with various integrations. The following tables of two cases on water management (Table 2) and land-use management (Table 3) show different foci, depending on the project objectives, on the indicators of the outcomes and processes.

Table 2. Overview of suggested key indicators to evaluate the Integrated Project Management (IPM) with a focus on water in Japan (Source: Saiki, 2009; Sootweg, 2009.; selected)

Indicator	Description and details
Qualitative regular monitoring (every 2–5 years)	
I. Stakeholders	
Customer involvement	A measure of the level of customer involvement in the decision-making of the resource management and therefore their acceptance of the organizational goals and operation
Customer feedback	A measure of the level of customer involvement in the decision-making monitored by regular and ad-hoc surveys, accepted producers for providing feedback and how frequently they are used
Environmental audits	A measure of the level of environmental awareness and intention to protect against environmental degradation
Basin livelihoods	A measure of the overall change in livelihoods in the basin
II. Learning and growth	
Human resource development	A measure of the maturity and effectiveness of the human resource development system, reflecting its likely contribution to achievement of integrated planning priorities
Technical development	A measure of the level of commitment to adopting appropriate technology solutions that will aid in the delivery of the mission.
III. Internal management objectives	
Planning maturity	To identify the level of planning operation in the governance system and its likely impact on delivery of mission
Resource allocation	Measures resource allocations in the basin that determine delivery and performance of services
Data sharing	A measure of the commitment to and implementation of effective data management and information dissemination between the involved organization and the public
Quantitative indicators (multiple times per year-yearly)	
IV. Environmental status with focus on water	
Recreational water quality: for example, standards for fecal coliforms	
Raw water supply: for example, as annual supply planned ratio index and minimum supply planned ratio index	
Flood vulnerability: for example, flood frequency in vulnerable areas; low-flying and unprotected areas	
Chemical spills: for example, levels of cadmium and zinc	
Environmental water quality: total phosphorus, NH ₄ -N, dissolved oxygen, eutrophication	
Biodiversity index or indicator species occurrence, including fish species, invertebrates, aquatic plants and migratory birds	

Table 3. Overview of key indicators to evaluate the IPM with a focus on land-use change in Waikato (New Zealand) (Source: Huser, 2011)

Community partnerships	
Regional democracy and direction	Governance support and leadership, planning and reporting, community and economic information and communications
Relationships with other organizations	Engagement and co-management with other organizations
Community actions and initiatives	Coastal community action, enviroschools and significant places
Natural heritage program	Natural heritage program
Environmental management	
Community health	Airshed management, protecting community water resources, pollution response, contaminated land and diffuse contamination and public threat pest management
Resource management	Resource allocation and compliance monitoring, agricultural services
Environmental information	Environmental indicators, monitoring and reporting and environmental initiatives
Ecosystem health	Biodiversity pest management, catchment health pest management, biodiversity programs and production pest management
Regional development	
Integrated management	Growth strategies and local area plans, regional integration, regional planning
Connected communities	Regional land transport policy, operations and programs
Sustainable industries	Agriculture, aquaculture, business sustainability and waste reduction and management
Safe & resilient communities	
Community safety	Emergency management, navigation safety and dam safety
Resilient development	Regional hazards and coastal hazards
Catchment management	Catchment management, land drainage and integrated harbour management

Source: (Bizikova, Swanson, and Roy 2010)

5.4. Checking closure and ex-post evaluation

The ex-post evaluations are intended to assess the sustainability of results and the impact of integrated approach-based projects in our context once they close. Ex-post evaluations are conducted once the project has gone through the final phase of its life cycle.

1. Do the partners and/or project team in an integrated approach-based project planning conduct an ex-post evaluation?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: Establish a system for ex-post evaluation. Ex-post evaluation is conducted until a certain period after the project completion with a focus on the effectiveness and sustainability of the project. It is particularly important in the context of MULIABP in the borderland's context since the local elites easily capture the outputs and outcomes. The evaluation team should establish specific timelines for conducting the ex-post evaluation. (See 4.4. Evaluation of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands and Box 17 in this Guideline; Kim and Kim (2022))

2. Have the partners and/or project team, during the project design phase, planned for funding and other resources necessary for conducting the ex-post evaluation?

- Yes, incorporate and plan for ex-post evaluation at the project's close.
- No: discuss with partners and donors to make fund allocations for ex-post evaluations (See Box 6; 1). An enabling environment for an integrated approach in 2.6. Successful factors of integrated approaches in this Guideline).

3. Have the partners and/or project team agreed upon selecting the team (including local people as active participants) that will conduct the ex-post evaluation?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: establish the team composed of a team including local people. It is preferable to have a team, some of which have experience in ex-post evaluation (See 4.4. Evaluation of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands)

4. Is there a framework developed by the team during the project design phase for measuring the sustainability and impact of integrated approach-based projects in the borders and borderlands?

- Yes: continue the project process
- No: develop the framework to measure the sustainability and impact of integrated approach-based projects (See Box 22; Box 6; and 1). An enabling environment for an integrated approach in 2.6. Successful factors of integrated approaches in this Guideline)

5. Has the project team established a framework and methods for the ex-post evaluation process?

- Yes: Continue with the process and plan for ex-post evaluation upon completion of the integrated project
- No: Plan to incorporate ex-post evaluation during project planning and design (See 4.4. Evaluation of MULIA-based projects in borders and borderlands)

Bibliography

- Aarseth, Wenche, Asbjørn Rolstadås, and Bjorn Andersen. 2013. "Managing Organizational Challenges in Global Projects." *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business* 7 (1): 103–32. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijmpb-02-2011-0008>.
- Adesina, O. S. (2019). Conceptualizing Borders and Borderlands in a Globalizing World. *Journal of Social Issues* 22(1), 202-213.
- African Union. 2017. Draft African Union Border Governance Strategy. Addis Ababa. African Union.
- Alper, Donald, and Bryant Hammond. 2011. "Bordered Perspectives: Local Stakeholders' Views of Border Management in the Cascade Corridor Region." *Journal of Borderlands Studies* 26 (1): 101–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08865655.2011.590291>.
- Altshuler, Alan. 1965. "THE GOALS of COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING." *Journal of the American Institute of Planners* 31 (3): 186–95. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01944366508978165>.
- Anderson, David K., and Tony Merna. 2003. "Project Management Strategy—Project Management Represented as a Process Based Set of Management Domains and the Consequences for Project Management Strategy." *International Journal of Project Management* 21 (6): 387–93. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0263-7863\(02\)00087-x](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0263-7863(02)00087-x).
- Arrow, Holly, Joseph Edward Mcgrath, and Jennifer L Berdahl. 2000. *Small Groups as Complex Systems: Formation, Coordination, Development and Adaptation*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.
- Beek, Lisette van, Maarten Hajer, Peter Pelzer, Detlef van Vuuren, and Christophe Cassen. 2020. "Anticipating Futures through Models: The Rise of Integrated Assessment Modelling in the Climate Science-Policy Interface since 1970." *Global Environmental Change* 65: 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2020.102191>.
- Béland, Daniel. 2007. "Ideas and Institutional Change in Social Security: Conversion, Layering, and Policy Drift." *Social Science Quarterly* 88 (1): 20–38. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6237.2007.00444.x>.
- Berg, Jodi L. 2015. "The Role of Personal Purpose and Personal Goals in Symbiotic Visions." *Frontiers in Psychology* 6 (443). <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00443>.
- Beringer, Claus, Daniel Jonas, and Hans Georg Gemünden. 2012. "Establishing Project Portfolio Management: An Exploratory Analysis of the Influence of Internal Stakeholders' Interactions." *Project Management Journal* 43 (6): 16–32. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pmj.21307>.
- Bizikova, Livia, Darren Swanson, and Dimple Roy. 2010. "Evaluation of Integrated Management Initiatives." https://www.iisd.org/system/files/publications/evaluation_integrated_management.pdf
- Bonizzoni, Paola, and Luisa Leonini. 2020. "Cross-Border Families and Social Issues: A Sociological Analysis." In *Planning the Future of Cross Border Families a Path through Coordination*, edited by Ilaria Viarengo and Francesca Viarengo. Oxford Hart Publishing.

- Boughzala, Imed, and Gert-Jan de Vreede. 2015. "Evaluating Team Collaboration Quality: The Development and Field Application of a Collaboration Maturity Model." *Journal of Management Information Systems* 32 (3): 129–57. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07421222.2015.1095042>.
- Brand-Correa, Lina I., Giulio Mattioli, William F. Lamb, and Julia K. Steinberger. 2020. "Understanding (and Tackling) Need Satisfier Escalation." *Sustainability: Science, Practice and Policy* 16 (1): 309–25. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15487733.2020.1816026>.
- Brannick, Michael T., Ashley Prince, Carolyn Prince, and Eduardo Salas. 1995. "The Measurement of Team Process." *Human Factors: The Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society* 37 (3): 641–51. <https://doi.org/10.1518/001872095779049372>.
- Brock, Susan, and Rita Columbia. 2008. "A Guide to Mainstreaming Reproductive Health into Youth Development Programs." https://iyfglobal.org/sites/default/files/P4L_ProjDesign_PropWritGuide.pdf.
- Brunet-Jailly, E. (2010). The State of Borders and Borderlands Studies 2009: A Historical View and a View from the Journal of Borderlands. *Eurasia Border Review*, 1(1), 1-15.
- Carbone, Maurizio. 2016. *The European Union in Africa: Incoherent Policies, Asymmetrical Partnership, Declining Relevance?* Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Carey, Gemma, Pauline McLoughlin, and Brad Crammond. 2015. "Implementing Joined-up Government: Lessons from the Australian Social Inclusion Agenda." *Australian Journal of Public Administration* 74 (2): 176–86. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8500.12096>.
- Cash-Gibson, Lucinda, and Magda Rosenmoller. 2014. "Project INTEGRATE - a Common Methodological Approach to Understand Integrated Health Care in Europe." *International Journal of Integrated Care* 14 (4). <https://doi.org/10.5334/ijic.1980>.
- Cavusgil, S. Tamer, Shaoming Zou, and G. M. Naidu. 1993. "Product and Promotion Adaptation in Export Ventures: An Empirical Investigation." *Journal of International Business Studies* 24 (3): 479–506. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490242>.
- Chan, Albert P.C., and Goodenough D. Opong. 2017. "Managing the Expectations of External Stakeholders in Construction Projects." *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management* 24 (5): 736–56. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ecam-07-2016-0159>.
- Chapin, Timothy S. 2012. "Introduction." *Journal of the American Planning Association* 78 (1): 5–15. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01944363.2011.645273>.
- Chêne, Marie. 2022. "Corruption at Borders." Wwww.u4.No. Anti-corruption resource centre. 2022. <https://www.u4.no/publications/corruption-at-borders.pdf>.
- Collier, Ute. 1996. *Energy and Environment in the European Union: The Challenge of Integration*. Aldershot: Avebury.
- Coning, Cedric de. 2007. "NUPI Report Security in Practice No. 5 [a Publication in the NUPI Series on Security in Practice] Norsk Utenrikspolitisk Institutt Norwegian Institute of International Affairs Coherence and Coordination in United Nations Peacebuilding and Integrated Missions Cedric de Coning -A Norwegian Perspective [UN-PROGRAMME]."

- <https://nupi.brange.unit.no/nupi-xmlui/bitstream/handle/11250/2579281/de+Coning-Security+in+Practice+no.+5.pdf?sequence=1>.
- Cook, Andy. 2020. "4 Surefire Ways to Facilitate Productive Team Coordination." Tetra. 2020. <https://tetra.com/article/team-coordination/#:~:text=Team%20coordination%20refers%20to%20the>.
- Cook, Sarah, Shufang Zhang, and Ilcheong Yi. 2013. "Health and Development: Challenges and Pathways to HiAP in Low-Income Countries." In *Health in All Policies: Seizing Opportunities, Implementing Policies*, edited by Kimmo Leppo, Eeva Ollila, PeñaSebastian, Matthias Wismar, and Sarah Cook. S. L.: Ministry Of Social Affairs And Health, Finland, Cop.
- Corlazzoli, Vanessa, and Jonathan White. 2013. *Measuring the Un-Measurable*. London: Department for International Development and UK Aid. Solutions to Measurement Challenges in Fragile and Conflict-affected Environments.
- Cornwall, A, and K Brock. 2005. "Beyond Buzzwords: 'Poverty Reduction', 'Participation' and 'Empowerment' in Development Policy." *UNRISD*. <https://www.unrisd.org/en/library/publications/beyond-buzzwords-135-participation-and-empowerment-in-development-policy>.
- David, Patricia, Terence Beney, Hortense Mudenge, Lauren Montgomery-Rinehart, Sylvestre Musengimana, and Canisius Nzayisenga. 2018. *Whole-of-Project Performance Evaluation of the Community Health and Improved Nutrition (CHAIN) Project Rwanda*. USAID (Washington DC).
- Denicol, Juliano. 2022. "Why Clear Managerial Recommendations Matter in Major Projects Research: Searching for Relevance in Practice." *International Journal of Project Management* 40 (2). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2022.01.004>.
- Derickson, Kate, Mira Klein, and Bonnie L. Keeler. 2021. "Reflections on Crafting a Policy Toolkit for Equitable Green Infrastructure." *Npj Urban Sustainability* 1 (1). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s42949-021-00014-0>.
- Dillon, Leonellha Barreto. 2010. "Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation | SSWM - Find Tools for Sustainable Sanitation and Water Management!" *Sswm.info*. 2010. <https://sswm.info/arctic-wash/module-3-health-risk-assessment/further-resources-participatory-approaches-and-health/participatory-monitoring-and-evaluation>.
- Dobler, G. (2016). The green, the grey and the blue: a typology of cross-border trade in Africa. *The Journal of Modern African Studies*. 54(1), 145-169.
- Dolzblasz, S., & Raczyk, A. (2015). Different Borders-Different Cooperation? Transborder Cooperation in Poland. *Geographical Review*105(3), 360-376.
- Dowding, Keith, Andrew Hindmoor, and Aaron Martin. 2015. "The Comparative Policy Agendas Project: Theory, Measurement and Findings." *Journal of Public Policy* 36 (1): 3-25. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0143814x15000124>.
- Dreby, Joanna. 2006. "Honor and Virtue." *Gender & Society* 20 (1): 32-59. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0891243205282660>.

- Dudziak, Mary L., and Leti Volpp. 2005. "Introduction: Legal Borderlands: Law and the Construction of American Borders." *American Quarterly* 57 (3): 593–610. <https://doi.org/10.1353/aq.2005.0045>.
- Eby, Kate. 2021. "Project Management Lessons Learned | Smartsheet." www.smartsheet.com. smartsheet. May 6, 2021. <https://www.smartsheet.com/content/lessons-learned>.
- Edwards, Frances L. 2009. "Effective Disaster Response in Cross Border Events." *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management* 17 (4): 255–65. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-5973.2009.00584.x>.
- Emery, Mary, and Cornelia Flora. 2006. "Spiraling-Up: Mapping Community Transformation with Community Capitals Framework." *Community Development* 37 (1): 19–35. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15575330609490152>.
- EpicFlow. 2021. "Dealing with Unrealistic Expectations in Project Management." EpicFlow. EpicFlow. March 31, 2021. <https://www.epicflow.com/blog/dealing-with-unrealistic-expectations-in-project-management/#:~:text=Unrealistic%20expectations%20are%20a%20challenging>.
- European Commission. 2007. *EU Report on Policy Coherence for Development*. Luxembourg: Office For Official Publications Of The European Communities.
- European Union. 2021. "Project - Improvement of the Cross-Border WiFi Internet Communication and Internet Access at the Level of Oradea Metropolitan Area and Debrecen City." [Keep.eu](http://keep.eu). 2021. <https://keep.eu/projects/8272/Improvement-of-the-cross-bor-EN/>.
- Fanning, Emma, and Jessica Fullwood-Thomas. 2019. "THE HUMANITARIAN-DEVELOPMENT-PEACE NEXUS What Does It Mean for Multi-Mandated Organizations?" *Oxfam Discussion Paper*. <https://oxfamilibrary.openrepository.com/bitstream/handle/10546/620820/dp-humanitarian-development-peace-nexus-260619-en.pdf>.
- Feindt, Peter H. 2012. "The Politics of Biopatents in Food and Agriculture, 1950–2010: Value Conflict, Competing Paradigms and Contested Institutionalisation in Multi-Level Governance." *Policy and Society* 31 (4): 281–93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.polsoc.2012.09.002>.
- Ferretti, Valentina. 2016. "From Stakeholders Analysis to Cognitive Mapping and Multi-Attribute Value Theory: An Integrated Approach for Policy Support." *European Journal of Operational Research* 253 (2): 524–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejor.2016.02.054>.
- Finsterbusch, Kurt, and Warren A. Van Wicklin. 1989. "Beneficiary Participation in Development Projects: Empirical Tests of Popular Theories." *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 37 (3): 573–93. <https://doi.org/10.1086/451743>.
- Flora, Cornelia Butler, Jan L. Flora, and Stephen P. Gasteyer. 2019. *Rural Communities: Legacy and Change*. New York: Routledge.
- Fonseca, Luis Miguel, José Pedro Domingues, and Alina Mihaela Dima. 2020. "Mapping the Sustainable Development Goals Relationships." *Sustainability* 12 (8): 3359. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12083359>.

- Forman, Johanna Mendelson, and Stacey White. 2011. “The Dominican Response to the Haiti Earthquake a Neighbor’s Journey.” Washington D.C.: Center for Strategies & International Studies. https://csis-website-prod.s3.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/legacy_files/files/publication/111208_MendelForman_DominicanResponse_WEB.pdf.
- Goggin, Malcolm L, Ann O’M Bowman, James P Lester, and Laurence J O’Toole Jr. 1990. *Implementation Theory and Practice: Toward a Third Generation*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Grassroots Collective. *Tools for Effective Project Planning in Community Development (Handbook 1)*. Grassrootscollective. Grassroots Collective. <https://www.thegrassrootscollective.org/situational-analysis-nonprofit>.
- Green, Duncan. 2022. “Are We There Yet? Five Key Insights on Localisation as a Journey towards Locally-Led Practice – FP2P.” Oxfamapps.org. Oxfam GB. March 31, 2022. <https://oxfamapps.org/fp2p/are-we-there-yet-five-key-insights-on-localisation-as-a-journey-towards-locally-led-practice/>.
- Greene, Jennifer C., and Valerie J. Caracelli. 1997. “Defining and Describing the Paradigm Issue in Mixed-Method Evaluation.” *New Directions for Evaluation* 1997 (74): 5–17. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ev.1068>.
- Guha, Asi. 2020. “Environment Induced Resettlement and Profit-Sharing Model: A Case Study from Sundarban, West Bengal, India.” *Environmental Development* 35 (April): 100523. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envdev.2020.100523>.
- Gülzau, F., & Mau, S. (2021). Walls, Barriers, Checkpoints, Landmarks, and “No-Man’s-Land.” A Quantitative Typology of Border Control Infrastructure. *Historical Social Research*, 46:3, 23-48.
- Hannigan, J. 2018. Disasters Across Borders: Borderlands as Spaces of Hope and Innovation in the Geopolitics of Environmental Disasters. In: Miller, M., Douglass, M., Garschagen, M. (eds) *Crossing Borders*. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-6126-4_5
- Hazır, Öncü. 2015. “A Review of Analytical Models, Approaches and Decision Support Tools in Project Monitoring and Control.” *International Journal of Project Management* 33 (4): 808–15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2014.09.005>.
- Heijden, Jeroen van der. 2011. “Institutional Layering: A Review of the Use of the Concept.” *Politics* 31 (1): 9–18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9256.2010.01397.x>.
- Hettiarachchi, Hiroshan, and Chandrashekar Kshourad. 2019. “Promoting Waste-To-Energy: Nexus Thinking, Policy Instruments, and Implications for the Environment.” In *Current Developments in Biotechnology and Bioengineering: Waste Treatment Processes for Energy Generation*, edited by Sunil Kumar, Rakesh Kumar, and Ashok Pandey. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science.
- Hickel, Jason. 2019. “The Contradiction of the Sustainable Development Goals: Growth versus Ecology on a Finite Planet.” *Sustainable Development* 27 (5). <https://doi.org/10.1002/sd.1947>.
- Hood, Christopher. 1999. *The Tools of Government*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Umi Books On Demand.

- Howlett, M., and M. Ramesh. 2014. "The Two Orders of Governance Failure: Design Mismatches and Policy Capacity Issues in Modern Governance." *Policy and Society* 33 (4): 317–27. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.polsoc.2014.10.002>.
- Howlett, Michael. 2000. "Managing the 'Hollow State': Procedural Policy Instruments and Modern Governance." *Canadian Public Administration/ Administration Publique Du Canada* 43 (4): 412–31. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1754-7121.2000.tb01152.x>.
- Howlett, Michael, Ishani Mukherjee, and Jun Jie Woo. 2015. "From Tools to Toolkits in Policy Design Studies: The New Design Orientation towards Policy Formulation Research." *Policy & Politics* 43 (2): 291–311. <https://doi.org/10.1332/147084414x13992869118596>.
- Hudson, K.D. 2017. "Borderlands as a Critical Feminist Perspective in Social Work Research." In *Feminisms in Social Work Research: Promise and Possibilities for Justice-Based Knowledge*. London; New York: Routledge.
- Huser, B. 2011. *Indicators to support Environment Waikato's Long Term Plan 2009–2019 and Annual Plan 2010/11*. Environment Waikato document #1438053. New Zealand: Environment Waikato.
- ICSU. 2019. "A Guide to SDG Interactions: From Science to Implementation - International Science Council." International Science Council. International Science Council. 2019. <https://council.science/publications/a-guide-to-sdg-interactions-from-science-to-implementation/>.
- Institute for Work and Health. 2015. "Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Prevention | Institute for Work & Health." iwh.on.ca. April 2015. <https://www.iwh.on.ca/what-researchers-mean-by/primary-secondary-and-tertiary-prevention>.
- International Ecological Engineering Society. 2006. "Challenges in Developing an Institutional Framework." Sswm.info. ETSSAF Coordination Action. 2006. https://sswm.info/sites/default/files/reference_attachments/IEES%202006%20Challenges%20in%20Developing%20an%20Institutional%20Framework.pdf.
- Jabeen, T., & Sultan, S. (2020). Evolution of Borders and Borderlands: A Historical Overview. *Pakistan Social Sciences Review*, 4: III, 951-959.
- Johansen, Jorgen. 2007. "Nonviolence." In *Handbook of Peace and Conflict Studies*, edited by Charles Webel and Johan Galtung. New York: Routledge.
- Jordan, Andrew, and Andrea Lenschow. 2010. "Environmental Policy Integration: A State of the Art Review." *Environmental Policy and Governance* 20 (3): 147–58. <https://doi.org/10.1002/eet.539>.
- Kay, Adrian. 2007. "Tense Layering and Synthetic Policy Paradigms: The Politics of Health Insurance in Australia." *Australian Journal of Political Science* 42 (4): 579–91. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10361140701595775>.
- Kempf, Isabell, Byamukama, Nathan Mwesigye, and Singo, Stephen Mwachofi (2022) Security, Environment and Development in ICGLR's Zone 3: An integrated approach to sustainable peace in Borderlands - a case study on the Great Lakes Region of Africa. *Working Paper for DEEPEN Project*, Geneva: UNRISD.

- Kingdon, John W. 1984. *Agendas, Alternatives and Public Policies*. Harlow: Pearson Education, Cop.
- Kim, Younwan, Lim, Sijeong, and Lee, Jinyoung (2022). Does an Integrated Approach Lead to Better Outcomes? The Youth Volunteers Supporting Peace and Recovery in Darfur, *Working Paper for DEEPEN Project*, Geneva: UNRISD
- Kim, Bo Kyung and Kim, Taekyoon (2022) Connecting Inclusive Mechanisms for the Integrated Approach Across Borders: KOICA’s Mine Action & Peace Village Projects in the Mekong Region, *Working Paper for DEEPEN Project*, Geneva: UNRISD.
- Kolossov, V. (2005). Border Studies: Changing Perspectives and Theoretical Approaches. *Geopolitics*, 10:606–632.
- Kolossov, V., & Scott, J. (2013). Selected conceptual issues in border studies. *Belgian Journal of Geography*, 1-19.
- Korten, David C., and Rudi Klauss, eds. 1984. *People Centered Development: Contributions toward Theory and Planning Frameworks*. West Hartford: Kumarian.
- Kruger, Linda E., and Margaret A. Shannon. 2000. “Getting to Know Ourselves and Our Places Through Participation in Civic Social Assessment.” *Society & Natural Resources* 13 (5): 461–78.
- Kruger, Linda E., and Margaret A. Shannon. 2000. “Getting to Know Ourselves and Our Places through Participation in Civic Social Assessment.” *Society & Natural Resources* 13 (5): 461–78. <https://doi.org/10.1080/089419200403866>.
- Kukathas, Chandran. 2022. “Expatriatism: The Theory and Practice of Open Borders.” [Smu.edu.sg. Singapore Management University. 2022. https://ink.library.smu.edu.sg/soss_research/2995/](https://ink.library.smu.edu.sg/soss_research/2995/).
- Lafferty, William, and Eivind Hovden. 2003. “Environmental Policy Integration: Towards an Analytical Framework.” *Environmental Politics* 12 (3): 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09644010412331308254>.
- Le Blanc, David. 2015. “Towards Integration at Last? The Sustainable Development Goals as a Network of Targets.” *Sustainable Development* 23 (3): 176–87. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sd.1582>.
- Leibenath, M. 2008. “Exploring the Gaps: Sustainability as a Challenge for Cross-Border Governance in Central Europe.” In *Cross-Border Governance and Sustainable Spatial Development - Mind the Gaps!*, edited by M Leibenath, E Korcelli-Olejniczak, and R Knippschild. Berlin: Springer.
- Leloup, F. (2021). Research for REGI Committee – Cross-border Cooperation in Healthcare. Brussels: Research for REGI Committee – European Parliament, Policy Department for Structural and Cohesion Policies.
- Li, Terry H.Y., S. Thomas Ng, and Martin Skitmore. 2013. “Evaluating Stakeholder Satisfaction during Public Participation in Major Infrastructure and Construction Projects: A Fuzzy Approach.” *Automation in Construction* 29 (29): 123–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.autcon.2012.09.007>.

- Liberatore, Angela. 1997. "The Integration of Sustainable Development Objectives into EU Policy-Making: Barriers and Prospects." In *The Politics of Sustainable Development*, edited by Susan Baker, Maria Kousis, Dick Richardson, and Stephen Young. London; New York: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.
- Mahn, Timo C. 2013. "Country-level aid coordination at the United Nations: taking the Resident Coordinator system forward." *Studies*, No. 77, ISBN 978-3-88985-584-8, Deutsches Institut für Entwicklungspolitik (DIE), Bonn.
- Mahoney, James, and Rodrigo Barrenechea. 2017. "The Logic of Counterfactual Analysis in Case-Study Explanation." *The British Journal of Sociology* 70 (1): 306–38. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-4446.12340>.
- Malone, Thomas W., and Kevin Crowston. 1994. "The Interdisciplinary Study of Coordination." *ACM Computing Surveys* 26 (1): 87–119. <https://doi.org/10.1145/174666.174668>.
- Marshall-Ponting, A.J., and G. Aouad. 2005. "An ND Modelling Approach to Improve Communication Processes for Construction." *Automation in Construction* 14 (3): 311–21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.autcon.2004.08.018>.
- MartínezDaniel M, Ben W Ebenhack, and Travis Wagner. 2019. "Policy Instruments to Foster Energy Efficiency." In *Energy Efficiency: Concepts and Calculations*, edited by MartínezDaniel M, Ben W Ebenhack, and Travis Wagner. Amsterdam, Netherlands; Cambridge, Ma, United States: Elsevier.
- May, Peter J., Ashley E. Jochim, and Joshua Sapotichne. 2011. "Constructing Homeland Security: An Anemic Policy Regime." *Policy Studies Journal* 39 (2): 285–307. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1541-0072.2011.00408.x>.
- May, Peter J., Joshua Sapotichne, and Samuel Workman. 2006. "Policy Coherence and Policy Domains." *Policy Studies Journal* 34 (3): 381–403. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1541-0072.2006.00178.x>.
- Mazmanian, Daniel A, and Paul A Sabatier. 1989. *Implementation and Public Policy: With a New Postscript*. Lanham: University Press Of America, Cop.
- Meadows, Donella H. 1972. *The Limits to Growth: A Report for the Club of Rome's Project on the Predicament of Mankind*. New York: Universe Books.
- Meadows, Donella, John Richardson, and Gerhart Bruckmann. 1982. *Groping in the Dark*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Incorporated.
- Mendelow, A. 1981. Environmental scanning: The impact of stakeholder concept. In Proceedings of the second international conference on information systems, December 1981, Cambridge, Mass.
- Mendoza, Jorge Eduardo, and Bruno Dupeyron. 2017. "Economic Integration, Emerging Fields and Cross-Border Governance: The Case of San Diego–Tijuana." *Journal of Borderlands Studies* 35 (1): 55–74. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08865655.2017.1367711>.

- Mikhailova, E. 2014. Theorizing on CBG: From Emergence of the Concept to its current Understanding. Moscow. https://www.academia.edu/9236087/_Theorizing_on_Cross-Border_Governance_from_Emergence_of_the_Concept_to_its_Current_Understanding.
- Miola A., Borchardt S., Neher F., Buscaglia D. 2019. Interlinkages and policy coherence for the Sustainable Development Goals implementation. JRC Technical Reports. European Commission.
- More, Inigo. 2011. *The borders of inequality: Where wealth and poverty collide*. Tucson: The University of Arizona Press Tucson.
- Morra, Linda G, Ray C Rist, and Inc Ebrary. 2009. *The Road to Results: Designing and Conducting Effective Development Evaluations*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- NCVO. 2020. “How to Build a Theory of Change — NCVO Knowhow.” [knowhow.ncvo.org.uk](https://knowhow.ncvo.org.uk/how-to/how-to-build-a-theory-of-change#). NCVO. 2020. <https://knowhow.ncvo.org.uk/how-to/how-to-build-a-theory-of-change#>.
- Newman, D. (2011). On Borders and Power: A Theoretical Framework. *Journal of Borderlands Studies*, 18:1, 13-25.
- Nicholson-Crotty, Sean. 2005. “Bureaucratic Competition in the Policy Process.” *Policy Studies Journal* 33 (3): 341–61. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1541-0072.2005.00119.x>.
- Nilsson, Måns, and Lars J. Nilsson. 2005. “Towards Climate Policy Integration in the EU: Evolving Dilemmas and Opportunities.” *Climate Policy* 5 (3): 363–76. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14693062.2005.9685563>.
- Nunan, Fiona, Adrian Campbell, and Emma Foster. 2012. “ENVIRONMENTAL MAINSTREAMING: THE ORGANISATIONAL CHALLENGES of POLICY INTEGRATION.” *Public Administration and Development* 32 (3): 262–77. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pad.1624>.
- OECD. 2003. “Rome Declaration on Harmonisation 10 Harmonising Donor Practices For Effective Aid Rome Declaration on Harmonisation Ministers, Heads of Aid Agencies and Other Senior Officials Representing 28 Aid Recipient Countries and More than 40 Multilateral and Bilateral Development Institutions Endorsed the Rome Declaration on Harmonisation In.” Rome Declaration on Harmonisation. 2003. <https://www.oecd.org/dac/effectiveness/31451637.pdf>.
- . 2009. “Building Blocks for Policy Coherence for Development.” Paris: OECD.
- Oelke, Sandra, and Anna Scherer. 2022. “The Humanitarian-Development-Peace (HDP) Nexus: Challenges in Implementation - World | ReliefWeb.” *Reliefweb.int*. Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau: ReliefWeb. <https://reliefweb.int/report/world/humanitarian-development-peace-hdp-nexus-challenges-implementation>.
- Ollila, Eeva. 2010. “Health in All Policies: From Rhetoric to Action.” *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health* 39 (6_suppl): 11–18. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1403494810379895>.

- PAGE (Partnership for Action on Green Economy). 2016. “Integrated Planning & Sustainable Development: Challenges and Opportunities Synthesis Report.” *PAGE*.
https://www.greengrowthknowledge.org/sites/default/files/downloads/resource/undp_synt_hesis_report.pdf.
- Papademetriou, D., and D.W. Meyers, eds. 2001. *Caught in the Middle: Border Communities in an Era of Globalization*, Washington, DC: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.
- Park, S., Y. Yoon, and M. Ahn. 2021. *Meanings and Cases of Integrated Approaches to Development Cooperation (in Korean)*. KOICA (Seongnam-Si).
- Parrenas, Rhacel Salazar. 2001. “Mothering from a Distance: Emotions, Gender, and Intergenerational Relations in Filipino Transnational Families.” *Feminist Studies* 27 (2): 361.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/3178765>.
- Parreñas, Rhacel Salazar. 2008. “Transnational Fathering: Gendered Conflicts, Distant Disciplining and Emotional Gaps.” *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies* 34 (7): 1057–72.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13691830802230356>.
- Perkmann, Markus, and Ngai-Ling Sum. 2002. “Globalization, Regionalization and Cross-Border Regions: Scales, Discourses and Governance.” In *Globalization, Regionalization and Cross-Border Regions*, edited by Markus Perkmann and Ngai-Ling Sum. London Palgrave Macmillan Uk.
- Peters, B. Guy. 1998. “Managing Horizontal Government: The Politics of Co-Ordination.” *Public Administration* 76 (2): 295–311. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9299.00102>.
- Petrunej, Tricia. 2016. *Development Sector Adjacency Map*. FHI360.
- Project Management Institute. 2004. *A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge*. 3rd ed. Newtown Square, Pa: Project Management Institute, Inc.
- . 2013. *A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge: PMBOK Guide*. 5th ed. Newtown Square, Pennsylvania: Project Management Institute.
- . 2021. *A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge: (PMBOK® Guide)*. 7th ed. Newtown Square, Pennsylvania, USA: Project Management Institute.
- Radil, Steven M., Ian Irmischer, and Olivier J. Walther. 2021. “Contextualizing the Relationship between Borderlands and Political Violence: A Dynamic Space-Time Analysis in North and West Africa.” *Journal of Borderlands Studies* 37 (2): 1–19.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/08865655.2021.1968926>.
- Reinschmidt, Kerstin M., Nicolette I. Teufel-Shone, Gail Bradford, Rebecca L. Drummond, Emma Torres, Floribella Redondo, Jo Jean Elenes, et al. 2010. “Taking a Broad Approach to Public Health Program Adaptation: Adapting a Family-Based Diabetes Education Program.” *The Journal of Primary Prevention* 31 (1-2): 69–83. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10935-010-0208-6>.
- RHIhub. 2022. “Considerations When Adapting a Program.” [Www.ruralhealthinfo.org](http://www.ruralhealthinfo.org). Rural Health Information Hub. May 16, 2022. <https://www.ruralhealthinfo.org/toolkits/rural-toolkit/2/adapting-interventions>.

- Sachs, Jeffrey D. 2012. “From Millennium Development Goals to Sustainable Development Goals.” *The Lancet* 379 (9832): 2206–11. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736\(12\)60685-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736(12)60685-0).
- Saiki, K. 2009. *A design of IWRM basin performance benchmarking program*. Tokyo: Civil Engineering Department, University of Tokyo.
- Sallinen, Liisa, Inkeri Ruuska, and Tuomas Ahola. 2013. “How Governmental Stakeholders Influence Large Projects: The Case of Nuclear Power Plant Projects.” *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business* 6 (1): 51–68. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17538371311291026>.
- Samson, Michael. 2012. “Measuring Social Security’s Comprehensive Impacts within a Developmental Framework.” In *UNRISD Methodological Workshop: Towards Universal Social Security in Emerging Economies*. Bangkok: UNRISD.
- Sarto, R. A. (2014). Defining Borders and People in the Borderlands: EU Policies, Israeli Prerogatives and the Palestinians. *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 200-216.
- Schneider, Anne Larason, and Helen M Ingram. 1997. *Policy Design for Democracy*. Lawrence: University Press Of Kansas.
- Schneyer, J. 2007. Crossing over. *PM Network*, 3(1), 30–31.
- Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity. 2008. “CBD Technical Series No. Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity CROSS-SECTORAL TOOLKIT for the CONSERVATION and SUSTAINABLE MANAGEMENT of FOREST BIODIVERSITY.” *CBD Technical Series No.39*. Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity. <https://www.cbd.int/doc/publications/cbd-ts-39-en.pdf>.
- Sen, Amartya Kumar. 2010. *The Idea of Justice*. London: Penguin Books.
- Slootweg, R. 2009. *Integrated water resources management and strategic environmental assessment: Joining forces for climate proofing*. The Netherlands: Co-operative Programme on Water and Climate (CPWC) and the Netherlands Commission for Environmental Assessment (MER).
- Sohn, Christophe. 2014. “Modelling Cross-Border Integration: The Role of Borders as a Resource.” *Geopolitics* 19 (3): 587–608. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14650045.2014.913029>.
- Stamnes, Eli. 2016. “Rethinking the Humanitarian-Development Nexus 1 Eli Stamnes.” <https://ethz.ch/content/dam/ethz/special-interest/gess/cis/center-for-securities-studies/resources/docs/NUPI-Rethinking%20the%20Humanitarian-Development.pdf>.
- Sterman, John D. 2014. *Business Dynamics: Systems Thinking and Modeling for a Complex World*. Boston: Irwin.
- Strand, A. 2020. “Humanitarian–Development Nexus.” In *Humanitarianism: Keywords*, edited by Antonio De Lauri. Leiden: Brill.
- Schubert, Susanne and Gupta, Joyeeta. 2013. “Comparing Global Coordination Mechanisms on Energy, Environment, and Water.” *Ecology and Society* 18(2). <http://dx.doi.org/10.5751/ES-05440-180222>

- Szasz, Levente, Maïke Scherrer, Patricia Deflorin, Kozeta Sevrani, Betim Cico, Adrian Besimi, Kreshnik Vukatana, and Bela Racz. 2017. "The Role of ICT-Based Information Systems in Knowledge Transfer within Multinational Companies." *HAL Open Science*. <https://hal.inria.fr/hal-01666168/document>.
- Toffler, Alvin. 1970. *Future Shock*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Topaloglou, L., Kallioras, D., Manetos, P., & Petrakos, G. (2005). A Border Regions Typology in the Enlarged European Union. *Journal of Borderlands Studies* 20(2).
- Tosun, Jale, and Achim Lang. 2017. "Policy Integration: Mapping the Different Concepts." *Policy Studies* 38 (6): 553–70. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01442872.2017.1339239>.
- Tran, Dung Duc, Gerardo van Halsema, Petra J.G.J. Hellegers, Fulco Ludwig, and Chris Seijger. 2018. "Stakeholders' Assessment of Dike-Protected and Flood-Based Alternatives from a Sustainable Livelihood Perspective in An Giang Province, Mekong Delta, Vietnam." *Agricultural Water Management* 206 (206): 187–99. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agwat.2018.04.039>. <https://doi.org/10.1111/padm.12323>.
- Trein, Philipp, Iris Meyer, and Martino Maggetti. 2018. "The Integration and Coordination of Public Policies: A Systematic Comparative Review." *Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis: Research and Practice* 21 (4): 332–49. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13876988.2018.1496667>.
- Trein, Philipp. 2017. "Coevolution of Policy Sectors: A Comparative Analysis of Healthcare and Public Health." *Public Administration* 95 (3): 744–58. <https://doi.org/10.1111/padm.12323>.
- Trémolières, M., O. Walther, and S. Radil, eds. 2020. *The Geography of Conflict in North and West Africa*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- Turnpenny, John, Måns Nilsson, Duncan Russel, Andrew Jordan, Julia Hertin, and Björn Nykvist. 2008. "Why Is Integrating Policy Assessment so Hard? A Comparative Analysis of the Institutional Capacities and Constraints." *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management* 51 (6): 759–75. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09640560802423541>.
- UNDP. (2021, February 8). *Borderlands in Africa: Literature Review and Key Terms*. Retrieved from *Borderlands in Africa*: <https://www.africa.undp.org/content/rba/en/home/library/outreach-material/borderlands-in-africa-literature-overview-and-key-terms.html>
- UNFPA. 2022. "UNFPA-UNICEF Joint Programme on Female Genital Mutilation." [Www.unfpa.org](https://www.unfpa.org). May 17, 2022. <https://www.unfpa.org/unfpa-unicef-joint-programme-female-genital-mutilation>.
- United Nations. 2019. *Global Sustainable Development Report 2019: The Future Is Now: Science for Achieving Sustainable Development*. New York, NY: UN Department Of Economic And Social Affairs.
- UN OCHA. 2019. "UN Disaster Assessment and Coordination (UNDAC)." OCHA. UN OCHA. April 16, 2019. <https://www.unocha.org/our-work/coordination/un-disaster-assessment-and-coordination-undac>.

- USAID. 2021. “Integrated Technical and Organizational Capacity Assessment for Momentum Country and Global Leadership Facilitator’s Guide Integrated Technical Organizational Capacity Assessment for Momentum Country and Global Leadership: Facilitator’s Guide 2 Acknowledgements.” https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00XJKT.pdf.
- Van Asselt, H, T Rayner, and Å Persson. 2015. “Climate Policy Integration.” In *Research Handbook on Climate Governance*, edited by Karin Backstrand and LövbrandEva. Cheltenham, Uk: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Venkatesh, Govindarajan. 2019. “Pinch Analysis, as a Technique for Optimising Resource Utilisation and Promoting Environmental Sustainability: A Review of Recent Case Studies from the Developing World and Transition Economies.” *Resources Environment and Information Engineering* 1 (1): 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.25082/reie.2019.01.001>.
- Vezzoli, Simona. 2021. “How Do Borders Influence Migration? Insights from Open and Closed Border Regimes in the Three Guianas.” *Comparative Migration Studies* 9 (1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40878-020-00213-1>.
- Viarengo, Ilaria, and Francesca Viarengo. 2020. *Planning the Future of Cross Border Families a Path through Coordination*. Oxford Hart Publishing.
- Villanueva, J. L., Kidokoro, T., & Seta, F. (2021). A Governance Theory for Cross-Border Regions: Identifying Principles and Processes with Grounded Theory. *Journal of Borderlands Studies*, 1-25.
- Visseren-Hamakers, Ingrid J. 2015. “Integrative Environmental Governance: Enhancing Governance in the Era of Synergies.” *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, no. 14: 136–43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2015.05.008>.
- Vogeler, I. (nd). Types of International Borders along the U.S.-Mexico Border. Retrieved from Types of International Borders: <https://www.siue.edu/GEOGRAPHY/ONLINE/Vogeler/TypesBorders.htm>
- Watt, Adrienne. 2014. *Project Management*. Victoria, B.C.: BCcampus. <https://opentextbc.ca/projectmanagement/>.
- Weible, Christopher M, and Paul A Sabatier, eds. 2018. *Theories of the Policy Process*. New York, NY: Westview Press.
- Wong Villanueva, Jose L., Tetsuo Kidokoro, and Fumihiko Seta. 2021. “A Governance Theory for Cross-Border Regions: Identifying Principles and Processes with Grounded Theory.” *Journal of Borderlands Studies*, February 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08865655.2021.1878924>.
- Woodside, Kenneth. 1986. “Policy Instruments and the Study of Public Policy*.” *Canadian Journal of Political Science/Revue Canadienne de Science Politique* 19 (4): 775–94. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0008423900055141>.
- Wu, Xun, and M. Ramesh. 2013. “Market Imperfections, Government Imperfections, and Policy Mixes: Policy Innovations in Singapore.” *Policy Sciences* 47 (3): 305–20. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11077-013-9186-x>.

- Xue, Xiaolong, Ruixue Zhang, Xiaoling Zhang, Rebecca Jing Yang, and Hong Li. 2015. "Environmental and Social Challenges for Urban Subway Construction: An Empirical Study in China." *International Journal of Project Management* 33 (3): 576–88. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2014.09.003>.
- Yang, Rebecca Jing. 2014. "An Investigation of Stakeholder Analysis in Urban Development Projects: Empirical or Rationalistic Perspectives." *International Journal of Project Management* 32 (5): 838–49. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2013.10.011>.
- Yi, Ilcheong and Lee, Jinyoung. 2018. A Critical Approach to Understanding and Assessing Developmental Partnership in the Context of International Development Cooperation. *International Development and Cooperation Review* 10 (2): 31-64
- Zeitoun, A. A. 2002. Who is the international development project manager? Paper presented at Project Management Institute Annual Seminars & Symposium, San Antonio, TX. Newtown Square, PA: Project Management Institute.

Interviewees

Paul Lundberg, UNDP Consultant

Dohyun Won, Director, UNFPA Seoul Office

Haeun Marcelino Seong, Representative of Good Neighbors Geneva Office

Martina Piras, Policy Officer of Good Neighbors Geneva Office

Jos De La Haye, Deputy-Director, UNDP Sudan Office

Donghyuk Park, Project Manager, Immigration and Border Management Unit, International Organization for Migration, Conakry – Guinea

Yeni Soh, Project Manager, WFP, Guinea

Anonymous interviewee A, B, C.