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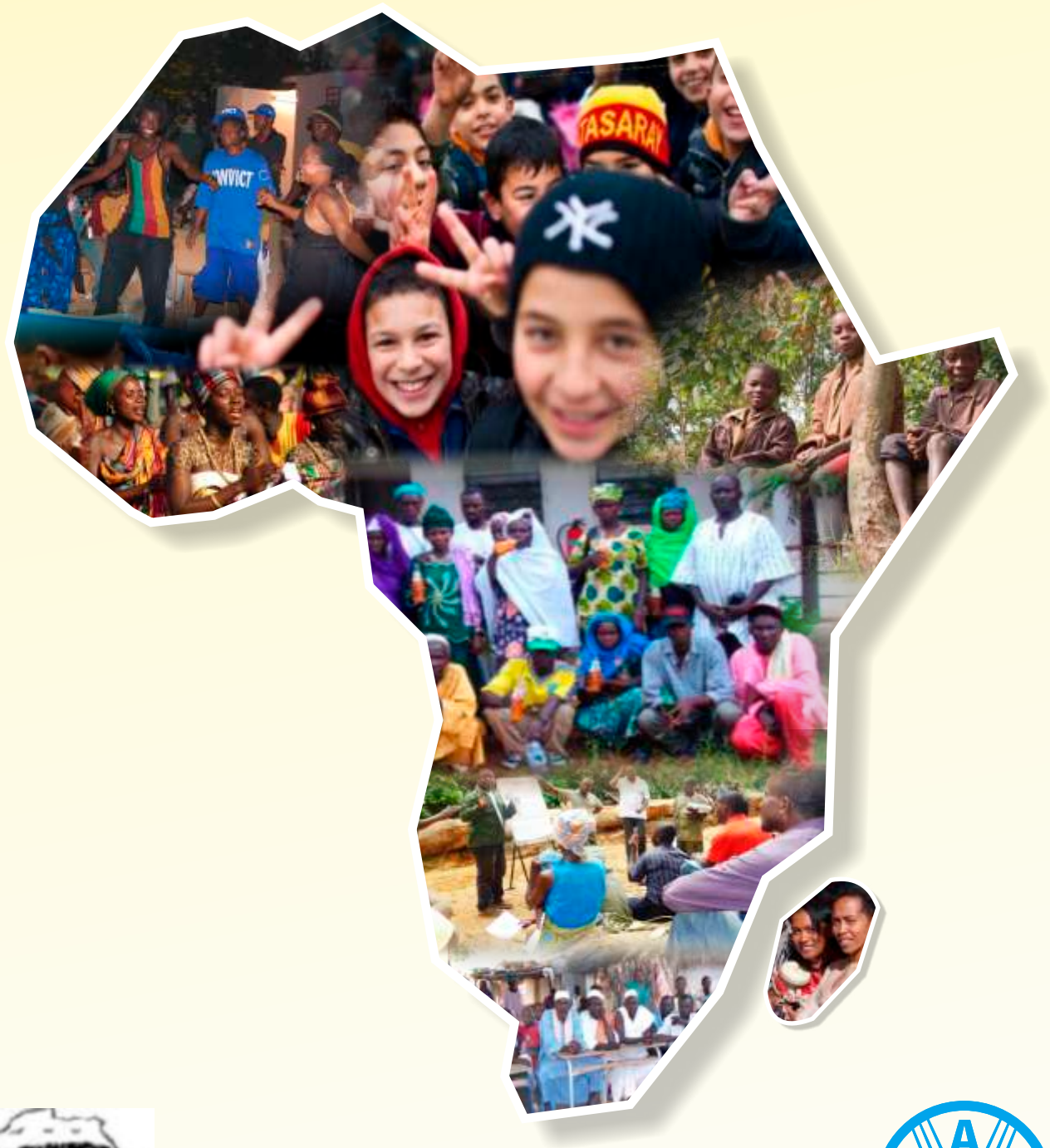

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Promoting good governance in natural resource management in Africa

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Contents

Message to Readers 1
Maria Helena Semedo

Editorial
Paul Munro-Faure and Paul Mathieu 2

Special Feature **4**

Tackling forest illegality through the Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade Action Plan
Simpson Robert, Sophie Lemaitre and Giulia Muir *4*

Opinion Piece **9**

Governance challenges for natural resource management in Africa
Jeffrey Sayer *9*

Articles **12**

Forest governance reforms: the way forward for the sustainable management of Africa's forests
Adewale Adeleke *12*

International forest policy and governance framework: implications for forests and food security
Peter C. Gondo *15*

Forest policies can be at the centre of change: Looking at the landscape approach on a national level
Ina Neuberger *18*

Ambivalence of the 1994 Cameroon forestry law in ensuring good governance
Chi Augustine Muam *22*

The rich get richer and the poor get committees? Institutional arrangements and requirements for local forest management in Africa
Jon Anderson, Shreya Mehta and Jonathan Schwarz *26*

Promising initiatives in promoting good natural resources governance: The experience of forest governance in Burkina Faso
Edouard G. Bonkoungou *31*

The Mano River Union sub-region: *"The lungs and water tower of West Africa"*
Alpha Ahmadou Baldeh *35*

Implementation of fishing gear restrictions in Mtwara district of Tanzania
Robert Katikiro *40*

Methods for assessing pastoral resources for their preservation in the steppes of Eastern Algeria
Ghamri Abdelaziz Nadir *43*

Country Focus: Zambia **49**

The forest governance challenge in REDD+: Core governance issues that must be addressed for REDD+ success in Zambia
Davison Gumbo and Orleans Mfune *49*

FAO Activities and Results **54**

Governance in the establishment of national forest monitoring, measurement, reporting and verification systems in Central Africa
Cléto Ndikumagenge 54

Land and natural resource management in Angola: An innovative approach based on dialogue and negotiation
Francisco Carranza *59*

Developing comprehensive guidelines to institutionalize and implement community-based forest management in sub-saharan Africa
Foday Bojang *63*

Ensuring sustainability of wildlife resources in central Africa through community involvement
Arnoud Steeman and Dieudonné Bruno Waneyombo-Brachka *66*

Links **70**

News **71**

Announcement **73**

Theme and Deadline for Next Issue **74**

Guidelines for Authors, Subscription and Correspondence **75**

Message to Readers

Maria Helena Semedo[1]

The present issue of *Nature & Faune* looks at the theme "Promoting good governance in natural resource management in Africa". It is made up of some 17 articles, a good number of which dwell on structures and processes (Edouard Bonkoungou, Francisco Carranza, Robert Simpson et al, Peter Gondo, Robert Katikiro, Ina Neuberger, Foday Bojang, Arnoud Steeman and Dieudonné Bruno Waneyombo-Brachka). They describe and analyse how projects and programs were designed and how committees etc. were composed; how transparent the governance is, whether adequately decentralized or participatory etc. Evidences thus abound that authenticate that Africa has committees and structures in abundance even though it is not apparent whether the governance mechanisms have successfully triggered development. Do the governance systems in operation in Africa encourage action or simple auto-admiration of how well the processes comply with standard criteria of sound governance? Have these systems led to wise management of trees and forests, water and soil, livestock and fisheries in Africa?

Elaborating structures and processes is not free, and should be conducted up to the point where marginal cost is equal to marginal benefit. Is the elaborateness of governance procedures and structures commensurate with observed developmental returns to effort? Case studies in this edition show governance structures and processes that are perhaps too costly for the benefits they will yield. The seventeen essays discuss these issues to varying degrees and from different perspectives.

The articles also present some individual specificities worth noting: Ghamri Abdelaziz Nadir proposes a mathematical formula based on field measurements in Eastern Algeria, demonstrative of important link between the governance of pasturelands and improvement in livestock management. When it comes to water towers of West Africa, Fouta Djallon has always been on the spotlight, supported by a string of donor-aided projects! This time an article by Alpha Baldeh, brings the Mano River to the limelight, underlying clearly the key threats to the vegetation cover of the massive ecosystem. He concludes that the identified problems relate to the so-called "tragedy of the commons"; and that finding adequate solutions to these threats is more of an issue of political commitment and capacity to enforce laws in natural resources utilization, than a money issue.

Paul Munro-Faure and Paul Mathieu, in the editorial, lay emphasis on sound and secure land tenure as a necessary condition for good governance in agricultural development and natural resources management. An opinion piece by Jeff Sayer makes a persuasive case for finding long-term solutions to governance problems, stressing the importance of societal commitment to improving social and material wellbeing through sound choices for development. Several authors, including, Jon Anderson et al, Chi Augustine Muam, and Adewale Adeleke discuss the nuts and bolts of the income-generating opportunities from natural resources; and deplore the fact that the income is mostly spent on administration. They recommend that community benefits should not be restricted to products of limited value, but should also capture some of the major economic opportunities.

The legitimate top ambition of many African countries is the overall sustainable management of their renewable natural resources, including forest resources. Cléto Ndikumagenge, Davison Gumbo and Orleans Mfune contributed articles on *Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing Countries* (REDD), highlighting the fact that REDD+ goes beyond reducing deforestation and forest degradation, and includes the role of conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks. Read their articles to find out the degree to which the models of governance they propose are appropriate for success.

In sum, governance styles change rapidly; the means by which governance itself is practised must keep up with the pace of change. It is an adventure; join our readership and explore the rich discourse !

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Editorial

Promoting responsible governance in natural resource management in Africa

Paul Munro-Faure and Paul Mathieu[1]

In many rural regions of Africa, growing pressures for natural resources arising from increasing population and global demands, and often combined with management practices aiming to maximize short term benefits at the expense of long term sustainability, frequently result in overexploitation and degradation of the natural resource base; affecting land fertility, pastures, water and forests.

To counter this trend and the associated risks, several conditions need to be fulfilled: (i) investments in sustainable production and management of resources; sustainable rural development, (ii) secure tenure rights to natural resources, and (iii) good governance with effective and equitable institutions to enforce the rights of all stakeholders and ensure coordination and regulation of individual and social behaviours.

(i) **Sustainable rural development**, or conservation with development, can only be achieved through increased investments to achieve both higher productivity of natural resources and conservation of the resource base. In other words, investments for sustainable intensification and management of natural resources are absolutely necessary to counter the trends and risks of degradation of the resource base and negative impacts on livelihoods and food security. As expressed in the "Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure..." (para. 12.2) "... smallholder producers and their organizations in developing countries provide a major share of agricultural investments that contribute significantly to food security, nutrition, poverty eradication and environmental resilience"[2]. Investments are thus critical. Almost all actions aiming at the sustainable management of natural resources imply some kind of investment; allocating resources and incurring costs in the present with the hope of future (but at times uncertain) benefits. These investments are of an economic nature (work, capital, technologies) but they have also a social dimension: a group or local community can invest its "social capital" in related activities, meaning energy, skills, trust and collective actions to better manage natural resources that are owned by customary communities or social groups. Such collective actions imply a high level of coordination and compliance with management rules and constraints, as, for example, in irrigation programmes, or in the management of forest and pasture resources owned in common by a group.

(ii) **Secure tenure rights to natural resources.** Societies define and regulate how people, communities and other stakeholders gain access to land and natural renewable resources through tenure systems. These tenure systems determine who can use which natural resources, for how long, and under what conditions. They may be based on written policies and laws, as well as on unwritten customs and practices.
Peasants, pastoralists or forest users, at the family or community level, will decide to meet the costs of economic and social investment in natural resources only if the expected results are "worth the pain and costs" of investment. To meet expectations, such stakeholders must have secure tenure rights to resources which guarantee that they will reap the benefits of their investments. Secure tenure of natural resources (land, forests, pastures, fishing ponds or rivers) is thus a necessary and important, but not sufficient, condition to stimulate sustainable resource management and investments in sustainable intensification of production. It is also a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for good governance in the management of natural resources.

(iii) **Good governance.** Effective and equitable, or socially respected, institutions are needed to ensure

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that legitimate tenure rights of stakeholders are respected and enforced, and that appropriate mechanisms are provided for the administration, coordination and transfer of rights. Such institutions are a basic and critical component of responsible governance of tenure. The governance of tenure is a crucial element in determining if, and how, people, communities and other stakeholders acquire rights to use and control land and other natural resources. Many problems related to tenure arise because of weak governance, and success in addressing such problems is affected by the quality of governance. Weak governance adversely affects social stability, sustainable use of resources, investment and economic growth. People can be condemned to a life of hunger and poverty if they lose tenure rights to their homes, land, fisheries and forests, which can be caused by corrupt practices or the failure of national or local agencies to protect legitimate tenure rights. People may even lose their lives if weak tenure governance leads to violent conflict. Responsible governance of tenure, conversely, promotes sustainable social and economic development that can help eradicate poverty and food insecurity, and frequently encourages responsible investment.

FAO and its partners supported the preparation of "Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security" through a global participatory process since 2009. The final text was prepared and agreed through inter-governmental negotiations, with the participation of civil society organizations and the private sector, and endorsed in May 2012 by the Committee on World Food Security (CFS). They represent the first comprehensive global intergovernmental instrument on tenure and its administration. They provide guidance for improving the national and local institutions that regulate tenure rights; for means of enhancing equitable tenure rights and the administration of tenure systems.

They also advise on improvement of capacities of organizations concerned with governance of tenure. The Guidelines provide a framework that States can use when developing their own strategies, policies, legislation, programmes and activities. They allow governments, civil society, the private sector and citizens to judge whether proposed actions and reforms constitute "good practices" with respect to internationally accepted standards and principles.
Since their endorsement by the Committee on World Food Security and by the FAO Council in 2012, the Guidelines have received unprecedented global recognition. The United Nations General Assembly encourages countries to give due consideration to implementing the Guidelines and requests relevant entities of the United Nations system to ensure their speedy dissemination and promotion. In Africa, important partnership and synergies are being developed between the Voluntary Guidelines for Responsible Governance of Tenure and the Land Policy Initiative supported by the African Union Commission, the African Development Bank, and the UN Economic Commission of Africa.

FAO, together with a wide range of partners working in this area, is supporting member countries in their implementation of the Guidelines, assisting member countries and other players to adopt responsible practices that are appropriate to prevailing priorities and contexts. Improved governance of tenure will, among other things, substantially strengthen one of the basic conditions that can lead to effective and sustainable management of natural resources.

Reference:

"Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security". Document endorsed by the Committee on World Food Security (CFS). Rome, May 2012, 40 pages

Special Feature

Tackling forest illegality through the Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade Action Plan

Robert Simpson[1], Sophie Lemaitre[2] and Giulia Muir[3]

Summary

Recognizing its role as one of the major consumers of timber products around the world and acknowledging that weak governance remains a major impediment to achieving development outcomes in the forest sector, in 2003, the European Union (EU) took steps to promote better forest governance and prevent illegal timber from entering its market by adopting an Action Plan on Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT), which was recently complemented by the entry into force of the EU Timber Regulation (EUTR). One of the main tools of the FLEGT Action Plan is the negotiation and conclusion of legally-binding yet Voluntary Partnership Agreements (VPAs) between the EU and individual timber-producing countries. VPAs are distinct and adaptable frameworks, negotiated by local actors to address the unique circumstances and governance characteristics between a particular producer country and the EU. VPAs build on and complement existing national legislation, but also target the revision of legal frameworks, particularly when they are antiquated or unrealistic. Above all, VPAs represent an unprecedented, bottom-up and inclusive process, bringing together a wide range of local stakeholders to discuss and decide on pressing issues in forest governance; this approach could potentially be transposed to other land-use systems or commodities.

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Context

Sustainable Forest Management (SFM) has been a subject of intense international debate since the 1980s. It was not until the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, known colloquially as the "Rio Earth Summit" (1992) that a global consensus on forests and their sustainable use was reached (*Forest Principles* and Chapter 11 of *Agenda 21*). At the Conference, nations agreed on, *inter alia,* the right to use forests for social and economic development and the need for planning and implementation of national forest policies to involve a wide variety of people, including women, forest dwellers, indigenous peoples, industries, workers and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The agreement, however, was not legally-binding and unlikely to have a profound effect on global forest resources.

Not surprisingly, deforestation continued largely unabated in the developing world, which saw some 200 million hectares of forest vanish between 1980 and 1995 (FAO, 2000). In light of this forest loss, which derived in part from demand for timber products in industrialized countries, an Action Programme on Forests was agreed upon and launched at the 1998 G8 summit addressing SFM and illegal logging in particular. The forestry sector has come a long way since, most notably through the implementation of the World Bank's Forest Law Enforcement and Governance (FLEG) initiatives, under which a range of global actions to combat forest illegality[4] have taken place. Linking all global FLEG efforts is the recognition that measures to combat forest loss must address long-standing structural causes that perpetuate illegal forest activity including unrealistic legal frameworks, weak governance and institutions and high poverty concentrations in forest areas, in addition to emerging challenges such as climatic change and biodiversity loss. Underpinning this recognition is the realization that local, adaptable and *inclusive* governance measures are likely to have more sustained effects on efforts to keep forests standing.

[4] Forest illegality is understood as the harvest, transport, processing, purchase or sale of forest products in violation of national or international laws, or the act of illegal deforestation and logging.

The Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT) Action Plan: 10 years and counting

Recognizing its role as one of the major consumers of timber products around the world and acknowledging that weak governance remains a major impediment to achieving development outcomes in the forest sector, in 2003, the European Union (EU) took steps to scale up regional FLEG initiatives by adopting an Action Plan[1] on Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT) to promote better forest governance and prevent illegal timber from entering its market. One of the main tools of the FLEGT Action Plan is the negotiation and conclusion of *legally-binding* yet *Voluntary* Partnership Agreements (VPAs) between the EU and individual timber-producing countries[2]. The success of each VPA hinges on, among other things, the effective implementation of a legality assurance system (LAS)[3], the function of which is to provide a reliable means to distinguish between legally and illegally produced forest products. The LAS is composed of five key elements: a definition of legal timber based on the legislation of the timber-producing country; a traceability system; a system to verify compliance with the legality definition and the traceability system; a licensing scheme; and an independent audit. Complementing these efforts is the EU Timber Regulation (EUTR) which came into effect on 3 March 2013 and prohibits first placement of illegal timber – produced both within and outside of Europe – on the EU market. The EUTR, which is legally binding on all 27 EU member states, marks a general trend in major timber purchasing countries to adopt national timber procurement policies and corresponding import regulations; the United States of America, Australia and Japan have also taken steps to this end.

[1] Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament, Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT), Proposal for an EU Action Plan (COM (2003) 251 final). To complement activities under the FLEGT Action Plan, the EU adopted the EU Timber Regulation[1] (EUTR), which is legally binding on all 27 EU member states and prohibits placing illegal timber on the EU market from 3 March 2013.

[2] 6 VPAs were signed (Cameroon, Central African Republic, Ghana, Indonesia, Liberia and Republic of Congo); 8 VPAs are currently being negotiated (DR Congo, Gabon, Guyana, Honduras, Ivory Coast, Malaysia, Thailand, and Vietnam) and a dozen are requesting information on the process.

Lessons Learned from the VPA process and challenges ahead

Governance experience has shown that "one-size-fits-all" paradigms are terribly ineffective. Contrary to being top-down governance models (Sayer & Collins, 2012) each VPA is distinct because it is negotiated by *local* actors to address the unique circumstances and governance characteristics between a particular producer country and the EU, making them exceptionally adaptable frameworks. VPAs build on and complement existing national legislation, but also target the revision of legal frameworks, particularly when they are antiquated and unrealistic.

Above all, VPAs represent an unprecedented, bottom-up and i*nclusive* process, bringing together a wide range of local stakeholders in developing countries – including government institutions, the private sector and civil society – to discuss pressing issues in forest governance and agree on an inclusive way forward. The extent of involvement of external actors (e.g. FAO, European Forest Institute) is limited to walking local actors through the VPA process and supporting them in developing their distinct positions. In this regard, VPAs are historical and unprecedented trade agreements for Europe as well, given the extent of involvement of non-state actors that have been encouraged to contribute to the process (Ozinga, 2012). This multi-stakeholder approach, moreover, has led most countries to use the VPA process to address issues beyond the timber trade with the EU (FAO, forthcoming). It has been said that VPAs are about more than just trade and legality: "by providing a key to unlock wider actors in civil society, VPAs offer a template for better governance far beyond the forests" (Pearce, 2012). The efficacy of FLEGT approaches across other land-use systems such as agriculture and other natural resources should not be underestimated (Hobley & Buchy, 2012).

The conclusion of VPAs has generated other positive changes in countries that have engaged in the process, including the development of a culture of transparency and accountability through the implementation of a LAS in respective countries. The engagement of different actors in defining criteria for legality has been instrumental in identifying challenges and testing new inventory and mapping methodologies to facilitate VPA compliance. Nevertheless, there are still some "blind spots" such as poor understanding of the process by

some stakeholders, which will have to be addressed (Beeko & Kwarteng, 2012).

Finally, important issues such as small scale logging and domestic market issues, which involve evident challenges as far as short-term impacts on people's livelihoods, have also come to light through the VPA process. Indeed, it is widely acknowledged that improved resource governance can result in positive socio-economic outcomes and poverty alleviation for resource-dependent communities (Moore, Zhang and Triraganon, 2011; Anderson *et al.*, 2006); this is also a founding principle of FLEGT. However, the link between poverty reduction through forests is undoubtedly complex, indirect and socially and geographically different (Hobley & Buchy, 2012). In much the same way, VPA effects on poverty alleviation are not linear. Nevertheless, recent research has shown that VPAs can have an impact on access to livelihood assets (e.g. tenure), human agency (e.g. influence decision-making) and the "rules of the game" (e.g. laws, policies to support people's livelihoods) (Hobley & Buchy, 2012). One of the greatest challenges ahead for the VPA process will be to better address its poverty alleviation potential.

VPAs incarnate local, adaptable and inclusive governance frameworks; they involve deep, structural, local and often different changes depending on context. For this very reason change has been admittedly slow. At the same time, change has been innovative, profound and because of this likely to be long-lasting from a social, environmental and economic point of view: "for the first time in 25 years, we have the right processes for change in forestry, a notoriously intransigent sector" (Hobley & Buchy, 2012).

The EU FAO FLEGT Programme

The EU FAO FLEGT Programme – a part of the global FLEGT Network supported by the EU – assists both countries engaged in the negotiations or the implementation of a VPA with the EU, known as *VPA countries,* and timber-producing countries and/or those who are major players in the timber products trade that are eligible but not currently engaged in negotiations of a VPA, or *non-VPA countries*. The Programme is *demand-driven* and designed to address the locally-defined needs of stakeholders by providing assistance through periodic calls for proposals open to government agencies, civil society and private sector organizations. Government institutions in all countries can also make direct assistance requests at any time. By only supporting actions that are requested through project ideas, the programme supports local stakeholders to establish ownership of the process and contribute to final outcomes.

The Programme builds on four years of work in which over 100 pilot initiatives in 32 countries were implemented, each testing new methodologies and approaches for improving forest governance and tackling forest illegality. In Côte d'Ivoire, for example, the Ministère des Eaux et Forêts, with assistance from the Programme, organized a series of meetings with various actors to raise awareness on FLEGT and VPA processes, identify the major issues in forest governance in the country, build a national consensus on a VPA and essentially provide a forum to solicit views from stakeholders – both for and against the process. These efforts culminated in the organization of a national workshop which ultimately led to the Côte d'Ivoire's decision to formally announce its intention to enter into VPA negotiations with the EU. In Ghana, implementing partner Friends of the Earth–Ghana provided information and training to community members, community-based organizations and local institutions on forest management, monitoring and on how they can participate in the VPA implementation process. Land-tenure improved through a series of land and social-responsibility agreements, increasing community revenue and social benefits; a multistakeholder platform was established to garner broad participation in tackling illegal logging; and knowledge about FLEGT and VPA processes was strengthened through a series of broadcasts, governance forums and awareness modules.

For more information about funding opportunities and on how to apply, please see: www.fao.org/forestry/eu-flegt/78026/en/

NGO Friends-of-the-Earth, Ghana carries out training in forest monitoring for local forest communities through EU and FAO support (Photo Credit: Eric Lartey, Friends-of-the-Earth, Ghana)

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Opinion Piece

Governance challenges for natural resource management in Africa

Jeffrey Sayer[1]

Many of Africa's natural resource problems are blamed on governance failures. The over-exploitation of forests, wildlife, fisheries and agricultural lands are attributed to the inability of government agencies to protect the public goods values of these resources (Sayer and Collins, 2012). "The tragedy of the commons" is still a major driver of natural resource degradation in rural Africa. Traditional community resource management practices are overwhelmed by the pressures of population growth and increased demand. Government resource management agencies have tended to marginalise rather than reinforce traditional practices. Recent initiatives to build capacity and reform laws and institutions to favour community based solutions have a mixed record. Governments have been reluctant to relinquish real control and communities have struggled to organise themselves to confront the challenges.

The basic governance arrangements for natural resources in Africa have been in place for decades. During my own professional career the population of Africa has multiplied by four but in many of the countries that I know the basic infrastructure for governance has remained little changed. In response to perceived natural resource degradation, legal frameworks have been adapted but the fundamental structures have remained. The critical question is whether laws are inadequate or whether institutions to implement them are not performing. In many countries natural resource management agencies are under-resourced and poorly motivated. Even when sectoral agencies have capacity the judiciary is often reluctant to apply sanctions when natural resource management laws are violated. The long-term solutions to governance problems presumably lie in improved democratic processes and strengthened civil society so that societies are better able to shape the resource management arrangements that they require.

Ultimately a strengthened civil society will presumably not tolerate the appropriation of forest, wildlife, land and other resources by elites. But I would like to suggest that there are some shorter term measures that could contribute to improved natural resource governance in Africa. Government austerity measures, structural adjustment measures and an unwillingness of donors to support basic governmental functions have taken a toll on natural resource management agencies. They cannot function without reasonable budgets to provide incentives for their staff and to provide them with the materials that they need to do their jobs properly. Resources are available to support the central structures in capital cities but it is common to go to the field where the real needs are and find local forest or wildlife officers seriously under-resourced. There appears to be a growing imbalance between the resources available for debating natural resource issues at international conferences and the resources available to fund operations in the field. Field staff are not only under-resourced they are also under-valued. Performing well in the field may not be the key to professional advancement – performing well in the conference room may count for more.

Part of this problem stems from the demands placed upon senior officials. They have to deal with innumerable foreign delegations, endless calls to represent their countries in international meetings and complex negotiations with donors who are trying to help. Time and vehicles are not available to get out and see the real problems in the field. There are incentives for staff to focus on the national and international agenda and neglect practical problems on-the-ground.

Governance is often seen as a problem of regulation. Forest Law Enforcement Governance and Trade processes focus heavily on issues of legality. Trade sanctions are sometimes invoked as a reaction to fairly minor infringements of laws. But there is often a reluctance to question the basic legitimacy of those laws. The Greek philosopher Anarchis observed that laws are like spider's webs –

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strong enough to capture the weak but too weak to constrain the activities of the powerful. This is often the case in Africa. I have often been saddened to see local people struggling to survive in difficult conditions who are punished for quite minor infringements of laws. At the same time major abuses by elites go unsanctioned. People refer to "white collar poaching" orchestrated by influential urban business and political figures.

Lack of clarity on land and resource access rights also remains a huge problem in many African countries. As the population grows and competition for land intensifies the challenges of undertaking cadastral surveys and providing fair and equitable land title is growing. Local people are unlikely to invest their labour in sustainable resource management practices if they are unsure of their rights to the products of their labour. These problems are exacerbated by pressures from foreign investors and resource hungry corporations – land grabs are a real threat to natural resources and the communities who depend upon them. Decisions on large scale land allocation are made at a political level and local peoples' interests may not be taken into account. Recent measures in many countries to ensure that Free Prior and Informed Consent is obtained from local people are encouraging.

The growth in pressure on land also raises tensions between different sectors. Land is rarely used for a single purpose. Forests have to supply timber, store carbon to mitigate climate change, provide a habitat for wildlife and resist the pressures for conversion for everything from industrial estate crops, mineral extraction to smallholder farms. Natural resource agencies often lack the resources or mandate to regulate all of these processes (Brown, 2003). In some countries decentralised or regional natural resource management agencies have been established to mediate such conflicts and this tendency seems to show promise. The Convention on Biological Diversity and other international processes are promoting "landscape approaches" to management of trade-offs between conflicting resource demands at sub-national levels and this approach has potential but agencies that have the capacity to manage such programmes have yet to emerge (Sayer, 2009).

To confront these new and complex challenges staff members of resource management agencies need a broader range of skills and competencies than their predecessors (Sayer and Campbell, .2005). But training has often been highly sectoral and provides narrow technical skills. In recognition of this many higher education institutions now offer much broader programmes dealing with environment or natural resource management. The basic premise of these courses is that there is an unmet demand in tropical developing countries for senior managers with multi-disciplinary skills. Perhaps the governance challenges that Africa faces require a new type of professional capable of finding solutions to complex, even "wicked" problems (Balint , Stewart, Desai, and Walters, 2011). A wicked problem is one where different stakeholders cannot even reach agreement on what the problem is – and so have little chance of finding a widely acceptable solution. Natural resource managers of the future will have to be negotiators and facilitators able to broker deals between different interest groups. This implies moving the decision making processes and their governance towards the local level.

Everybody agrees that serious natural resource governance problems persist in many parts of the developing world. This is motivating a mobilisation of action in many countries. I recognise that governments have to be the main actors in reforming dysfunctional governance arrangements and the activities of international donors in supporting improved governance are welcome. Ultimately good governance has to come from the top, it will not happen if governments don't put into place the appropriate structures and laws and the institutions to enforce them. But this top down action may only succeed if it is reinforced by the sort of mobilisation of civil society that is now occurring in many countries. Throughout Africa communities and NGOs are emerging and many of them have improved governance amongst their goals. On my recent travels in Africa I have been greatly encouraged by this mobilisation of civil society. I have observed many courageous initiatives by individuals and associations who are struggling to confront the underlying causes of abusive natural resource management and these people need our support and recognition. Successful governance arrangements will have to achieve a balance between top-down initiatives and this local activism.

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Articles

Forest governance reforms: the way forward for the sustainable management of Africa's forests

Adewale Adeleke[1]

Summary

There is no gainsaying the fact that poor governance is one of the major impediment to achieving development outcomes in any sector, not the least in the African forest sector. The lack of adequate governance regimes at the national level will always lead to losses of government income and revenue, contributing to unemployment, and the reduction of local and national environmental services. Forest governance arena is a multiple stakeholder environment, and therefore actors work at multiple levels and it involves multiple sectors with different interests and claims. Observations on past and ongoing forest governance reforms in Africa have been made with reference to their intended achievements and impacts. These observations manifest in the various governance gaps and challenges identified, which include among others weak institutional capacity of forestry sector institutions (governmental and non-governmental), high level of illegalities and resource security, low level of benefit flows to communities and resource owners, limited rights of access to decision-making process for communities and the lack of an effective participatory planning, monitoring and evaluation system for the forestry sector. There is a general trend of increasing stakeholder involvement in the various on-going forestry reform programmes but what remains to be seen is the translation of these engagements into effective partnerships that bring tangible benefits to all stakeholders.

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Introduction

Forests have an incredible potential to contribute to national economic growth, securing livelihoods of forest-dependent people, reducing overall poverty, and providing a myriad of ecosystem services. The exploitation of valuable natural resources from the forest contributes a large percentage of African countries gross domestic products (GDP). In addition, the forestry sector is by far the most important supplier of energy in Africa; as it supplies more than 75% of all its energy consumption. It also provides direct employment to about 2% of Africans and indirect employment and supplementary income to over 10% of African population.

However, we continue to see evidence of intensification of vulnerability and exclusion among forest dependent peoples, and therefore growing and deepening rural poverty. In order to reach forests' true potential, it is necessary for local and marginalized communities to be directly engaged in the policy-making process so as to contribute to a more integrated and successful management of forests in Africa.

The concept of "governance" is not new. It is as old as human civilization. Simply put "governance" means: the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented (or not implemented). Governance can be used in several contexts such as corporate governance, international governance, national governance and local governance.

Since governance is the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented, it is, however, unfortunate that a quick analysis of forest governance processes in Africa have shown the non inclusion of the major stakeholder groups (especially the forest communities) in decision making processes. This has contributed in no small measure to the decline in the available natural resources in terms of quantity and quality.

The aim of this article is to get a deeper understanding and analysis of identified forest governance reforms in Africa, identify the challenges and give informed recommendations.

Forest Governance Reforms in Africa

A number of laudable steps have been taken in some African countries in the process of reforming the forest governance regimes – notably in Cameroon and Gambia (for community forestry) in

Democratic Republic of Congo, Ghana, Liberia, etc (with Voluntary Partnership Agreements which called for increased stakeholder engagements).

Indeed a general trend of increasing stakeholder involvement in the various forestry reform programs initiated by government agencies is clear. To mention a few, some of the strengths of the forest sector lie in – i) A favorable policy framework that has the potential for securing effective forest governance; ii) Specialized policy implementing and research agencies; iii) Extensive expertise in forest management, utilization and development; iv) A critical mass of trained and experienced foresters and park managers; v) The ability to attract international development partners; vi) The ability to diversify its portfolios to include revenue generation from environmental services and tourism; vii) The ability to build synergies with other institutions in management, development and sustainable utilization of forest resources.

Challenges to Forest Governance Reform Efforts

Notwithstanding the strengths, the African governments face important challenges in establishing effective forest governance. Some of the challenges include:

a) Forest sector stakeholders lack resources, secured funding and technical and institutional capacities to properly address forest governance. As an example, national forestry institutions like the Forestry Commission in Ghana and the Federal Department of Forestry in Nigeria have no secure predictable funding and the few and far between capacity building efforts they can harness are focused heavily on government agencies and not enough on NGOs and communities. These weaken their capacity to improve on community level institutional arrangements and strategize on a long-term scale. Professionals, NGOs and CBOs in the field, on the other hand, lack technical capacities, such as properly understanding and managing ecosystem threats.

b) The forestry and wildlife management laws and regulations are out of date and do not match today's on-the-ground realities. In addition, many forest stakeholders lack meaningful knowledge of current regulations. Forest Reserves and protected areas have not been effectively integrated with fringe communities and in addition, are significantly threatened by illegal resource extraction and bushfires. More importantly the major issues of land use and tenure rights arrangements are not resolved and these give rise to inequity amongst stakeholders. Forest stakeholders lack meaningful knowledge of regulations and the legislative process.

c) There are very low levels of private sector investment in the forest sector in Africa, apart from South Africa where there have been a noted investment. The potential for investment opportunities is not properly promoted in West and Central Africa. There is no real policy to attract investments, as well as a lack of clarity and orientation on benefit sharing mechanisms,

d) Communities tend to have no access to the decision-making process, which often results in inequitable benefit distribution.

Recommendations

Below are some key actions that can be carried out to remedy some of the challenges enumerated above. These could lead to an improvement of the forest governance process in Africa. These include:

1) Strengthening community level institutional capacities through building the capacity of non-governmental actors. Examples of capacities that need strengthening include understanding of policy-making processes; improvement in negotiation and communication skills (outreach, dissemination and networking); provision of technical ecosystem management know-how; and identifying competent activity centers for implementation of any governance reform agenda including well built structures for monitoring, evaluation and reporting.

2) Revisiting Africa's outdated laws and regulations - it will be useful to encourage greater stakeholder participation in legislative and policy-making processes and increase their understanding of these processes; garner political will and support (through lobbying) to revise national policies and legislation; engaging with traditional authorities at the local and regional levels to address the conflicts in land tenure arrangements; mainstreaming successful experiences and programmes that have proven to be successful in integrating forest reserves and protected areas with neighboring communities.

3) Securing transparency, equity and accountability in forest governance reform processes - African countries will need to

institutionalize multi-stakeholder platforms (MSP) by integrating them into the policy-making process, with public and private sectors as stakeholders and not conveners; emphasize bottom-up communication and participation approaches targeting disenfranchised communities, conducting extensive consultations to engender ownership.

4) Promoting private sector investment - convening an "investment forum" to understand the needs of the private sector; Put in place viable incentives packages to promote private investment.
5) Communicating and raising awareness - educating stakeholders on existing governance reforms and legislations; increasing communities' understanding of policy and decision-making processes; disseminating information about investment opportunities, existing initiatives, and successful case studies; and investing resources (time and funds) into outreach efforts.
6) Coordinating and building partnerships - developing true, local level partnership solutions through an MSP; building complementary and strategic partnerships to strategize capacity development that capitalize on each actors' strengths; using networks to share skills and knowledge, such as linking financial investment expertise to policy makers to appropriately address financing obstacles;

7) Integrating forest resources management planning - integrating communities and resource owners in the design, planning, development, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the intervention programs; and discussing benefit sharing mechanisms in a multi-stakeholder platforms.

Conclusion

The importance of governance reforms in the forest sector of Africa cannot be over-emphasized. At becomes important considering the fact that different stakeholders have different understanding of the forest governance gaps/challenges because of different expectations, power relations, rights and interests, etc. This is so because of the role the forest plays in the life of an average African, and especially understandable considering it is a natural resource management setting. For instance, policy makers and regulators on one hand are always concerned about governance gaps such as controlling illegalities in the sector and avenues for resource creation. Resource owners and communities on the other hand are particular about benefits that they could derive from the resource to improve upon their socio-economic well being whereas the industry sought for ways to sustain their business. All of these concerns points to the importance of institutionalizing partnership arrangements in forest governance as a whole.

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International forest policy and governance framework*: implications for forests and food security*

Peter C. Gondo[1]

Introduction

Forests and trees contribute to the livelihoods of more than 1.6 billion people worldwide. They play an important role in food systems through both direct and indirect provisioning. Forests provide a wide range of foods such as honey, mushrooms, edible insects, fruits, leaves, roots and tubers as well as bush meat. Forests also support other food production systems such as crop production, livestock rearing and fish farming (e.g. in mangrove areas). Unfortunately the full contribution of forests, especially the environmental services and socio-cultural services are not fully recognized, with emphasis being placed on the economic functions that are reflected in the gross domestic product (GDP). However, in many developing countries especially in Africa, non-wood forest products, dominated by forest foods, are the main sources of livelihood for the rural poor. It is therefore imperative that forest policies and forest management plans must take into account the multiple functions of forests and aim to enhance the contribution of forests to food security, economic development and environmental stability.

Key International Forest Policies

The development of international forest policies and agreements, both legally and non-legally binding has developed rapidly since the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. This is in response to concern over high rates of deforestation and forest degradation, recognition of the multiple functions and contributions of forests especially global environmental services and strengthened commitment to international action to facilitate sustainable forest management worldwide.

The main global consensuses on forests are reflected in the following global agreements:

- Forest Principles;
- Multilateral environmental agreements
  - Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)
  - United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)
  - United Nations Convention on Combatting Desertification (UNCCD);
  - Convention on Wetlands of International Importance Especially as Waterfowl Habitat (Ramsar Convention)
  - Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES)
- International Tropical Timber Agreement (ITTA),
- Inter-governmental Panel on forests (IPF) and Inter-governmental Forum on Forests (IFF) proposals for action
- Non-legally Binding Instrument on All types of forests(NLBI) or Forest Instrument (FI);

Other programmes and initiatives that articulate global forest goals and objectives include:

- The Millenium Development Goals (MDGs);
- G8 Action Programme on Forests;
- Criteria and Indicator processes;
- FAO Committee on Forestry (COFO)
- FAO Committee on Food security

Global forest Policies and food security

Taken together, the international forest policies and goals provide a comprehensive policy framework for promoting the role of forests in food security**.** Most recognise the multiple functions of forests but emphasize a few thematic aspects, especially environmental services of forests such as conservation of biological diversity, climate change mitigation and adaptation and protection of land from land degradation. Most do not have explicit strategies on forest foods or for enhancing forests' contribution to food security and nutrition. However the non-legally binding Instrument on all types of forests (NLBI) or the Forest Instrument (FI) which provides the most holistic policy framework for sustainable forest management has a number of policy measures that are aimed at enhancing the full range of values of forests.

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Non-legally binding Instrument on all types of forests or the Forest Instrument (NLBI/FI)

The purpose of the Forest Instrument, among others, is to enhance the contribution of forests to the achievement of internationally agreed development goals including MDGs, especially poverty eradication and environmental sustainability. The FI's second global objective on forests recognises the role of forests in food security, when interpreted broadly, as it focuses on enhancing forest-based economic, social and environmental benefits. Furthermore the instrument has a number of national policy measures that are relevant to forests and food security and these are:

- Develop/implement policies that encourage SFM to provide a wide range of goods and services, contribute to poverty reduction and the development of rural communities
- Promote efficient production and processing of forest products
- Encourage recognition of range of values from forests and ways to reflect such values in the marketplace
- Support the protection and use of traditional forest-related knowledge and practices including fair and equitable sharing of benefits

Regional Policies and legal frameworks

There are a number of regional forest policies and treaties that also provide policy guidance on the role of forests in economic development including food security. Examples of some of the key regional policy frameworks are:

- Amazon Cooperation Treaty;
- Central American Forests Convention
- SADC Forestry protocol
- European Forestry convention

These regional policies all incorporate the contribution of forests to food and nutrition, albeit indirectly.

Institutional framework

The international institutional framework for implementing international agreements and commitments on forests is as complex as the policy and legal framework on forests. Currently there are more than 40 international and regional organizations, institutions and processes responsible for varying aspects of sustainable forest management. These include the secretariats of the Conventions, United Nations organisations such as the United Nations Forum on Forests, the Food and Agriculture Organisation, United Nations development Programme, United Nations Programme for Environment and other international organisations among them World Bank, IUCN, WWF etc. These institutions play a critical supportive role given that the management and development of forests is the primary responsibility of countries.

What makes the situation complex is that there is no single multilateral body, organization or instrument that has the capacity to address, in a balanced, holistic and mutually reinforcing way all aspects of sustainable forest management. The existence of many institutions is advantageous in that it offers, at international level, the opportunity to harness their capacity to support the role of forests in food security. It offers diversity of ideas, technical, scientific and other capabilities to support sustainable forest management. What is critical is to break down barriers between these institutions and foster collaboration, cooperation, and coordination among them and avoid competition.

To foster effective cooperation and enhance the benefits from the collaborative and synergistic work of the many institutions at international level, the UNFF established the Collaborative Partnership on Forests (CPF) to support the work of UNFF and to enhance cooperation and coordination on forest issues. The CPF partnership consists of 14 international forest-related organizations, institutions and environmental conventions secretariats. It is a unique mix of technical, development, research, financing and scientific organizations, as well as secretariats of the key international forest-related conventions and instruments. CPF members support the work of UNFF, carry out collaborative and joint activities, individually support countries' efforts to implement sustainable forest management, and work to enhance cooperation and collaboration among themselves. In recent years, several other partnerships have emerged and enriched the international and regional institutional framework on forests. Examples include The Model Forest Network, Asia Forest Partnership, and the Global Partnership on Forest Landscape Restoration. Thus, when looked at in totality, the existing international institutional framework, therefore has the capability to support the role of forests in food security.

Challenges

There are a number of problems and challenges that still limit the support to and contribution of forests to food security. These include:

- Role of trees and forests in food and nutrition security not explicitly articulated
- Knowledge gaps on foods from forests and trees
- Perception that forest foods are for the poor
- Insufficient data to help decisions on trade-offs
- Inadequate integration of forests into food security and national development programmes
- Weak inter-institutional collaboration and coordination
- Competition amongst narrow focused interests on forests (e.g. focus on climate change or biodiversity conservation only)

Opportunities

There are a number of opportunities at international policy level for strengthening and enhancing the contribution of forests to food security. Firstly the Forest Instrument provides an adequate and holistic international policy framework within which the role of forests in food security is recognised. As countries review and strengthen their national forest development frameworks using the Forest Instrument as an over-arching policy framework they will be able to incorporate the role of forests in food security more explicitly. Secondly, as the international community is developing the post 2015 sustainable development agenda, there is the opportunity of incorporating forests into food security programmes and making forests central to the whole sustainable development agenda. Thirdly, the CPF provides a strong institutional base from which to design and facilitate implementation of sustainable forest management programmes that support food and nutrition security programmes. Similar scientific and technical capacity exists at regional and sub-regional organisations to support national initiatives. Furthermore strengthening of the role of forests in food security can build on traditional knowledge and support to community-based forest management that allows communities to manage forests to meet their own needs.

Recommendations

There in is need to:

- Address institutional competition, overlaps and conflict
- Strengthen institutional collaboration and partnerships between forest related institutions at international and regional levels
- Promote and strengthen cross-sectoral linkages through integrated landscape approaches
- Address knowledge gaps on foods from and demonstrate contribution of forests to food security and nutrition
- Maintain a balance in forestry programmes amongst the multiple functions of forests
- Provide adequate financing for sustainable forest management from all sources including for research in forest foods.

Forest policies can be at the centre of change: Looking at the landscape approach on a national level

Ina Neuberger[1]

Summary

The landscape approach integrates forestry, agriculture, fisheries and conservation and is being recognised as a new paradigm for development and the environment. This article argues that national forest policies in Africa can be a key driver in addressing the challenge of governing landscapes. The example of Rwanda shows that a forest policy can be successful when it addresses cross-sector challenges. Successful implementation of forest policies through institution building, on national as well as local level, can be a driver for institution building in general. Participative measures in forest policy can, if they are implemented successfully, provide sustainable livelihoods and environments. The capacity built by these participative measures can be used by the actors for other sectors.

Introduction

The "landscape approach" is the current buzzword within the international forest community. It is hummed throughout the corridors of the 10th session of the United Nations Forum on Forests; it is promoted in position papers and statements of several of the main stakeholder organisations and is supported as a Sustainable Development Goal. Peter Holmgren, CIFOR's Director General, brings it to the point in his compelling blog: "We need a new paradigm for development and environment that counteracts current silos between agriculture, forestry, fisheries and conservation" (Holmgren 2013).

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In the pre-conference documents for the Global Landscapes Forum which will be held on the side lines of the UNFCCC COP in Warsaw, CIFOR presents a definition of the term landscape: "Landscapes are geographical constructs that include not only the biophysical features but also cultural and institutional attributes of an area. They can be managed with varying degrees of intensity and undergo transitions over time" (CIFOR 2013).

Sayer states that landscape approaches help to provide tools and concepts for managing land to achieve social, economic, and environmental objectives (Sayer et al., 2013). Sayer's paper summarizes ten principles which synthesize the current consensus on landscape approaches. These include: continual learning and adaptive management, a common concern entry point, multiple scales, multifunctionality, multiple stakeholders, negotiated and transparent change logic, clarification of rights and responsibilities, participatory and user-friendly monitoring, resilience, and strengthened stakeholder capacity. For a policymaker, the question to explore is how these principles can be translated into governance. What do they imply, for example, for national forest policies? This article argues that national forest policies can be a key driver in addressing the challenge of governing landscapes in East and Central Africa.

Two national forest policies in sub-Saharan Africa have received special recognition lately. Rwanda's National Forest Policy, initiated in 2004 and updated in 2010, was awarded with the gold Future Policy Award by the World Future Council in 2011. The Gambia won the silver Future Policy Award medal (World Future Council 2011).

The Future Policy Award celebrates policies with particularly positive effects on the living conditions of current and future generations. The aim of the award is to raise global awareness for these exemplary policies. It based on the Seven Principles for Sustainable Development Law which were developed by the International Law Association namely: (1) sustainable use of natural resources; (2) equity and poverty eradication; (3) precautionary approach to human health, natural resources and ecosystems; (4) public participation, access to information and justice; (5) good governance and human security; (6) integration and

interrelationship; and (7) common but differentiated responsibilities.

Rwanda's National Forest Policy

According to the Global Forest Resources Assessment 2010 (FAO 2012), Rwanda is one of the very few countries in sub-Saharan Africa which has successfully increased its forested area. The East African country has not only succeeded in stopping deforestation, it has actually managed to reverse the process, and since 1990 the proportion of forested area has increased by 37 per cent. The Future Policy Award evaluation process showed that a key reason for Rwanda being successful in increasing its forested area is that Rwanda's National Forest Policy connects a range of diverse measures, including some not directly associated with forests. Guiding principles include sustainable forest management, stakeholder involvement in decision making, development of agroforestry, nurturing of fragile ecological zones, reducing negative ecological impacts of man-made forests, protecting endangered plant species, and education on forestry issues (Neuberger 2012). Taking this approach further, in 2011 the Rwandan government announced an initiative with a vision of a nationwide border to border landscape restoration.

The point made here is that the policy is successful because it addresses cross-sector challenges. It would be interesting to further explore how precisely the Rwandan landscape approach realizes the 10 principles defined by Sayer (Sayer et al., 2013).

Sayer identifies institutional and governance concerns as the most severe obstacles to implementation. Experts and practitioners often state that many African forest policies face challenges of implementation, such as administrative obstacles, weak law enforcement, lack of monetary incentives and lack of equitable distribution of benefits and costs. Again, a focus on a solution can deliver some insights. The evaluation of the World Future Council on the occasion of the 2011 Future Policy Award (World Future Council 2011) showed that key success factors of the implementation of the Rwandan forest policy include a strong political will, structured governance and strong institutions with sufficient budgets.

Reforestation is an environmental priority of Rwanda, as well as forest related topics such as preservation of biological diversity and climate change mitigation and adaptation (REMA 2011). Furthermore, the government has set a clear, measurable target in terms of increased forest cover. Its objective is to increase national forests to 30% of the national land area by the year 2020. The aim for agroforestry systems is 85% of agricultural lands. The area of new forests to be created is specified in hectares annually (Republic of Rwanda 2010).

Crucially, this explicit political target was followed by the organization of strong institutions with sufficient budgets, on national as well as local level. In several African countries, the absence of strong institutional structures at the local level has led to domination by small elite groups (Njuki et al., 2004). In Rwanda, the National Forestry Authority was established in 2008 to promote transparent, prompt and effective implementation of the forestry policy provisions. Moreover, many stakeholders are involved in the implementation at different levels. Rwanda is divided into five provinces containing 30 districts and 416 sectors. The district levels are divided into sectors which are divided again into cells. Forest officers are working at district levels and cells have to prepare tree nurseries for their areas. The community itself is also involved (Neuberger 2012).

The forestry sector is benefiting from a strong institutional environment in general and a forest policy that provides for local benefits and responsibilities and can be a key driver in developing decentralized institutions. Lessons from Rwanda show that sufficient budgets, educated staff, and anti-corruption measures are instrumental to achieving this end.

The Gambian model of National Forest Policy

The evaluation of the 1995 forest policy of the Gambia which won the silver Future Policy Award gives a further indication on how a forest policy can be utilized to govern landscapes. The Gambian model is most effective in implementing participation. The policy used a phased introduction, allowing forest users and the government time to adapt and build a sense of ownership of forest resources amongst local communities. If communities can demonstrate their ability to effectively manage the forest and protect it from fires and illegal exploitation for a period up to three years, final and permanent ownership is legally transferred to them. In 2010, over 350 villages country-wide participated in community forestry; they owned over

29,000 hectares of land and managed 12% of the country's forests. Despite being one of the world's poorest countries with a rapidly growing population, the Gambia has managed to achieve a net forest cover increase of 8.5% over the last two decades (World Future Council 2011).

Forest policies in several African countries, for example in Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania and Uganda, provide for participative measures, organized as community forest management, participatory or joint forest management.. However, participation is not a success story everywhere. Including participative measures in a policy is one thing but actually implementing them is another. Ghazoul identifies continual learning and adaptive management as the first principle for improved environmental management to solve "wicked" problems. Ghazoul's article further emphasizes that the integration of agricultural and environmental priorities will require a people- centered approach at landscape scales (Ghazoul 2013). One of the success factors of the participative measures in the Gambian policy is the phased approach which allows for learning and capacity building. Experience has shown that capacity built by continual learning and adapting enhances participation. Because of the importance of forests and trees for sustainable livelihoods, ecosystems and development in Africa, capacity built by a phased participation approach as in the Gambian forest policy can make people-centered approaches possible on further levels. As FAO notes in its "Guidelines for Institutionalizing and Implementing Community-Based Forest Management in Sub-Saharan Africa" (FAO 2012), the participatory and collective decision making nature of community-based forest management provides a platform for linking with and taking into account interests from other sectors, such as agriculture, water, energy tourism. In other words: well designed and implemented participative measures of forest policies can be a trigger for developing sustainable landscapes.

Conclusion

A closer look at forest policies that actually work on the ground can deliver insights into the question of how to translate a landscape approach effectively into governance. Apart from a cross-sectoral approach in design, implementation on the ground is crucial. Key success factors for effective implementation include a strong political will, structured governance, strong central and decentralized institutions with sufficient budgets and educated staff and implementation of participative measures. If governments succeed in bridging the gap between policy and implementation, national forest policies can be a key driver in addressing the challenge of governing landscapes.

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Ambivalence of the 1994 Cameroon forestry law in ensuring good governance

Chi Augustine Muam[1]

Summary

The 1994 Cameroon Forestry Law embraced decentralization and through this mechanism improved governance is practiced. Firstly by enhancing the stake of local actors (Councils and Local Communities) in sustainable forest management. Secondly, in promoting public participation in decision-making in the classification and declassification of forest. And thirdly ensuring transparency and accountability, horizontally through an inter-ministerial commission which allocates forest for commercial harvesting and, hierarchically through the office of an Inspector General charged with internal control and evaluation of the functioning of central and decentralized services. Respectively, shortcomings of this mechanism include exorbitant cost in matriculation and obtention of title for council forest and insecurity of local community forest tenure. Limitation of public participation to 'informing' rather than other forums such as 'consultation and public hearings' that engenders dialogue where the public is given opportunity to express its concerns and public authorities take account of such concerns. The absence of civil society among independent monitors and absence in the mandate of Inspector General to prosecute and sanction violators of the law are discussed and some recommendations attempted.

Introduction

Whereas previous forest laws, such as the 1981 law[2] vested forest ownership and management to the state, the 1994 forestry law[3] encourages decentralization. The forestry sector is considered by many to be a leader in the overall administrative decentralization process in Cameroon (Dkamela, 2011:20). The law classified forest into two categories: the permanent forest estate or *domaine forestier permanent* (DFP) and the non-permanent forest estate or *domaine forestier non-permanent* (DFNP) in which the first category favors decentralization and delegated administrative functions to municipal authorities while the latter category decentralizes management and usufruct rights to local communities. Through this decentralization mechanism an improved governance of forest is practiced by enhancing the stake of local actors in sustainable forest management (SFM) (I), promoting public participation (II), ensuring transparency and accountability (III), which strengths and weaknesses of its implementation are discussed below.

Enhancing the stake of local actors in Sustainable Forest Management

The cases of two local institutions (councils and local/village communities) are discussed below.

Firstly, the 1994 forestry law confirms and institutionalizes the concept of forest management decentralization by the classification of forest in the DFP as "council forests"[4]. The innovation for Council Forest consists in gazetting and the transfer of part of the DFP[5] to a local council, which through its municipal board is responsible for the management and harvesting of the forests based on a management plan approved by the forestry administration. There has been a steady increase in the number of council forests, representing 2% of the DFP in 2011 (Cuny, 2011). Unfortunately, the classification of forest as Council Forests has heavy financial implication that Councils can ill afford. For example, it is estimated that for the registration and obtention of the land title of a forest of 15.000 ha, the council has to spend close to 190 million francs CFA (about US$ 58 million) (Zulsdorf et al 2008) without any guarantee to recover an equivalent amount from forest proceeds in the foreseeable future.

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[2] *See Law No. 81/13 of 27/11/81 on Forest, Wildlife and Fishery and its Decrees of application on each of the sectors cited in the law.*

[3] *Law No. 94/01 of 20/1/94 to Lay Down Forestry, Wildlife and Fisheries Regulations (Forestry Law)*

[4] *Ibid. Section 30 and 33*

[5] *DFP accounts for the loin's sharebulk of the country's forestlands covering 18.048.295 ha or 80% of all the forestlands, compared with an estimated 4.475.457 ha (20%) for the DFNP (de Wesseige et al 2009).*

Secondly, the law provides possibility for the creation of Community Forests[1] (CF) within the context of a management agreement (contract) between a village community and the government[2]. Here, management and usufruct rights are decentralized for a specific period of time. The CF process gives management of a small part of DFNP – no more than 5000 ha – to a legal entity that is accountable on behalf of the community that applied for the process. All activities are carried out within a timeframe of 25 years according to a Simple Management plan approved by the government[3]. Generally, in recent years, community forests or community-based forest management has been promoted for a number of reasons – most prominently as a way of improving local livelihoods and of recognizing legitimate local claims to rights over land and forest resources, and as part of general trend towards devolving or decentralizing various governance functions.

It is also increasingly recognized that, without local people having a significant stake in the management of local forest resources, the efforts of under-staffed and poorly financed government forest officials to patrol and protect the forest will often be futile. The East Region of Cameroon provides a telling illustration of the shortage of field staff: 82 staff, 4 vehicles and 15 motorcycles are available to cover an area of 109.000 km2 (MINFOF, 2007). Even more disturbing is that two-thirds of Ministry of Forestry and Wildlife (MINFOF) employees were scheduled to retire between 2005 and 2011 (Tope *et al* 2009). This shortage can lead to irregular situations, such as the case where the transportation costs of a verifying agent were covered by the same forestry operator whose activities he was supposed to control.

Other shortcomings of community forestry are related to the security of the local management arrangements; weakened by wide-ranging government powers, including the right to terminate the contract with the community unilaterally. The grounds for termination may be poorly explained or vaguely spelled out – for example in phrases such as "in case of violation of this law or of special clause of the agreement"[4] – with the result that a significant amount of discretionary power is vested in the government agent. At the heart of this phenomenon is a lingering tendency to treat community management's arrangement as a favor bestowed by the government, rather than a legally binding mutually beneficial agreement (contract). To the extent that in the event of a dispute[5] or in cases in which a community group contests termination, the law limits recourse to levels of officials within MINFOF; this is like vesting the power to arbitrate contract disputes in one of the parties to a contract. In some cases the cause may be external. For instance the forest law states that non-compliance with the management plan could result to the revocation of a CF authorization. The overlap frequently evident between logging and mining permits issued by different Ministerial Departments will expose communities to the risk of losing their permits.

Conversely, this sense of security would have been maximized if the management and usufruct rights were perpetual – that is, the community actually owns the forest or has some other type of open-ended arrangement that will be continued indefinitely, subject to revocation perhaps but only in cases of extreme abuse or abandonment. In recent years, some countries have accorded increasing recognition to the historical land or territorial claims of local people. For instance, the 1997 Indigenous people's Rights Act from the Philippines is an example of this trend. In The Gambia, permanent tenure for communities is secured after the participating communities successfully comply with an agreed management plan for a probation period. Recent forestry and land laws in Tanzania also envisage the possible creation of forests owned and registered in the name of villages (FAO, 2005).

Public participation in classification of forest

Given that decentralization has to do with relocation of administrative functions away from a central location, usually bringing them close to the people, the law[6] rightly demands that the local population be encouraged to participate in environmental

[1] *Section 37 and 38 of the forestry law*
[2] *Article 2(11) of Decree No. 95/531/PM of 23/8/95 to determine the conditions of implementation of forestry regulations (Forestry Decree)*
[3] *Section 37(2) of the forestry law*
[4] *Section 38(2) of the forestry law*
[5] *Section 8(1) of Model Agreement for the Management of community forest. 1998 Manual of the procedure for he Qttribution qnd Norms for the Management of Community Forests, MINEF*
[6] *Article 72 of Law No. 96/12 of 5/8/96 Relating to Environmental Management*

management through free access to environmental information. In other words, availability of information sets the stage for effective public participation. The importance or purpose of fully integrating environmental considerations into governmental decision-making requires public authorities to be in possession of accurate, comprehensive and up-to-date information. The public can be a major source of this information. That is why Principle 10 of the Rio Declaration (1992) states that environmental issues are best handled with the participation of all concerned citizens, at the relevant level. At the national level, each individual shall have appropriate access to information concerning the environment that is held by public authorities…..and the opportunity to participate in decision-making processes[1].

Participation in decision-making is implied in the classification of forests in Cameroon. The law provides that classification shall be preceded by a period of 30 days during which the Minister in charge of Forestry shall inform by notice the population concerned of the classification project[2]. In each administrative division, a Committee shall be set up responsible for examining and making recommendations on possible reservations or claims forwarded by the population or by any other person concerned, during forest classification or declassification operations. The Committee is made up of seven (7) government representatives, a member of parliament, the Mayor of the council concerned and local traditional authorities (chiefs)[3]
Basing or limiting public participation to 'informing' only can be controversial as there is no dialogue obtainable in such forums compared to 'consultation or public hearing' where the public is given the opportunity to express its concerns and enable public authorities to take due account of such concerns. The aim here is to ensure that the observations made during consultations or public hearings are taken into account by the Committee when determining whether the classification will proceed. Also, to ensure public accountability, there ought to be requirements that the final decision of the committee be made public so that citizens can exercise the right of review, judicial or otherwise. This could be in written form and published in several official media. The widest audience would thus be reached and the attention of many people would most likely be drawn to the issue.

Transparency and Accountability
Transparency means allowing stakeholders to see what is happening in forest administration. Decentralization promotes transparency and invariably warrants accountability, which has to do with holding people responsible for their actions. The law uses institutional mechanisms to promote oversight and accountability and this is achieved through a horizontal and hierarchical process.

There are institutions such as the inter-ministerial commission that allocate forest concessions for commercial harvesting. This commission is composed mainly of Ministry representatives (forestry and finance), along with representatives of the forest operators' unions, experts and international/independent observers (IOs) or monitors. Similarly in Liberia, under the Act that created the Public Procurement and Concessions Commission (2005) (the inter-ministerial concessions committee that oversees granting of a forest concession) there are seven government members only one of which is from the forestry agency. In the Declaration adopted during the African Forest Law Enforcement and Governance (AFLEG) Ministerial Conference in 2003, one of the measures proposed for law enforcement was to encourage independent monitoring within the context of Independent Monitoring in support of Forest Law Enforcement and Governance (or IM-FLEG)[4].

Independent monitoring has been used in Cameroon since 2001 by the *Bureau de Resource Extraction Monitoring* (REM). The mandate of a third-party observer involved in such monitoring is to accompany forest officials on control missions in the field and verity compliance and discrepancies between the mission's activities and official procedures. Experiences from Cameroon show that third-party forest monitoring can foster accountability by providing first-hand evidence, and allowing civil society members to question officials on illegal activities. One of the shortcomings is that programming of missions depends on the

[1] *1992 Rio Declaration on Environment and Development. 31 ILM 874 (1992).*
[2] *Article 18(1-3) of forestry decree*
[3] *Ibid. Article 20(1)*
[4] *See REM Annual Report March 2005 – February 2006, Progress in tackling illegal logging in Cameroon.* www.rem.org.uk

bureaucratic processes that may hinder a rapid responses needed before evidence of illegal logging operations is concealed. Independent observers' reports on irregularities do not seem to have had much effect, especially as civil society representatives are absent and the process of monitoring is thus void of any active actor outside the executive that can bring pressure to bear if actions of the forestry administration are not open to scrutiny.

As regard keeping an eye on the forest administration, hierarchically, the law created the position of Inspector General or *Ombudsman*, charged with internal control and the evaluation of the functioning of central and decentralized services, establishments and organisms, as well as services and projects attached to MINFOF[1]. An Inspector General typically is supposed to investigate and prosecutes cases of waste, fraud and abuse of power. Interestingly, the independence of the Inspector General is guaranteed because he is appointed in the same way as his supervisor (the Minister) by the Head of State, thus, the former cannot be fired by the latter. Regrettably, without a mandate to prosecute, the Inspector General is limited to reports addressed to the hierarchy (MINFOF, Minister of State Control and Prime Minister) at whose discretion it is to initiate or not prosecution of those indicted by the Inspector General's report. An *Ombudsman*[2] has the powers of investigation and a mandate to publicly criticize, if not to prosecute, if necessary.

Conclusion

The adoption of decentralization by the 1994 forestry law is commendable. It has improved forest governance by enhancing the stake of local actors in sustainable forest management, promoting public participation in decision-making and ensuring transparency and accountability. But this is not without some shortcomings in the implementation of decentralization; prominent amongst these are insecurity of local community forest tenure, the (controversial) forum for soliciting public participation in decision-making and the restricted mandate of the Inspector General charged with internal controls and evaluation of the functioning of central and decentralized services. Whenever forest tenure is touched, the need for a regulatory framework becomes inevitable. FAO (2011), has observed that the extent to which forest management objectives are achieved depends on a multitude of factors grouped in three broad domains: governance, tenure and regulatory frameworks; the interaction among all of these domains determines the ultimate success in achieving forest management objectives (sustainable forest management). Consequently, the need for a forest law reform to take into consideration the concerns under review is recommended

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[1] Article 5(1) of Decret No. 2005/099 du 6/4/05 Portant Organisation du Ministère des Forets et de la Faune.

*[2] Official appointed by the **Crown** to investigate complaints made by members of the public against administrative procedures in government departments. The official title is the Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration (Harrap's Dictionary of Law & Society, 1989).*

The rich get richer and the poor get committees? Institutional arrangements and requirements for local forest management in Africa

Jon Anderson[1], Shreya Mehta[2] and Jonathan Schwarz[3]

Summary

In comparison to other regions, the large majority of African countries have yet to devolve full property rights over forests to local communities (RRI, 2012). While some countries have introduced community forestry into their legal frameworks as a mechanism to transfer access, use, and management rights over forest resources, many bureaucratic requirements frequently hinder the implementation of such legislation. The bureaucratic and technical requirements imposed on communities often constrain the achievement sustainable forest management, strengthened local livelihoods and empowered communities rather than facilitating them. This paper briefly examines three dimensions of this problem – the organizational, planning and approval requirements of community forestry – faced by local communities in Cameroon, Kenya, Madagascar and Senegal. Bureaucratic requirements can in fact make forestry institutions and arrangements extractive, force communities into foreign organizational models with high transaction costs, and end up benefiting the central government more than local communities. The creation of an enabling institutional and policy environment, which in many cases means less bureaucracy, not more, is needed. Several practical recommendations are made for overcoming some of the identified bureaucratic constraints to empowerment.

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Introduction

Many rural communities and their members are dependent on the natural resources that surround them for survival and development. The capture of benefits from these resources, fundamental to the development of the lion's share of these communities, is constrained by national level rights regimes including property and procedural rights. Many countries in Africa, according to a recent study by the Rights and Resources Initiative (2012), have not even started a process of the devolution of property rights. In countries in Latin America public or state ownership of forests decreased from 70% to 36% between 2002 and 2008, effectively transferring ownership to private actors, communities, and indigenous groups. In contrast, during the same period, public ownership of forests in countries in Africa went from 99% to 98% (RRI, 2012). Only in a few cases in Africa "has access to high-value timber resources suitable for commercial exploitation been afforded to communities. Access to these resources has mostly been retained by the state for the generation of its own income" (Jones, 2004).

In addition to this lack of real devolution, governments in African countries often transfer responsibilities (such as protection, monitoring and planning) to local communities and impose burdensome institutional arrangements and procedures (Larson and Ribot, 2007). This phenomenon of the development and imposition of bureaucratic red tape on communities is a constraint to their empowerment. Under the guise of 'assuring sustainability' and providing 'safeguards' against the perceived incapacities of local communities; governments and technical services in many countries have set up a number of requirements and standards of institutional development, management planning and bureaucratic procedures which effectively disempower and stall, claw back, or block any meaningful devolution. For the purposes of this article, 'bureaucracy' refers to the government groups and agencies that can manage in ways that are complex, inefficient and inflexible, and can serve as obstacles to innovation and change in the social order, rather than 'public administration' that functions to build and maintain the public trust

underlying democracy (Rourke 2001, Goodsell 2006).

Some governments claim to transfer "use/management rights", as opposed to property rights, to local communities. However these "management rights" are often simple codifications or formalization of existing use rights (with a net result of no additional rights) or the transfer of monitoring and planning costs with no or very limited additional benefits (see Movuh, 2013).

With rights transfer, local communities have better access to resources and benefits and therefore to development. In some cases the increased benefits may be sufficient to justify and finance additional institutional and bureaucratic requirements. However, without additional rights and access, which is the norm in much of Africa, institutional requirements imposed by governments can be essentially extractive – they increase costs, transfer responsibilities and costs to communities without significant additional benefit.

Discussion

The experience of government imposed forestry institutional arrangements and requirements in Cameroon, Kenya, Madagascar and Senegal is described below.

Cameroon – The provisions for community forests in the 1994 Forestry Law represented an 'innovative' effort to promote village-level participation in forest management. Although meant to transfer not only access rights over local forests from the state to village communities but also withdrawal, management, and exclusion rights (Oyono et al. 2012), the administrative and technical requirements to establish a community forest have prevented any real decentralization of local forest management. Movuh (2013) asserts that "through documents like forest inventories, management plans and conventions between the State and the communities…[the state and development partners are] exercising far more authority than even before the implementation of the Forestry Law of 1994." Communities are first required to register a legal entity with the Ministry of Agriculture and form a management committee. The application for the community forest, including a map reviewed and approved by the National Institute of Cartography, must then pass through the local, divisional, regional, and national offices of the Ministry of Forestry and Wildlife prior to the preparation of a simple management plan. In some cases, up to 70% of generated income has been used for administrative functions and only minimal investments made for the community (Oyono et al. 2012). Few community forests have been established without support from the donor community or NGOs, effectively transforming the process more into a vehicle to capture donor/NGO assistance than a way to empower local communities.

Kenya – The Forests Act of 2005 led to the implementation of participatory forest management (PFM) in Kenya. Mogoi et al. (2012) find that local community forest "associations are responsible for diverse management activities in forest protection, monitoring, and management, yet access to decision-making, revenue streams, and overall resource control rights are vested in the Kenya Forest Service" (KFS). In order to undertake their responsibilities communities have formed government required and approved community forestry associations which have imposed membership requirements and procedures. KFS also requires that forest management plans be developed to their specifications which are beyond the capacity of the communities. Community Forestry Associations (CFAs) are essential constrained to hire outsiders (often retired government foresters) to develop the plans and often cannot do so without support from NGOs and donor programs. Both the association itself and forest management plans require time-consuming approval at the central level. Community costs are not compensated by increased rights, access or benefits. In terms of rights only the pre-existing use rights have been more formally recognized. This situation appears to be an example of extractive state institutions (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2012). Mogoi et al. (2012) recommend that costly burdens and responsibilities must be matched with shared revenue streams if communities are to remain interested in PFM.

Madagascar – In 2001 Madagascar issued the GCF "*gestion contractualisee des forets*" (contractual forest management) decree aimed at providing local communities (through COBAs or community associations) greater management rights over forests (and to streamline an existing law from 1996). However as Hockley and Andriamarovololona (2007) point out, "the state

retains full ownership of the forest and the right to revoke or modify contracts". This "system works against COBAs, reducing their viability… The benefits that communities are likely to derive from improved forest management have been over estimated. Many do not have the right to undertake commercial exploitation… and sustainable timber produced by COBAs may not deliver high enough benefits to cover the considerable costs…" Thus while management improvements are expected of the communities the access to additional benefit is limited.

Senegal – 'Progressive' new decentralization laws in Senegal were passed in 1996 and gave rural communities jurisdiction over forests within their territorial boundaries on the basis of a management plan that must be approved by the competent state authority. Also included was local jurisdiction over "the organization of exploitation of all gathered plant products and the cutting of wood" (Larson and Ribot, 2007). Rural Councils (RCs - elected bodies representing the rural community) were established and the 1998 forestry code gave the RC the right to determine who will can manage and use products in their forests. The law also stated that the RC is the 'manager' of the community forests and that the Forest Service must obtain the signature (approval) of the Rural Council President (PCR), (who must have a majority vote within the council), before the Forest Service can issue permits for any commercial production by outsiders. Despite these seemingly strengthened rural community rights, little appears to have improved. Government foresters treat the PCR's signature as a pro forma requirement rather than as a transfer of powers or change in practice. Even if the RCs wish to limit exploitation in local forests, the foresters may pressure them to sign to allow harvesting and the RCs find it difficult to refuse. If the RC wishes to manage their forests themselves, the Forest Service requires the RC and communities to develop detailed management plans. For rural communities, management plans represents a substantial investment, for which they do not have the capacity or funding to carry out (Larson and Ribot 2007). When communities fail to produce management plans, the Forest Service would use this as a 'reason' to continue allocating production rights to more powerful outsiders who operate without management plans. While Rural Councils are in a better position today to demand powers from authority outlined in the 1998 forestry laws, in practice, little has been done to effectively improve the forest management and use rights of the communities.

Governments may have a number of reasons for supporting communities with appropriate administrative tools particularly in cases of inter-community conflict or the presence of free riders. However the cases above show that technical ministries often impose complex and foreign organizational types and operating procedures on local communities including predefined community based organizations often with constitutions, membership and committee requirements and operating procedures such as the number of meetings per month. In addition they often impose the development of outsider driven forest management plans that are overly detailed and technical given the low value of resources managed and the limited rights devolved. These management plans are sometimes more sophisticated than the ones the government carries out for state forests – if they do them at all (very often these do not exist yet are required of communities). Finally the government often imposes rigorous and time-consuming approvals processes (such as approval of organizations and/or of management plans at the central level). This bureaucracy can disempower communities, reinforce central authority and raise transaction costs without conferring any value added or benefit.

Conclusion and Suggestions

In addition to devolving real rights over real resources to local communities, governments need to develop appropriate institutional frameworks and administrative processes that empower their citizenry rather than control and extract benefits from them. Some suggestions on ways forward include:

- **Simplification** – Simplification can be helpful but does not address the fundamental problem of uneven playing fields and double standards and is susceptible to gradual increased bureaucratization. In Senegal, a Rural Council President has said that a proposed simplified management arrangement was protested by the forestry department. The PCR argues that the state should intervene to end the double standards that are prevalent.
- **Create a "one stop shop"** – In some African countries the business climate has been improved by cutting the complexity, costs and

time it takes to start a business. Perhaps there are lessons learned for the forest sector in terms of the set-up of forest management "businesses". Forestry departments could set up a one-stop unit which based upon the submission of a limited and clear set of documents such as agreement with their neighbors on areas to be managed and benefit distribution plans (for verification of existence not for approval) would get management (including harvest rights) over a specific forest area.

- **Minimum standards** – Instead of being overly prescriptive about organizational development and procedures, governments should set up a framework of minimum standards that communities can use their discretion to meet. For example, if benefit distribution is perceived as an issue, governments can require that a plan be developed by the community and that the proof be provided that it was discussed and agreed to by the whole community (including women and the vulnerable).
- **Take inspiration from other sectors and traditional management** – Governments could be inspired by the examples of other renewable resources and sectors such as fisheries, agriculture and wildlife. In some cases greater progress has been made in these sectors in empowering local communities.

- **Use ombudsmen** – Part of the problem is an uneven playing field between the forest department and local communities with the forest department retaining much of the power and leaving the community with little or no recourse. In countries where there is a functioning ombudsman, formal or informal, they could play a role in providing checks and balances, and making approvals and complaints more objective and fair. At least three of the countries (Kenya, Madagascar, and Senegal) in this analysis have ombudsman or human rights offices at the national level, whose functions include mediating disputes between citizen groups and the public administration and leveling the playing field when facing strong bureaucratic requirements by assisting civil society with legal and rights-related issues.

Community involvement in the management of surrounding forests and woodland resources has been hindered not only by the lack of devolution of rights but by the imposition of inappropriate bureaucratic requirements. A vital resource for development is not contributing as much as it could to pro-poor growth and increased empowerment. Governments do not have a monopoly on the understanding of sustainability and a true partnership is needed. The creation of an enabling institutional and policy environment, which in most cases means less bureaucracy not more, is needed.

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SENEGAL: Community meetings in Dionewar

Promising initiatives in promoting good natural resources governance: The experience of forest governance in Burkina Faso

Edouard G. Bonkoungou[1]

Summary
The quality of governance determines to a large extent whether forest resources are used efficiently, sustainably and equitably, and whether countries are able to reach their forest development goals. This note revisits some indicators for good forest governance, presents tools for evaluating the quality of forest governance in a country and reports on ongoing promising experiences in Burkina Faso, a Sahelian country engaged in Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation mechanism (REDD).

Introduction

Although the key role of forests in the African economy at local and national levels is well known and the value of environmental services enjoys a growing recognition, the forest cover of the continent is still reducing at the alarming rate of 0.49%, that is 3.4 million hectares yearly, due to deforestation and forest degradation (FAO, 2010). It is increasingly accepted that to reverse this trend and promote sustainable forest management, it is not enough to address only the direct causes which are, among others, agricultural expansion, overexploitation of wood and non wood forest products, bushfires/wildfires, and mining. There is a need to act concomitantly on the indirect causes, including forest governance.

This note examines the importance of an efficient, sustainable and equitable management of forest resources, and reports on ongoing promising experiences in Burkina Faso.

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Good governance: a must for sustainable forest resources management

According to the "Framework for assessing and monitoring forest governance" jointly published by the World Bank Programme on Forests (PROFOR) and FAO in 2011, the quality of governance determines, to a large extent, whether forest resources are used efficiently, sustainably and equitably, and whether countries are able to reach their forest development goals (PROFOR and FAO, 2011). Governance is usually considered as 'good' if it is characterized by the involvement of stakeholders, transparence in decision making, accountability of actors and decision makers, rule of law, reliability of institutions and a management based on credible technical and scientific bases. The notion of 'good governance' is also associated with the efficient and effective management of natural, human and financial resources.

The need for an analytical framework to perform a diagnosis, evaluation and monitoring of the quality of forest governance and of the effects and impacts of its implementation is widely recognized (Kishor and Rosenbaum, 2012; PROFOR and FAO, 2011; World Bank, 2009). The framework developed by the World Bank and FAO is based on the following pillars and principles of 'good' governance (PROFOR and FAO, 2011).

Pillar 1: Political, legal, institutional and regulatory frameworks – Pillar 1 takes addresses policies, laws, rules and regulations systems within the forestry sector and in other sectors that impact forests. Regarding this pillar, the Framework deals with the issue of clarity and coherence of these systems, as well as their mode of interaction, in order to define the overall background for the use of forests, forest resources management and decision making.

Pillar 2: Planning and decision making process – This pillar addresses the level of transparence, accountability and inclusion of the main processes and institutions involved in forest governance. Furthermore, it examines the

various characteristics of these processes and institutions, the mode of operation of the key agencies and the platform they create to facilitate the participation of stakeholders, as well as the level of accountability of the authorities and decision makers.

Pillar 3: Implementation, application and compliance with regulations – This pillar examines to what extent the policy, legal, institutional and regulatory frameworks are implemented. It also enables to observe to what extent the implementation is efficient, effective and equitable.

Thus, good governance is mainly characterized by the rule of law, transparence, zero tolerance for corruption, the inclusion of all stakeholders' views and the empowerment of all actors. Forest tenure determines who can use what resources, for how long and in what conditions. A reform of the forest system in favor of good governance requires the existence of a political will at central government level and the involvement of local populations. Major political and regulatory changes will not take place unless there exist within governmental institutions themselves, a potential that is conducive for change, and the political will to implement that change. Indeed, such a reform requires a strong political will from the government to set up political, legal, institutional and regulatory frameworks suitable for the promotion of good governance. Similarly, the appropriate implementation of these reforms on the ground will require the effective involvement and active participation of the main local actors.

Overview of promising experiences in Burkina Faso in promoting good forest governance

At the level of local governance. Since the 80s, Burkina Faso has been conducting a partnership experience with grassroots organizations for the participatory management of forest resources through the organization of forest populations into forest management associations (GGF). Over the past 15 years, this experience of community management initiated by the State has seen the addition of new local initiatives for the participatory management of forest resources conducted by local community authorities with the support and oversight of various national and international civil society organizations including the NGO Tree Aid and IUCN.

Since 2007, eight (8) communes in the administrative regions of the East, North, North-Central and South-Central of the country benefit from the support of Tree Aid in strengthening good governance for their forests and promoting inter-commune dialogue in the area of local governance and decentralized management of forest resources. These communes have constituted a network that invests in promoting good forest governance by strengthening the capacity of populations through training sessions, study trips between communes, inter-village workshops to improve forest management rules and standards, etc. Similarly, 17 communes from the Eastern and Central-East regions have come together in an association of forest communes that benefits from the technical and financial support of the International Union for Nature Conservation (IUCN). In the context of this approach, three municipalities (Bissiga, Lalgaye and Tenkodogo in the Central-Eastern region) have initiated a pilot approach for the inter-commune management of the Sablogo forest shared by the 3 communes. Although relatively recent and with no measurable impact on the biophysical aspects of the forests concerned, these ongoing dynamics seem promising in view of the favorable institutional transformations they induce.

At national level. Burkina FAO is one of eight countries selected as a pilot phase of the Forest Investment Programme (FIP), one of three programmes of the Strategic Climate Fund established in the context of Climate Investment Funds (CIFs) by development partners. To date, the country is also the only one in the arid zone to have been selected as a pilot phase in Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and

Forest Degradation – REDD+ (Burkina Faso, 2011 and 2012). Both initiatives require high levels of good forest governance and a commitment to implement from the government. To that effect, the Burkinabe Ministry in charge of Forests has formulated a strategy and action plan to improve governance in the national forestry sector and has conducted the following activities: i) drafting of a reference report on governance in the forestry sector commissioned to that effect (Dié, 2011) and ii) organizing a national workshop on governance in the forestry sector (Bonkoungou and Kishor, 2012).

The national workshop enabled to identify the weaknesses of governance in the national forestry sector and define the needed reforms. The weaknesses identified are, among others: the gaps in participatory approaches, the lack of efficient mechanisms to resolve conflicts, the lack of knowledge on forest legislation, the lack of skills of forest institutions, the lax enforcement of laws, corruption and opacity of the tax system and budget process, etc. The activity was conducted using a tool developed by the World Bank's PROFOR (Kishor and Rosenbaum, 2012). The PROFOR tool is based on the following five basic indicators to determine the quality of forest governance in a country: i) Transparence, control and general participation; ii) Reliability of forest institutions and conflict management; iii) Quality of the forest administration; iv) Coherence of the forest legislation and rule of law; v) Economic efficiency, equity and incentives. Each of these indicators has a set of questions the answers of which enable to assign ratings to the quality of governance. This enabled to identify the weaknesses mentioned above. This dynamic was enriched by the process of formulating the national strategy on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD+) which contributed, among others, to conducting an analysis of deforestation and forest degradation factors and to defining strategic options for reducing Greenhouse Gases Emissions (GGE), promoting additional carbon sequestration, and improving the living standards of populations through poverty alleviation. This activity enabled to formulate recommendations for interventions through four strategic areas: i) land planning, ii) security of tenure, iii) agro-silvo-pastoral systems management, and iv) capacity strengthening, policy harmonization and the promotion of good governance. The finalization of the REDD+ readiness paper is ongoing. The process is not yet completed and has therefore not yet recorded tangible results on the ground.

Along with these dynamics, a Research-action Group on forest governance in Burkina Faso (GAGF) was created in 2008 following the initiative of Tree Aid in the context of implementing a project on local forest resources governance. Today, GAGF is a civil society organization recognized by the Burkinabe government through Certificate No. 2011-323 dated March 23, 2011. It aims at influencing policies, strategies and actions in favor of the sustainable management of forest resources and intends to promote good forest governance.

In 2012, the GAGF published its orientation paper titled "Forest governance and decentralized management of forest resources: (GAGF, 2012) and finalized technical studies including one on "local forest resources management initiatives and prospects for extending good practices". In addition, the GAGF periodically organizes exchange workshops to raise the awareness of local, national and sub-regional opinion on the importance of forest governance.

Conclusion

The framework of forest resources governance in Burkina Faso benefits from a wide range of initiatives for promoting good governance for the sustainable forest resources management. Even though this is a relatively recent dynamics the expected impacts of which will be perceptible only in the coming years, the ongoing process is promising. Thus, during the national workshop held in October 2011 on forest governance, the Ministry in charge of forests indicated that the "central administration intended to reduce its role in the direct

management of forest resources and to entrust this task to local authorities"; this augurs well for a dynamics which is conducive to the promotion of good forest governance in the country.

This ongoing experience in a context of arid forest ecosystem does not necessarily apply to rainforest ecosystems, however the processes initiated can inspire approaches adapted to other contexts. For example, the lessons learned from the use of the PROFOR tool to assess the quality of forest governance in Burkina Faso in 2011, have been exploited to facilitate a similar exercise in the Democratic Republic of Congo in 2012 (Bonkoungou, 2012).

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The Mano River Union sub-region "*The lungs and water tower of West Africa*"

Alpha Ahmadou BALDEH[1]

Summary

The Mano River Union sub-region includes the Republics of Guinea, Sierra Leone, Liberia and Côte d'Ivoire and spans a surface area of 751,429 sq km. The total population of this sub-region was estimated at 42.5 million in 2010. It boasts of huge forests that make up the ecosystems called Upper Guinea, which, together with the Amazon and Congo basins in South America and Central Africa respectively, are part of the rainforests metaphorically called the 'lungs of the planet'. Its landscape includes huge mountains and mangrove forests on its Atlantic coast which covers about 2,000 km and hosts a wealth of resources and a varied biodiversity. Taking their source from the Fouta Djallon highlands in central Guinea, the main international rivers crisscrossing West Africa include the Niger, the Senegal, the Gambia, the Mano, etc. Over ten countries directly or indirectly benefit from the drinking water resources and biodiversity of this massif. This prominent hydrological role has earned it the title of 'Water tower of West Africa'.

Unfortunately, these ecosystems are being gradually degraded due to anthropogenic pressures: extensive and low-performance farming and pastoralism, mining and logging without rehabilitating the sites, bushfires as a tool for hunting and for rapid grass regeneration to feed the livestock, poaching, etc. Plant cover reduction leads to the disappearance of natural wildlife habitats and exacerbates climate change with alternating droughts and floods. It also worsens soil erosion and decline in fertility, thus compromising food security. It has been estimated that over the past 60 years, the Mano River sub-region has lost almost ¾ of its original forest cover.

However, with their biodiversity and water resources, these ecosystems are a regional African and World heritage that the governments of the countries that host them should preserve and develop through their national and regional institutions. Now aware of their responsibilities, the Governments of the Mano River Union Member States work at reversing the trend of degradation of ecosystems in the sub-region. In this context, they have undertaken several initiatives both at national and regional levels which illustrate their political will for promoting good environmental governance.

All these efforts have started to bear fruits: awareness of policy makers and populations, positive change of attitudes and behaviors regarding environmental issues, implementation of deterrence-based laws and regulations for environmentally unfriendly activities, empowerment of communities living near forest landscapes, etc. The main challenge remains enhancing these results and ensuring their sustainability. To that effect, the main challenges related to the scarcity of financial resources and the weakness of the technical and human capacity of institutions in charge of managing natural and environmental resources should be overcome. It is in this context that cooperation and partnership with the community of international donors appear indispensable to sustain efforts at local and sub-regional level in order to promote sustainable development and enable the sub-region to keep its status as the 'Lungs and Water Tower of West Africa'.

Introduction

The Mano River Union (MRU) is a regional cooperation and integration Organization created in 1973 between Liberia and Sierra Leone and which welcomed the membership of Guinea and Côte d'Ivoire on October 25, 1980 and May 15, 2008 respectively. Its name is derived from the Mano River which takes its source on top of Mount Nimba's slopes in Guinea and serves as a border between Liberia and Sierra Leone. It covers a surface area of 751,429 sq km and its population was estimated at about 42.5 million in 2010.

The main objective of the Union is to promote socio-economic integration in the region by enhancing cooperation between member states in the areas of trade, agriculture, livestock and fisheries, natural resources management, transport, communication

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and energy production infrastructure, peace and security, etc.

The Mano River Union covers large forests that make up the Upper Guinea ecosystems which, similarly to the Amazon Basin in South America and Congo Basin in Central Africa, are part of the great forests metaphorically called the 'Lungs of the planet'. "These vast ecosystems that cross five international borders from the south of Guinea to the west of Togo, through Sierra Leone, Liberia, Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana, cover approximately 420,000 sq km" [1]. However, these ecosystems are being degraded year after year due to anthropogenic pressures.

Due to the primary role of forest ecosystems in regulating climatic, hydrological, and pedological patterns and maintaining local and regional biodiversity, they are obviously a shared heritage that should be protected. This bestows on the governments of their host countries and on their common institution, the Mano River Union, huge responsibilities at national, sub-regional, regional and international levels.

This article presents ongoing efforts in this context and their results, as well as challenges and constraints in ensuring the conservation, development and sustainable management of natural resources and the environment in the sub-region. It highlights the role and place of international cooperation and partnership in resolving the constraints identified with the hope of fostering increased motivation and mobilization of countries in West Africa, of ECOWAS and of development partners in favor of sustainable development in the sub-region.

I. Potential and threats

Thanks to its huge forests which contribute to absorbing carbon dioxide, the Mano River Union sub-region participates in regulating the climate in West Africa. "Its forests host a rich, varied and often endemic biodiversity." [2] Moreover, the Fouta Djallon mountain range in Central Guinea and its continuation of the '*Dorsale guinéenne*'[1] are a mountainous ecosystem from which most of the international water bodies in the region take their source. About ten countries directly or indirectly benefit from the water resources and biodiversity of the mountain range. This significant hydrological role earned it the title of "*Water Tower of West Africa".* Some of these rivers have given their names to countries such as Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, The Gambia and the Mano River Union, thus illustrating their high relevance in the sub-region. Therefore, this is a highly important heritage that was deteriorating due to its having been neglected for so long. It took dramatic and successive droughts in several countries of the region during the 1970s, for the States to be aware of the significance of this mountain range and to decide to establish a coordinated regional policy to preserve and manage its natural resources. Thus, in 1981, the Integrated Management of the Foutah Djallon mountain range Programme (PRAI-MFD) was initiated and implemented under the aegis of the Organization of African Unity (OAU) with the financial and technical support of partners such as FAO, UNEP, GEF, European Union. The African Union (AU) coordinates the programme.

Moreover, the sub-region has vast mangroves, swamp ecosystems on its Atlantic coast over a distance of 2,000 km and at the mouths of the rivers. In these swamps, coastal populations extract important agricultural resources (especially rice), forest resources (mangroves as construction wood and fuelwood), fisheries resources (fish, shrimps, mollusks, crustaceans) and saline resources (salt). A multitude of insects, reptiles, birds, primates and other climbing animals are also found there.

However, the production systems in rural areas are still dominated by farming, pastoralism, hunting and plucking. In these sectors, traditional extensive, shifting and low-performance production methods do persist. Thus, to meet the various needs of an increasing population, a growing number of forests are cleared, burned each year to expand agriculture and pastures, cities and villages, mining and logging (without rehabilitating the sites), biomass collection (only source of energy used by the vast majority of populations for cooking and heating), poaching and bushfires. These are all anthropogenic factors that contribute to destroying forest ecosystems in the sub-region. This reduction of the plant cover leads to the accelerated erosion and decline of soil fertility, drying up of water bodies and accelerated climate change, shrinking of natural habitats and reduction of wildlife, flora and fish species, desert encroachment and consequently food insecurity.

[1] Mountain range in the south-east of Guinea

Reliable and matching sources estimate that over the past sixty years, the sub-region has lost more than 70% of its original forest cover.[4] Today, the remaining cover is highly fragmented, thus restricting the habitat to isolated blocks and tens of unique flora and wildlife species are threatened. There is therefore a real need to reverse this trend.

II. Initiatives to promote sustainable conservation and management of natural and environmental resources in the Mano region

Today, the member states of the Mano River Union are aware that "Reducing poverty and achieving sustainable development should walk hand in hand to ensure the wellbeing of our planet." [5] They understand the seriousness of natural resources and environmental degradation for the present and future of their populations. They want to reverse these dangerous trends through the sustainable conservation and management of renewable natural resources and the environment". [6] They have undertaken several initiatives with the aim of providing national responses to environmental governance issues: (1) Creation of institutional frameworks devoted to environmental protection (Ministries, National Agencies and Commissions) in charge of applying at national level the international commitments made by the States; (2) Formulation of laws and regulations focused on managing natural resources and protecting the environment; (3) Development and implementation of environmental projects with the support of international partners.

These initiatives have born fruits that are easily identifiable today through the awareness of policy makers and populations themselves of the challenges of sustainable management of natural and environmental resources which translates into positive changes in attitudes and behaviors of populations regarding the environment, the application of deterrence-based regulations and laws for activities that destroy flora, wildlife and water, the empowerment of local populations (riparian populations and those living around forest landscapes) in the management of ecosystems, training of village associations for the enhancement and sustainable management of village lands, land planning, extension of farming methods to intensify agriculture, fish culture and beekeeping, etc.

However, forest ecosystems in the sub-region mainly overlap the borders of neighboring countries. They transboundary nature thus requires that typically national initiatives be strengthened with sub-regional initiatives in the framework of concerted and harmonized approach for greater efficiency, sustainable ecosystem management and conservation policies and programmes. This is because it is now accepted that 'for strategy initiatives to be successful, they should be developed at regional level with the support of the international community'. [7] This requirement has led the member states of the Mano River Union to adopt a strategy focused on collaboration, responsibility sharing and the promotion of joint information management and exchange.

In this regards, a request submitted to AfDB by the MRU Secretariat led to the formulation of a *Mano River Forest Ecosystems Conservation Programme* (Mano River Forest Programme//MARFOP) which covers five (5) transboundary landscapes of the Union with a total of over 2 million hectares[8].

The programme aims at: 1) ensuring the regeneration and conservation of forest ecosystems; 2) improving the living standards of populations by promoting sustainable and environmentally-friendly income-generating activities; 3) strengthening the capacity of institutions involved in managing the forest ecosystems of the Union. The funding of this programme is being approved and is estimated at more than 42 million Euros.

Moreover, through the technical and financial support of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the US-Forest International Services, the *Sustainable and Thriving Environments for West African Regional Development* Programme (STEWARD) is implemented. It aims at: (1) Strengthening regional collaboration capacity; (2) Facilitating the innovation and harmonization of national policies into a regional policy, (3) Facilitating the piloting of transboundary conservation and natural resources management on priority transboundary landscapes.

III. Constraints in the sustainable conservation and management of ecosystems

They mainly involve:

1. **The status of fragile States in post-conflict reconstruction phase**: Very recently, due to the raging armed conflicts and/or socio-political unrest and their attendant casualties, refugees and displaced persons deprived of their livelihoods still experienced in their countries, the 'Member States of the MRU are all ranked among fragile states in post conflict reconstruction phase'. [9] This situation more and more exposes the biological diversity of the sub-region to impoverishment and accelerated degradation.

2. **The context of multiple needs and scarcity of financial resources:** Competition for scarce financial resources is still tough and hard to arbitrate. In view of this, States do not often offer alternatives that ensure the sustainability of the living standards of populations living in the ecosystems and their surroundings, and who then continue to derive their livelihoods from using the ecosystems in a destructive manner.

3. **The weakness of environmental governance at national and regional levels:** Even though institutions dedicated to national resources and environmental management are established, their technical and human capacity should be strengthened at national and sub-regional level; moreover, a sub-regional legal framework for transboundary protection and management should be put in place for the increased efficiency of policies and programmes.

IV. Solidarity and responsibility sharing for efficient environmental governance

Today, environmental issues are a national, sub-regional and international concern. In the context of fragile states in the Mano River Union sub-region, the sustainable conservation and management of natural resources and the environment offer good opportunities to attract the donor community and facilitate collaboration and responsibility sharing in order to overcome the various challenges identified. The international partnership is likely to make the needed resources available not only to implement training, awareness, advocacy, ecosystems restoration, promotion of income-generating and environmentally-friendly activities in favor of populations living near ecosystems, but also to strengthen the capacity of institutions involved in these activities. It is hoped that all the international institutions involved in environmental conservation can be mobilized to provide their support to the ongoing efforts in the sub-region in order to save the biodiversity of threatened ecosystems.

Conclusion

All generations have the right to a healthy environment that ensures a pleasant and happy life. Sustainable development which enables to meet the needs of current generations without compromising those of future generations, is the solution to keep a healthy environment. This is the way to help reduce the adverse effects of anthropogenic pressures on ecosystems and their renewable resources. It is in this context that the Mano River Union is striving to harmonize the national efforts of its member states and of the various partners in order to enable this area to remain the '*Lungs and Water Tower of West Africa*' for the happiness of current and future generations.

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Implementation of fishing gear restrictions in Mtwara district-Tanzania

Robert Katikiro[1]

Summary

This article examines the impacts of the lack of good governance in implementing fishing gear restrictions in coastal communities in Mtwara district-southern Tanzania. Information for this study was collected through observation, interviews, and document and policy reviews. The lack of accountability and responsibility, transparency, the rule of law, and stringent measures to control bribery and corruption when enforcing gear restrictions have resulted in detrimental effects on the local livelihoods, hence propelling resource depletion and increased vulnerability of households to short-term socioeconomic shocks. Gear restriction would be useful but requires a built in and adaptive approach to governance, such as co-management, where there is a potential for shared vision, interaction, and collaboration among multi-scaled actors and a degree of autonomy.

Introduction

Marine fisheries are very important to the Tanzanian economy and local livelihoods in coastal areas. However, most of the marine fisheries are currently in a state of decline, reflecting a loss of natural capital needed for long-term national economic prosperity and food security. Similar to fisheries worldwide, a myriad of reasons are given for this depletion, including a rise in population and an increase in poverty. The losses are fundamentally driven by poor governance as a result of failed institutional arrangements to create local incentives for sustainable utilisation of resources (Jentoft & Chuenpagdee, 2009). Consequently, there is a missing link between fisheries resources and the stakeholders responsible for their protection and development.

This article provides empirical examples of good governance as the missing link between management of fisheries, particularly artisanal, and societal development outcomes, such as improved livelihoods of fishing households. This is achieved by exploring the malfunction of gear restrictions caused by poor governance, contribution of restrictions to the impoverishment of household livelihoods, and establishing the role of good governance in improving fisheries management. The study indicates that good governance is a crucial element in ensuring that fisheries are sustainably utilised for increased food security and income levels.

The article presents an overview of gear restrictions in Tanzania, followed by a synthesis of the problems of poor governance associated with it. Finally, the findings are discussed based on their implications for fisheries governance and a brief reflection on future research is given.

Fishing gear restrictions in Tanzania

Fishing gear restrictions are amongst the 'technical fixes' to control and conserve fisheries resources in Tanzania as stipulated in several provisions of the Fisheries Act of 2003. Restrictions include prohibition of fishing nets with mesh sizes less than 3 inches, and monofilament and dredging nets, especially beach seine nets. Gear restrictions, in most cases, are imposed with the view of avoiding the dangers of harvesting juvenile fish, protecting fish habitats and reducing by-catch (Hicks & McClanahan, 2012). Unfortunately, concessions on gear restrictions in Tanzania were reached without sound scientific backup and adequate consultation of local communities. Consequently, enforcement of restrictions commenced without due consideration of the cost and ability to reverse key problems (e.g. effective reduction in harvesting under-size fish).

Thus far, gear restrictions alone have not provided the management benefits expected (i.e. in terms of reducing impacts on fish habitats and improving fishers' livelihoods). Despite the absence of official data from fisheries authorities, the findings of this

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study for Mtwara district revealed that nearly 35 percent of fishing nets used by households between 1995 and 2011 were small-mesh nets. During the same period, more than one-third of fisherwomen using illegal '*tandilo*' (mosquito) nets for fishing in Msimbati, Msangamkuu, Mgao and Naumbu villages in Mtwara district lost their jobs following initiatives to phase out '*tandilo*' gear.

Nearly 60-80 percent of the households in coastal villages of Mtwara district depend on marine and coastal resources both directly, as fishers or mangrove cutters, and indirectly, as traders. Not unexpectedly, gear restrictions

resulted in reduced fish landings and cash income for some of the households because fishers could no longer catch smaller fish species, such as *Engraulidae* spp. (Swahili: *Lukumbu*) and *Clupeidae* spp. (Swahili: *Lupapa*), which are caught only by the restricted gears. Unfortunately, such gears are still available in local markets and are often sold at lower prices than recommended gears.

In the villages of Nalingu, Mkubiru and Msangamkuu, fishermen resistance to gear restrictions increased and over 60 percent of violations reported between 2000 and 2012 occurred in areas around these villages or were committed by people from these villages. Additionally, enforcement of gear restrictions is reported to violate rights of traditional fishing communities to prior information and cultural identity.

Gear restrictions and governance of fisheries

It is apparent that governance through gear restrictions has resulted in contrasting outcomes in the case of Mtwara district, with different shortcomings along the continuum of good governance. Table 1 presents the governance shortcomings in gear restriction practices as observed by this study.

Table 1: Shortcomings of governance in enforcing gear restrictions in Mtwara district

Dimension of governance	Typified examples
Combating and controlling bribery/corruption	– Confiscated gear is returned to the owner after patrol and surveillance – Some officials tasked with patrol activities to enforce gear restrictions 'look the other way' in return for a small bribe
Rule of law	– Few cases end up in courts, and when they do penalties are too lenient – Judiciary views fisheries law/regulations as relatively risk-free offences – Longer legal process which is characterised by poor prosecution
Service delivery	– Local government authorities fail to license fishers based on their fishing gear/methods
Regulation	– Fishers use desperate and destructive means to sustain catches
Right to information	– Lack of adequate consultation prior to enforcement of gear restrictions
Transparency and accountability	– Members of Parliament in the district benefiting from winning votes from people using restricted gears – Restricting Civil Society Organizations and censoring media

Opportunities and solutions to gear restrictions

Gear restrictions could become an effective fisheries management tool provided that they encourage concerned stakeholders, who hold different views, to reach a consensus on the need to conserve and protect fisheries resources. Enforcement of restrictions should not commence without prior knowledge of type and size of fish stock and nature of exploitation. Gear restrictions, if enforced without considering certain goals, such as social justice, food security and sustainable livelihoods, can potentially cause socio-economic problems, as presented in this article. To address this caveat, one can learn from various examples from around the world where the introduction of restrictions/fisheries regulations occurred, such as the quota system in Peru and Chile, closed fishing areas in the Philippines and Vietnam, and closure periods for certain fisheries in the Baltic Sea (i.e. fishing for salmon and sea trout is banned from 1 June to 15 September). In these cases, there is at least the capacity of the governing system to respond to the challenges raised by the restrictions/regulations. These entailed stakeholder consultations and environmental impact assessment conducted before enforcement. This study shows that the governance of fisheries in Mtwara district in Tanzania failed to take into account the natural and social systems and highlights an incapacity to establish relevant institutional arrangement and involve relevant stakeholders.

In addition, for countries in a similar situation as Tanzania, there is a need for structures and processes that can facilitate the promotion of good governance for improved enforcement of gear restrictions and sustainable management of fisheries. The best initial approach is to involve local communities in establishing institutions, which will encourage ownership and allow them sustain benefits from their fisheries resources. Gear restrictions, as one of the tools to execute this, should be implemented in a culturally appropriate manner without downplaying the existing livelihood rights of traditional communities.

Conclusion

It is not only gear restrictions that must be considered to reduce over-harvesting and control the use of destructive fishing practices for the sustainability of resources. Restrictions in general present a range of difficult choices, which complicate the governance of fisheries. At the same time, there is a need for concerted efforts to adjust the current situation, including the issue of good governance. As suggested by Armitage et al. (2007), switching to an adaptive governance approach is necessary as it allows for a shared vision, goals, a high degree of dialogue, interaction and collaboration among multiple actors and a degree of autonomy. Adaptive governance, particularly co-management, has consistency, awareness, transparency and justice, which are good attributes for institutional arrangement and enforcement of gear restrictions. Future studies should focus on ways to modify current gear restrictions to suit the characteristics of the natural and social systems that are being governed and they should incorporate aspects of good governance for improved fisheries management.

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Methods for assessing pastoral resources for their preservation in the steppes of Eastern Algeria

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Summary

The degradation of steppic ecosystems in Eastern Algeria is mainly due to overgrazing. Our study consists in finding a method for assessing the food value for sound pasture management. Several formulas have been proposed, however, an element of the formulation is empirical. A formula is proposed on the basis of on-site measures that provide highly conclusive results. We hope that the pastoral value method will be a decision-making tool in avoiding a regressive synergy of the steppic ecosystem which has become a recurrent feature in recent years.

Introduction

Le Houerou (1995) defines the term ***steppe*** as a wide arid area covered with low and sparse vegetation and represents an important floristic source with limited renewability for the Algerian sheep predator since overgrazing is the main cause. When in 1985 **Le Houerou** mentioned deferred grazing, he specified that this is an efficient tool for regeneration. And he concluded that when the desired regeneration has been obtained, the balance of the ecosystem may be maintained only through the sound management of pastures. It also aims at controlling the stocking per hectare.

The aim of our study is to determine the easiest, fastest, most reliable and affordable methods for evaluating steppic rangelands with non mandatory laboratory tests (a method that requires time and money). These evaluation methods will enable pastoralists, technicians and policy makers to determine the stocking per hectare in order to preserve the heritage and ensure the progressive synergy of the ecosystem or allow natural resources to renew themselves.

Our investigations in the eastern region of Algeria started in 1998 and have involved several regions: Batna, Khenchela, Tebessa, etc.

In the first part of the study, we attempted from 1998 to 2000, to respond to **Aidoud *et al.*** (1982) in order to determine the existence of a relationship between the pastoral value (PV) identified on site and pastoral productivity (PP) determined by the laboratory test expressed in Feed Unit (FU), Net Feed Unit expressed in 'Feed Unit for lactation (FUL) and Net Feed Unit expressed in 'Feed Unit for Meat production' (FUM) at a 1/25,000 scale since Aidoud *et al.* (1982) worked at a 1/200,000 scale. Our results showed that this relationship exists with a 5% error coefficient (P=0.05).

The second part of the research in the same context, consisted in studying the improvement of the PV formula to have quantitative data on the vegetation recorded as a specific frequency (SF) and translated into specific contributions (SC) on the one part, and on the other part of the specific quality index (SI) to which **Daget *et al.*** (1971) and **Daget *et al.*** (1972) empirically ascribe a specific note to characterize the bromatological quality of a species. Therefore, in this second part, our investigations aimed at replacing this empirical SI with a biometric value observed on the ground.

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1. Material and Methods

Among all the results obtained on the various regions mentioned in the introduction, the region of Tebessa was selected to be developed.

1.1. Presentation of the study environment

The experimental location called LAHMADA is an 850 ha perimeter fenced in the year 2000 and which was used to express pastoral productivity (PP) and pastoral value (PV).

For the vegetation found, we consulted documents by **Quezel** (1957), **Ozenda** (1984) and **Djebaili** (1984) to define the systematics of plant species found. They are mentioned by order of abundance. Annual species have been analyzed only once.

1.2. Methods

The method used consists in determining whether there is a close relationship between pastoral production (PP) expressed in FU, FUL, FUM, PDIN and PDIE and the pastoral value (PV) ranging from 0 to 100 using the quantity coefficient or specific contribution (SC) per hectare and per season. The onsite study was based on recommendations by Chessel *et al* (1975).

1.2.1. Method and material to calculate the pastoral productivity of the group

The pastoral production of each group per hectare and per season was worked out using the following formula:

$$PP = \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} Rei \,.\, Vei$$

Rei : Net primary productivity in the performance of species *i* in kg of dry matter (DM)/ha/season
Vei: Nutrient value expressed in FU, FUL, FUM, PDIN and PDIE.
PP: Pastoral productivity of the group expressed in FU, FUL, FUM, PDIN and PDIE/hectare/season.

The main sources of the equations used in assessing PPs for each species *i* with a chemical composition determined in laboratory and guided by **Bipea**'s (1978) European analyses, are **Breirem** for the FU, **Jarrige *et al.*** (1978) and (1982) for the FUM, PDINs and PDIEs, and **Aufrère J.** (1982) for calculating the pepsin digestibility.

1.2.2. Methods and material to calculate the pastoral value

The pastoral value (PV) developed by **Aidoud *et al***. (1983) on a steppic rangeland could range from 0 to 100 and is:

PV = 0.1 $\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} Csi \,.\, Isi$ where **Isi** ranges from 0 to 10 $Csi = \frac{Fsi}{\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} Fsi}$ where

$$Fsi = \frac{Fsi}{\sum F} \times 100$$

(Isi determines the browsing acceptability ratio of the predator and 0.1 is a scaling coefficient).

This formula was changed along this line of thinking and after conducting statistical tests:

The food value of a rangeland depends on the nutrient value (NV) and the quantity consumed (QC), if the NV depends on the chemical composition and the digestibility (D) and since the higher the crude fibre (CF), the lower the digestibility and QC. Consequently, Isi can be replaced with an inversely proportional weighting to the stratification. The higher the stratification, the higher the CF. the new formula of the PV is:

VP = $\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} Csi.\frac{1}{Si}$ This new formula uses values ranging from 0 to 100 except 0.1

Si is expressed in decimeters (stratum1= 1dm, stratum2= 2dm, stratum3= 3dm, stratum4= 4dm, etc.)

2. Results and Discussion

The group includes the *Artemisia herba-alba, Stipa parviflora, Salsola vermiculata* species and annual plants. There are seven stations located on a rangeland under a deferred system in Lahmada over a surface area of 350 ha.

2.1. Chemical composition

In Table 1, the chemical composition was calculated in autumn and spring following the recording of the secondary productivity. The number of repeated analyses is three. For *Artemisia herba-alba* and *Salsola vermiculata*, springtime regrowths are less fibrous.

Table 1: Chemical composition of floristic species

Season	Species	DM	MM	OM	CF	TNM	F
Autumn	**A-h-a**	541	107	893	300	118.1	24.4
	S-p	572	48	952	485	59	25
	Salsola	402	60	940	345	102.5	29
Spring	**A-h-a**	320	96	904	153.5	115.7	21.5
	S-p	460	70	930	430	62.1	22
	Salsola	502	82	918	185	111.1	10
	Annual	300	125	875	141.1	145.8	25

Sp :*Stipa parviflora.* Aha : *Artemisia herba-alba.*
DM : Dry matter content (g/kg).
MM: Mineral Matter content (g/kg of DM).
OM: Organic Matter content (g/kg of DM)
CF: Crude Fibre content (g/kg of DM).
TNM: Total Nitrogenous Matter (g/kg of DM).
F: Fat content (g/kg of DM).

2.2. The nutrient value of the group

Table 2 illustrates the nutrient value of species found in the *Artemisia herba-alba* group. It was noted that the PDINs have doubled in spring as compared to autumn since these regrowths in clusters were significant (see performance=Rei kg of Table 3).

Table 2: Nutrient value of the group

Seasons	Species	g/kg DM		kg DM			g/kg DM	
		MOD	MAD	FU	FUL	FUM	PDIN	PDIE
Autumn	**A-h-a**	428.64	69.12	0.27	0.49	0.35	72.33	66.51
	S- p	418.88	12.3	0.21	0.45	0.33	36.13	48.91
	Salsola	440.6	54.03	0.40	0.49	0.36	62.78	63.28
Spring	**A-h-a**	470.08	103.76	0.35	0.55	0.43	104.9	81.07
	S-p	418.5	16.28	0.22	0.45	0.32	38.03	49.63
	Salsola	479.5	61.76	0.35	0.54	0.42	68.04	68.73
	Annual	437.5	95.36	0.30	0.51	0.37	89.29	75.71

DOM: Digestible Organic Matter FU: Feed Unit calculated based on Breïrem's formula.
FUL: Net Feed Unit expressed in 'Feed Unit for Lactation'
FUM: Feed Unit expressed in 'Feed Unit for Meat production'
PDIN: PDIA+ by-pass microbial proteins corresponding to the nitrogen in the feed decomposed in the rumen.
PDIE: PDIA + by-pass microbial proteins corresponding to the calories in the feed decomposed in the rumen
PDIA: By-pass food protein

2.3. Pastoral productivity of the group

Table 3 reveals a very high performance (Rei) of *Artemisia herba alba* following a rainy spring, as compared to the autumn when it rained a little and the temperature was too low.

Table 3: Pastoral productivity of the group

Season	Species	Rei kg	PP(FU)	PP(FU)	PP(FUM)	PP(MAD)	PP(PDIN)	PP(PDIE)
Autumn	**A-h-a**	321	86.67	157.29	112.35	22187.5	23217.9	21349.7
	S-p	1374	28.56	61.2	44.88	1672.8	4913.63	6651.7
	Salsola	192	62.8	76.93	56.52	8482.7	9843.9	9934.9
	Total	-	178.03	295.42	213.75	32343	37975.43	37936.3
Spring	**A-h-a**	2524	883.4	1388.6	1085.53	261890	355631.6	204746
	S-p	424	93.28	190.8	135.68	6902.5	16124.7	21043.1
	Salsola	262	91.7	141.48	110.04	16157.5	17826.4	8007.2
	Annual*	77	23.24	39.78	28.86	7438	6964	5905
	Total	-	1091.60	1760.66	1359.88	292388	396546,7	249701

Rei = Performance of species *i* in kg of DM per hectare *annual: this is a floristic string of annual plants.

2.4. Pastoral value of the group

Table 4 tells the pastoral value where the bromatological quality was measured based on biometrics.

Table 4: Pastoral value of the group

Season	Species	Stratum	FSi	CSi	PV
Autumn	A-h-a	2	25.4	74.7	37.35
	S-p	3	3.8	11.11	3.7
	Salsola	2	4.8	14.1	7.05
	Total				48.7
Spring	A-h-a	2	43.33	75.3	37.65
	S-p	3	1.66	2.8	0.93
	Salsola	2	8.16	14.19	7.09
	Annual	1	4.33	7.53	7.53
	Total				53.2

2.5. Results from correlating the pastoral value and pastoral productivity of the group

Table 4 illustrates the correlation between the PV and PP and the results are highly conclusive. Therefore, our study was fruitful due to the fact that the pastoral value ranging from 0 to 100 can be calculated using the specific contribution (Csi) of each species measured and the stratification observed on the ground.

The correlation results between the pastoral value using the average actual stratification of species and the pastoral productivity are more interesting than with the Pastoral Value expressed empirically. This is because P varies between 0.02 and 0.04 while with the empirical PV, P= 0.05 especially with the new formulation of energy (FUL and FUM) and nitrogen (PDI). The repeatability of this formula on other rangelands was performed. The conclusions are the same and the chains corresponding to this group are: Autumn **PP = 2.43 PV + 37.69**; Spring **PP = 14.048 PV + 122.21.**

Table 5: Results of PP and PV correlation

Seasons	PP(FU)	PP(FUL)	PP(FUM)	PP(PDIN)	PP(PDIE)
Autumn	0.86 P=0.12	0.99 P = 0.00	0.99 P = 0.00	0.98 P = 0.00	0.99 P = 0.00
Spring	0.97 P=0.03	0.96 P = 0.04	0.96 P = 0.04	0.98 P = 0.02	0.97 P = 0.03

Conclusion

The results are promising because a pastoral value was calculated in a non-empirical manner since the correlation results are significantly better. This new approach will save time for decision making in order to determine the stocking per hectare but also it will respond to actions aiming at developing the steppe (deferment, rehabilitation and restoration). It would be useful through the regression equations formalized, to assess, with the least error (P<0.04), the pastoral productivity (PP) which will be used to establish the required stocking limit to avoid a regressive synergy of the steppic ecosystem or maintain its primary productivity or ensure its preservation.

Recommendations

Determine whether the method is applicable to rangelands other than steppes. In case it is, there is a need to determine, using regression equation charts between the PV and PP, the pasture carrying capacity in order to preserve pastoral productivity or the ecosystemic balance of African rangelands as specified by the Conventions of Rio de Janeiro and Alger.

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COUNTRY FOCUS: Zambia

The forest governance challenge of REDD+: Core governance issues that must be addressed for success in Zambia

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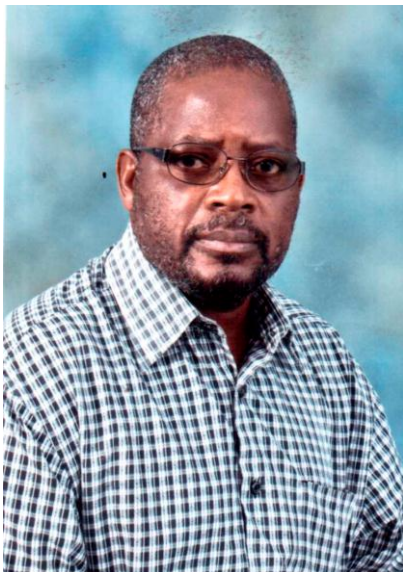

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Summary

Recently, REDD+ has emerged as an international vehicle for contributing to halting deforestation and degradation as well as enhancing forest carbon stocks. Beyond its potential to deliver benefits related to the carbon cycle, REDD+ also seeks to contribute to the sustainable management of forests and poverty reduction. However, despite its global support there are a range of governance issues that may affect REDD+'s ability to deliver on its stated environmental and social goals. This paper examines some of these governance issues. Using the case of Zambia, the paper shows that the REDD+ process will need to deal with a number of long lingering governance challenges that have besieged the country's forest sector. In particular, the paper draws attention to the following core governance issues in Zambia: a highly centralised forest governance system, an inadequate foundation for effective participatory forest governance, an unclear resource tenure system and inconsistent policy and institutional frameworks at both local and national levels. It concludes that to achieve its intended goals, REDD+ will need to overcome these governance challenges in Zambia, or risk being undermined by them.

Introduction

Located in Southern Africa, Zambia is well endowed with forests which cover over 60% of the country's land area. With this rich forest heritage, achieving sustainable forest management (SFM) has emerged as an important priority for the country (GRZ, 2010). Zambia has embraced REDD+ as one of the initiatives that can contribute towards SFM. REDD stands for "Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing Countries." REDD+ goes beyond deforestation and forest degradation, and includes the role of conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks (Anon. 2008). REDD+ is an innovative mechanism for forest carbon offsetting and is emerging as a crucial climate change mitigation instrument. The key assumption is that activities carried out within the framework of the REDD+ mechanism will help decrease the cost of reducing emissions while at the same time increasing the value of standing forests, stemming biodiversity loss and reducing poverty. The solutions the mechanism offers have been

positively viewed across the Globe. REDD+ aims to achieve its objectives through the use of international funds and market based mechanisms to pay and compensate developing countries for protecting forests under their jurisdiction against deforestation and degradation (Petkova et al, 2010). However, while REDD+ offers a real opportunity to arrest the current rates of deforestation and promote sustainable forest management, it is also widely recognized that there are a range of governance issues that may negatively affect its potential to deliver the stated environmental and social objectives. REDD+ has the potential to either contribute to, or to undermine, sound national forest governance efforts, depending on application and use made of the possibilities offered by the initiative. In this paper, we take a look at some of the governance issues that may influence REDD+ outcomes in Zambia. In particular, we concentrate on the core governance elements that Zambia needs to address to ensure that activities carried out within the framework of REDD+ successfully contribute towards the goals of the programme. While the issues raised refer primarily to Zambia, they may also be relevant for other countries in Africa involved in the REDD+ processes.

The concept of forest governance

As a concept, governance has a variety of meanings. Traditionally, governance has been viewed as synonymous with government's exercise of power. In this paper, we take Larson and Petkova's (2012) definition of governance as referring to how decisions are made (and who makes them) at various scales (global, national and local), including formal and informal institutions and rules, power relations and practices of decision making. Taken this way, it can be argued that governance is an interaction between actors, institutions and processes that underpin decision making. Forest governance arrangements are mainly expressed through policy and institutional frameworks, planning and decision making processes and implementation and compliance mechanisms (FAO, 2012). A number of attributes are viewed as key elements of good governance. These are transparency, efficiency, effectiveness, fairness and accountability and participation (Ozinga 2012; FAO, 2012). "Good forest governance" is one where forest related decision making processes are underpinned by such attributes. Similarly, for REDD+ to be a success, it is essential that systems of forest governance have high levels of accountability, transparency, fairness and foster multi-stakeholder participation.

Zambia and REDD+

The government of the republic of Zambia is one of the countries actively involved in the "REDD+ readiness process" (GRZ 2010). For a country where efforts aimed at conserving the country's forests have been faltering (with deforestation rates of 250, 000 - 300,000 hectares per year), REDD+ promises to open a new page in Zambia's quest to protect its forests. Through REDD+ the country can develop and implement rational land use plans. However, Zambia's forest sector is characterised by several governance challenges that may influence the outcomes of REDD+ processes. These constraints include an overly centralised forest governance system, an inadequate foundation for participatory forest governance, unclear tenure arrangements and inconsistent and conflicting policy and institutional frameworks at national and local levels. It is important to note that with its promise of financial incentives and support, REDD+ is likely to attract a range of local to global level actors with varying interests. This may present risks and lead to land grabs or to the exclusion of local populations from access and use of the forests. Further, it may lead to disenfranchisement of local populations and/or unfair distribution of REDD+ related costs and benefits (Petkova et al, 2010; Mustalahti 2012 et al). In order to deliver on its objectives and contribute to good and effective forest governance, the REDD+ readiness process in Zambia must act as a catalyst for, among other things: resource tenure reforms; local participation and decentralisation; and harmonisation of policy and institutional frameworks. In the following section, we deal with these aspects in more detail.

Land and forest tenure

Like many other African countries, land tenure in Zambia is split between a modern tenure system emphasizing state land holding (which allows leasehold) and a customary tenure system, where land holders have access to land through customary rights and tradition. According to Zambia's Lands Act of 1995 (GRZ, 1995), all land in Zambia is vested in the President; this includes customary land. While both categories of land are vested in the presidency, the two (leasehold and customary) are administered differently and are associated with different degrees of security of tenure. Customary tenure does not have the same legal effect as

leasehold, and it is viewed as the least secure of the options, as landholders have no formal documentation to prove their land rights. In the context of REDD+, the extent to which customary landholders can benefit from REDD+ mechanisms, without secure land tenure is questionable. As Knox et al (2011) argued, to be applicable, REDD+ requires clearly defined ownership and secure tenure rights.

In addition to the above, the Land Act in Zambia gives power to traditional authorities in relation to the allocation, alienation and the general administration of customary land. However it does not provide proper safeguards on how the use of such power can be supervised, especially for the protection of local communities' land rights. Given the financial benefits associated with REDD+, there is a danger that local chiefs might collude with powerful interest groups and alienate land for REDD+ projects to the detriment of customary landholders. Further, the vesting of all land in the presidency means that by implication (and this is re-affirmed in the Forest Policy and Forest Act), all forests fall under state ownership. Landholders under customary tenure thus cannot claim ownership of forests located on lands under their jurisdiction and have no legal mandate to protect such forests from exploitation by outsiders. This has been a major source of conflict in Zambia, where competing claims to forests on customary land have persisted over time (Mfune, 2011). It is crucial that REDD+ mechanisms foster reforms that deliver resource tenure security to local stakeholders and create the necessary space, opportunities and incentives for local actors to sustainably manage forests on customary lands.

Decentralisation, participation and harmonisation of policies

An emerging global trend in forest governance over the past two decades has been the focus on decentralisation and participation of various stakeholders in sustainable forest management and conservation. While decentralisation emphasises the devolution of power from the central state to local government bodies, communities and other local level actors, participation seeks the involvement of a variety of stakeholders, including local populations, the civil society and private businesses in natural resource governance. Given the array of interests associated with REDD+, and a focus on a national approach to verification of emissions reduction, there are concerns that, rather than foster devolution and participation of local populations in forest governance, REDD+ may in fact, lead to re-centralisation of control over forests and inhibit the participation of local communities in forest management (Cronkleton et al, 2011). In Zambia, there have been efforts to establish decentralised forest governance systems and implement participatory forest projects within the framework of joint forest management (JFM) since the late 1990s. Joint Forest Management allows for the sharing of responsibilities, control and decision making authority over forests between the state and local resource users (GRZ, 2007; Hobley, 1996). However, efforts aimed at establishing JFM in the country have yielded few results due to a variety of challenges including financial, technical and institutional constraints (Mfune, 2011).

Currently, the lead institution in forest governance in Zambia is the Forest Department (FD), a government agency established under the Forests Act of 1973 with a primary mandate to protect and manage the country's forest resources. The FD, however, should not stand alone when the country is preparing for REDD+ (Chundama, 2009), as local communities, local governments and the civil society should be included. This requires a decentralized governance framework, where decision-making power over forests is shared with local populations. It is required that a variety of institutions, capacities, skills, and other resources are brought together if REDD+ mechanisms are to benefit forests and people. These resources are currently distributed across different state and non-state institutions and actors in the country, and the FD must bring these together. Moreover, REDD+ projects and activities must be tailored to local specificities, taking into consideration that communities across the country are characterised by socio-cultural diversity. The FD faces a managerial and political challenge in mobilising these actors and their resources together to steer changes needed for the successful implementation of REDD+.

How, then, should the FD organize the forest governance network in such a way that there is a shared vision of REDD+ among the various institutions and stakeholders involved in the process? The answer lies in the extent to which the FD can build mutual trust between inter-dependent actors and the institution itself, creating a policy network which takes advantage of the capacities and resources of both state and non-state actors,

while the FD continues to provide leadership and facilitation in REDD+ related governance (Hoff, 2003; Jessop, 2003). Furthermore, forest policies and institutional frameworks need to be harmonized with those of other sectors such as agriculture, energy and wildlife, which earlier have been seen as conflicting and which, in turn, has led to a lack of inter-sectoral cooperation and coordination. REDD+ issues cut across Zambia's policy sectors, which implies that multiple government agencies should be involved in the process (GRZ 2007).

Conclusions

This paper has highlighted some of the important governance challenges that are likely to influence REDD+ outcomes. Establishing effective governance systems is one of the monumental tasks that will be required for the successful implementation of REDD+ in Zambia. Effective forest governance systems are also crucial for achievement of sustainable forest management in general. The resource governance challenges which must be addressed include a weak resource tenure system, inadequate local participation and inconsistent institutional and policy arrangements. This paper has argued that to achieve its intended goals, REDD+ will need to overcome these governance challenges or risk being undermined by them.

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FAO Activities and Results

Governance in the establishment of national forest monitoring, measurement, reporting and verification systems in Central Africa

Cléto Ndikumagenge[1]

Summary

The knowledge of forest resource is a permanent concern for Central African countries and was clearly expressed in Area 2 of the Convergence Plan of the Central African Forests Commission (COMIFAC). The Commission has a sub-regional project which mainly aims at establishing national Forest Monitoring and Measuring, Reporting and Verification (MRV) systems using a regional approach. COMIFAC requested FAO to play the role of implementing agency for the Project. The project aims, among other goals, at setting up clear institutional arrangements, developing a national paper to prepare the National REDD+ Strategy, establish a group to define the 'National Forest Monitoring System and formulate a regional Programme and 10 national Programmes and submit national and regional programmes formulated during the first phase. The development of the REDD+ process can be done along with setting up Monitoring systems with 3 phases: preparation, policy implementation, results evaluation and remuneration of the efforts made in the area of REDD+. The applicability of good governance principles (such as capacity strengthening, transparence, participation and coordination) to monitoring systems, highlights the fact that governance is essential in setting up national monitoring and MRV systems. The conclusion insists on the relevance of the strategies used while recommendations encourage enhancing the appropriation by, and empowerment of stakeholders.

1. Introduction

Forests governance and monitoring systems: priorities of COMIFAC's Convergence Plan and of international Climate agendas

In Central Africa, governance and law enforcement have a direct impact on economic growth, equity, and environmental protection. In fact, illegal exploitation causes losses to the States, communities and even to some forest companies desirous of working legally. It is important to highlight that the Cancun decision on REDD+ insists on governance since one of its objectives is to "slow down, stop and reverse the loss of forest cover and carbon". To meet these governance challenges, the Convergence Plan of the Central African Forest Commission (COMIFAC) planned in its Area 2, an enhanced knowledge of the resource through the strengthening and/or establishment of national and sub-regional observatories that would provide information on forest cover monitoring and on geo-spatial monitoring at sub-regional level. This concern became relevant in the context of the international negotiations of the *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change* (UNFCCC). In effect, in the context of REDD+ (Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation and the role of forest conservation, sustainable management and the increase of forest carbon stocks in developing countries), the issue of Measuring, Reporting and Verification (MRV) has become a major challenge for the countries in reporting on the progress made. The Project "National Monitoring and MRV Systems with a regional approach" is an answer to the request from COMIFAC member countries (Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, Congo, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, Central African Republic (CAR), Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe) to enhance their common position on climate change mitigation through tropical forestry and subscribe to

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the commitments entered into during international negotiations.

The lessons learned from the project since its inception in September 2012 highlight the importance and relevance of complying with good governance principles in helping countries in the REDD+ process and in setting up monitoring and MRV systems. This communication reviews the main steps in implementing a monitoring system; briefly analyses the importance of complying with good governance principles for the efficient implementation of a national forest monitoring system and concludes by proposing a few recommendations.

Strategies and main steps of the 'National Forest monitoring and MRV systems Project' with a regional approach

Launched in N'Djamena in September 2012, the strategy is based on the **Subsidiarity principle (which consists in promoting decision making at local level as much as possible)**, the coordination of actions at national and regional levels, gender mainstreaming, South-south cooperation through the exchange of experiences among COMIFAC countries, compliance with the Paris Declaration on the compliance of partners with national priorities and the coordinated mobilization of potential donors. Thanks to this strategy, stakeholders are involved in the implementation of a number of coherent and coordinated activities.

Enhanced awareness, education and training enable to make sure key stakeholders have a clear idea of the implications of the REDD+ mitigation mechanism and efficiently participate in the awareness and reflection processes which will be establish at national and regional levels.

The establishment of clear institutional arrangements enables to make political decisions that are sustainable and valid in the context of national legal systems, but also to define the institutions that will be responsible, and how they will collaborate and exchange information/reports and to specify the actors and how they will act. This is in line with the good governance principles of REDD+ identified by UN-REDD, that is, the existence of clear institutional arrangements, the efficient coordination between institutions and sectors of activity and the institutional capacities to implement decisions and transparence in managing funds.

Development of a National Paper to prepare the National Strategy. REDD+ enables countries that have not benefited from any kind of support to draft the "Readiness Preparation Proposal (R-PP) (Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, Rwanda, Equatorial Guinea) to initiate the development of a national document in preparation of the national REDD+ strategy, thus enabling all COMIFAC countries to be at a similar level in terms of reflection on their respective national REDD+ strategies.

Establishment of a group to define the "National forest monitoring system" enables each country to formulate a proposal for the setting up of a "National forest monitoring system" specifying its scope, pillars and action plan (paragraph 73/Decision 1/CP.16) intended for the establishment of an operational "National Forest Monitoring System".

A sound regional programme highlighting training, support to the Observatory of Central African forests in defining indicators and establishing monitoring plots.

Submission of national and regional programmes to the "Council" for the funding of phase 2 of the Initiative. This would enable to propose financially sustainable and technically sound national and regional programmes to ensure alignment with the objectives and activities set in the national papers for preparing the national REDD+ strategy and the national Programme.

Links and synergies between the REDD+ process and monitoring systems

In the countries, the REDD+ process and monitoring systems can operate simultaneously but not in symbiosis.

Progressive evolution of REDD+

The REDD process has 3 phases:

A preparation phase that involves all COMIFAC member countries at any given step, an implementation phase of REDD+ projects that will not concretely launch unless international negotiations are successful and a results evaluation phase and remuneration of the performance of emissions avoided for which no country is yet prepared and which requires a wide range of technical and organizational support.

Monitoring systems

Definitions and phases

The National Forest Monitoring System (NFMS) aims at assessing greenhouse gases (GHG) emissions and absorptions in the forestry sector. The NFMS is thus a key tool in determining whether REDD+ activities are based on results in terms of both mitigation and impact on the forestry sector. **Phase 1** includes the planning and preparation of tools for the monitoring function and MRV system. In **Phase 2**, the implementation of REDD+ policies and measures should lead to demonstration activities at sub-national level, based on measurable results. To evaluate these results, the monitoring of demonstration activities is required in phase 2. In **Phase 3**, the monitoring of REDD+ activities will extend to the whole country in order to verify whether distinct national policies and measures are based on measurable results.

Key principles of Monitoring systems

The three key principles of monitoring systems are the following:

National Property: Based on the situation at national level and national development priorities, the country should exercise full control over the entire process of creating the NFMS and be fully responsible for implementing the system. Partner international organizations and foreign institutions are restricted to the role of technology transfer and institutional capacity development.

Make use of the existing systems and capacity: one of the key principles consists in exploiting national capacity, programmes and initiatives.

Coherence with the UNFCCC: the country should fully mainstream the NFMS in accordance with its commitment stated in the UNFCCC. The country should also make use of the methodological recommendations of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).

Applicability of some good governance principles in Monitoring and MRV systems

It is important to note how some good governance principles can apply to the project.

Active participation: This key principle of good governance is of prime importance in setting up a monitoring system. In the context of the project, at least 10 multi-stakeholders meetings for raising awareness, training, and exchanging on REDD+ and MRV, have been organized from March to June 2013 in the 5 RRP-less countries (Chad, Burundi, Rwanda, Equatorial Guinea, Sao Tome and Principe) and countries that already have RPPs (Cameroon, Congo). In the Democratic Republic of Congo, "*the situation at national level has revealed the following groups of actors: the Congolese Government which entrusted the coordination of all activities to an organization operating according to a polycephalic pattern, the civil society organized around the Climate-REDD+ Working Group, the private sector (Federation of Timber Industrialists, Federation of Companies in Congo) and development partners among whom there are technical partners and donors" (*Mpoyi *et al*., 2013).

Role sharing: From its conception, the project enabled to share roles among the various institutions, especially COMIFAC, the leader of the project, FAO as the technical leader, Llimate and REDD+ focal points who oversee the implementation of activities and the Congo Basin Forests Fund in charge of funding. In each country, the Government is in charge of formulating monitoring systems while involving the civil society and the private sector. At regional level, the Observatory of Central African Forests (OFAC) has been mandated to capitalize forest monitoring indicators including those related to REDD+ and

MRV. It is important to underline that this is in accordance with the UN-REDD principles on Governance, namely transparence, enabling actors for enhanced capacity, multi-actor participation, and the obligation to account and coordinate.

Compliance with equity and gender mainstreaming. The Project applies UN-REDD principles on gender, namely: involve men and women as stakeholders in all phases of the decision making process, conduct gender-based analyses, address the gender dimension in monitoring processes, allocate adequate financial resources to integrate gender dimensions and include a technical expertise in social issues in all the phases of REDD+. Concretely, the project fosters the inclusion of gender in the Convergence plan, participates in reflections of the ad hoc Gender Group and capitalizes on the results of REDD and gender workshops.

Responsibility. FAO is responsible for technical results (through coordination and operational technical units) and financial management. However, Memorandums of understanding are signed with the Governments to implement specific actions.

Delegation of responsibility (between countries and FAO). FAO has delegated the responsibility of FAO-Cameroon while involving the other FAO country offices.

All these principles are also part of complying with the guiding principles for responsible land governance stated in FAO's Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the context of national food security. These principles include, among others, human dignity, equity and justice, gender equality, consultation and participation, rule of law, transparence, accountability, etc.

In the context of the MRV Project, it is important to highlight that a conscious effort is being made to integrate **land tenure** while drafting RPPs and REDD+ strategies. In effect, it has been observed that in most developing countries, including those of the Congo Basin, « *the lack of clarity and security of tenure rights are obstacles in applying REDD+. It is essential to properly understand the rights available to communities in order to design REDD+ projects and identify the necessary reforms to facilitate the REDD+ process" (Rights and resources Initiatives, 2012).*

Conclusions and recommendations

In conclusion, this paper highlights the fact that the establishment of the REDD process and monitoring systems in the countries and at regional level, is complex, however these two processes can be conducted concomitantly. The relevance of adapted strategies such as the Subsidiarity principle, the coordination of actions, gender mainstreaming, South-South Cooperation, alignment with national priorities according to the Paris Declaration are a guarantee for success. These strategies are compatible with the principles adopted by the implementation of national monitoring and MRV systems. In order to have operational regional monitoring systems, it is important to have solid and credible national systems and institutions that are able to link technical monitoring principles and good governance principles. Even if good governance is not an end in itself, it fosters a strong motivation from countries and stakeholders to move towards concrete actions that enable to know forest resources (natural and planted) better in order to improve their management on behalf of communities.

A few noteworthy recommendations:

To COMIFAC: it is important for beneficiary countries to enhance the appropriation of these monitoring systems as a prerequisite for their sustainability. It is important to continually ensure the participation of climate focal points and COMIFAC coordinators.

To FAO: Maintain the quality of monitoring systems and enhance the capacity of stakeholders to enable the sub-region have a critical mass of human resources capable of measuring and reporting prior to the verification by the UNFCCC Secretariat.

To the various national stakeholders: There is a need to continually apply good governance principles (based on legality, legitimacy and participation) through the active participation of

actors, responsibility sharing among the institutions involved and gender mainstreaming at each step.

To the countries: Compliance with international commitments on forests, biodiversity and climate. For example in Cameroon, "we appreciate national efforts in implementing international and regional instruments of conventions and agreements it is a party of, to bring to light governance issues related among others. to corruption and capacity" (Dkamela, 2012).

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FAO REGIONAL OFFICE FOR AFRICA

Land and natural resource management in Angola: An innovative approach based on dialogue and negotiation

Francisco Carranza[1]

Summary

In Angola, the indiscriminate use of natural resources, combined with emerging foreign interests in land, water, oil, mining, forests, and others, has resulted in increased pressure on these resources, often leading to unsustainable use and the displacement of local people. Conventional methods of land-use planning have proven ineffective in Angola, due to the lack of crucial information for appropriate land administration, coupled with inadequate planning for sustainable land management. There are some examples of successful participatory natural resource management negotiation processes in Angola, which should now be institutionalized and scaled up. Introducing a participatory approach that allows stakeholders to express their interests and propose strategies for local development, vis-à-vis those of the local administration, has proven an effective way to achieve legitimized consensus in land-use planning and natural resource management.

Introduction

What is being witnessed now in most of Angola is an unplanned and chaotic use of natural resources. Although this issue may not have been a concern in the past, the speed at which resources are now being depleted does not allow for their timely renewal (SOLAW 2012). Land-use information in Angola is scattered at a local or decentralized level in the different institutions responsible for land management. Normally, the people in charge of those tasks lack the proper training to carry out a sensible diagnosis on the use and actual situation of natural resources, and are therefore unable to make sound proposals for better land management. *Nonetheless, the issue in Angola is twofold: *the way negotiations are carried out* regarding the utilization of resources; and *how those resources are actually being used* (if in a sustainable manner or not). In the current context, land governance becomes an unintentionally challenging issue. What is most needed is an approach that 1) allows for the acknowledgement of all stakeholders, and 2) deals with the leveling of forces in the existing power asymmetries.

A Participatory and Negotiated Territorial Development Approach

Technical approaches have been applied in international cooperation since its very first days. Despite the importance of these approaches, constant failures in the appropriation of methodologies or better practices have demonstrated the need for a paradigm shift. The Participatory and Negotiated Territorial Development approach (PNTD) and others similar to it have now been applied successfully, not only by FAO but also by civil society organizations and NGOs. FAO has supported the Government of Angola (GoA) in land and natural resource management for the past 14 years. Although much of the work was initially focused on access to land and training public civil servants on the use of cadastres and land registries, the new land law (*Lei de Terras Nº 04/09*) has provided the legal framework to move forward and propose sound, rights-based management plans for the use of natural resources. To that end, the PNTD methodology brought together local stakeholders around a table to deal with issues in a participatory manner, using dialogue as a way to reach consensus, and negotiation techniques as a way to (re)claim rights and group interests. By basing its methodology on human dynamics that are common in many cultures (namely *communication*, *dialogue* and *conciliation*), PNTD encompasses gender issues in its application, in light of the abundance of evidence in support of women as a fundamental asset to economic, social and cultural livelihoods.

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Figure 1. A commemorative plaque illustrating dialogue and negotiation for land and natural resources management

Facilitating the Process

Through its Land Project GCP/ANG/045/SPA, FAO initiated the territorial development process by conducting a diagnosis of territorial dynamics and identifying all stakeholders. This approach contributes to a clear understanding of the interactions that take place in the area, including actual use of resources, the existing agrarian systems and most importantly, the interactions between all of these components. Since there is usually not just one cooperative or farmer's association in a given territory, but several, it is difficult to summon everyone to a functional round-table. To address this, FAO leads an unbiased process of selection involving individuals that comprise each of these groups. Only when all involved and organized stakeholders are allowed a space to articulate their positions and interests will they openly choose a qualified spokesperson to negotiate at the table in the group's best interests for the use of natural resources.

Besides providing the diagnosis and going through the process of fairly summoning all actors, FAO's other main role has been that of a facilitator, an *external agent* without any direct interests. Facilitating means moderating the dialogue and being able to clearly understand the sets of interests (conflicting or not), as well as the needs and difficulties of all actors in the negotiation arena. The facilitator, usually situated between a social demand and an institutional response (of possible solutions), skillfully brings them together, finding common ground and harmonizing seemingly antagonizing interests.

Once all stakeholders are together at the table, the facilitator helps to establish common rules, and presents the territorial diagnosis for all to agree on. This is crucial because it establishes the informational common ground on which proposals and negotiations will be based. This initial consensus is important because not all actors have the same economic resources or access to the same information; the process helps to ensure that the few stronger actors do not continue to otherwise dominate the discussions. Thus, starting from a common baseline with the assistance of a facilitator, would certainly contribute to lessen differences in negotiating powers. The process is complete when a consensus is reached after negotiating the different stakeholders' interests and future actions are agreed upon. In this way, future conflicts or disagreements are avoided because all actors went through a socially legitimate process.

Work in Progress

The PNTD, which was applied in selected municipalities of Huambo province in Angola, was recently tested for the first time for the management of natural resources and land-use planning. The approach fits perfectly in the context of the Law of Territorial Planning and Urbanism (Lei de Ordenamento do Território e do Urbanismo Nº 3/04), which fosters participation at all levels of the planning stages.

Photo 1: Actors around a table of negotiation for land-use planning in Ekunha municipality, Huambo province

FAO held individual meetings with identified actors, namely: farmer cooperatives, churches, peasants' associations, traditional authorities, big producers, rural merchants and NGOs, and organized internal sessions in order to (i) understand the group's interests and priorities and, (ii) identify two representatives to play as spokespersons when the table of dialogue would start.

Currently, negotiations are being carried out on issues that were prioritized by the group. Some of these include: the importance of forest resources to combine with the agricultural products, the elaboration of a local credit program, the need to have a bank available to invigorate the local economy, the integration of local vendors in the municipalities' expenditures, etc.

The next step will be to agree on signed paper, as a social pact, on the actions to be taken and who will be willing and capable of directly acting on those issues. This is an example of local level management put into practice to achieve very tangible objectives.

Conclusions and way forward

Good governance in natural resource management starts with creating common spaces for the different stakeholders to truly participate in the decision-making process. The innovative aspect of the approach relies on using common dynamics (*communication*, *negotiation* and *conciliation*), within a participatory atmosphere, with the support of an external facilitator.

Some of the challenges faced in the implementation of this approach to land management have been the minimal importance given to planning and natural resources by the local administration. Moreover, civil society organizations must promote and recognize the existing diversity found in the territory, particularly in its people (rural women, illiterate peasants and minority groups), in order to better incorporate their voices in a participatory land management system. FAO's facilitating role has been crucial for mediating arguments and highlighting the participants' valid points of view.

Finally, good governance in land management means putting as much emphasis on the process as on the final results, which is exactly what the territorial approach demonstrates. It also means that transparency and proper representation, as well as the accountability of all interested actors and not just the local authorities, plays a central role in natural resource management.

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FAO Regional Office for Africa develops a comprehensive *guidelines* to institutionalize and implement community-based forest management in sub-saharan Africa

Foday Bojang[1]

Forests and woodlands play a key role in social and economic development and environmental protection in Africa. With an estimated 674 million hectares, Africa is home to about 17% of the world's forests (FAO, 2010). For the majority of people in Africa, forests are the principal source of domestic energy in the form of fuel wood and charcoal (providing up to 90% of energy need in some households). In addition, forest provide a wide range of products and services upon which many rural and urban communities in sub-Saharan Africa depend for their livelihoods and subsistence. They contribute to food and nutrition security in the region through products such as wild foods (e.g. honey, mushrooms, bush meat and fruits), and medicines, and browse and fodder for livestock. Forests and woodlands also provide important global environmental services that include watershed protection, wildlife habitats, biodiversity, carbon sequestration for climate change mitigation and maintenance of ecosystem functions. At the national level forests and woodlands generate employment and contribute to wealth creation through (small scale) forest-based enterprises. In recent years there has been significant growth in production and trade in non-wood forest products (FAO, 2009). This has been driven by the growing popularity of ethnic foods, traditional medicines, natural and organic foods.

Despite these values, forests and woodlands continue to decline at a high rate in sub-Saharan Africa. Factors that contribute to deforestation and forest degradation in the region are predominantly anthropogenic, such as increased demand for additional agricultural lands, settlement, infrastructure development, logging and wildfires: FAO's 2010 Forest Resources Assessment (FRA) report indicates that about 0.49%, approximately 3.4 million ha, of forest land was lost annually between 2005 and 2010.

Customary ownership rights of forest fringe communities were usurped and replaced with restraining forest regulations of the colonial and post colonial administrations, making forests the property of the state. Many communities therefore developed apathy towards forest protection and a 'free-for-all' attitude in terms of access to forests resources. On the other hand, the governments in sub-Saharan Africa did not have the means to protect and manage the vast natural forest endowments, which then fell victim to illegal and uncontrolled exploitation, wildfires and conversion to agricultural lands.

Realizing the futility of their efforts to protect and develop the natural forest resources, many African countries (e.g. Gambia, Namibia, Tanzania and Rwanda) undertook policy and legislative reforms (especially after the United Nationals Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in 1992) in an attempt to engage local communities in sustainable forest management. These policies devolved some degree of authority to local levels not only for administrative purposes but also to ensure appropriate structures and mechanisms for better natural resources management. Many of these policies however fell short of ensuring that communities become 'real owners' of the forests resources and the benefits derived from their engagement in the management of the resources. To ensure better understanding of the underlying principles and implementation modalities of community-based forest management, the 18th Session of the African Forestry and Wildlife Commission (AFWC18) "Requested FAO to support members in their efforts to design, introduce and implement community-based forest and wildlife management programmes".

In response to the request of AFWC18 and given FAO's extensive global experience in the implementation of participative forestry, FAO Regional Office for Africa developed its first comprehensive "Guideline for Institutionalizing and Implementing Community-Based Forest Management in Sub-Saharan Africa". For the purpose of the guideline, Community-based forest management (CBFM) is a generic term referring to "*any form of collective management of forest*

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resources by a defined community that has collective ownership and/or user rights for their own benefit".

The Guidelines were developed by consultants with extensive knowledge and experience in the implementation of community-based natural resources management in Africa. Experts from natural resources management sectors and non-governmental bodies involved in community institutional development and community-based resource management extensively reviewed the draft document. It was finally subjected to an independent experts' validation workshop at the FAO Regional Office in Accra, Ghana, in May 2011, where it was further improved and subsequently endorsed for publication.

The finalized document was launched in a well attended technical/policy level meeting of several Sub-Saharan countries in December 2012. FAO intends to use the document to guide its work in community-based forest management in Africa and to serve as a tool for the implementation of the 'Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the context of National Food Security'. The Guidelines are being distributed to Forestry Services and related institutions, individuals and groups interested in the subject, to enhance its wide application in Africa.

The Guidelines advocate adoption and implementation of CBFM for several reasons, including:

- As a form of social justice in recognizing the inherent rights of forest dependent communities over their forests;
- Enabling local or forest fringe communities to meet their social, economic, environmental, cultural and spiritual needs without much hindrance;
- Capitalizing on the existence of local institutions and indigenous knowledge systems to regulate forest use and manage the forests to ensure their continued existence and service provision;
- Providing a platform for linking with and taking into account the multiple interests of forest users in the community;
- Promotion of practice of good governance systems at local community level through devolution of authority for resources ownership and management;
- Providing a strong and sustainable basis for community-based forest enterprises development for increased household income, poverty reduction and the growth of local economies.
- Ensuring gender sensitive involvement of Women, and the youth in forest policy formulation and development and implementation of forest management plans at community level.
- Enhancement of various ecosystem services such as biodiversity conservation, watershed protection and carbon sequestration.

Key elements identified by the FAO guidelines to enhance successful institutionalization and implementation of CBFM in Sub-Saharan Africa

Borrowing from experiences across sub-Saharan Africa and other regions of the world, FAO's guidelines identified several key elements germane to the successful institutionalization and implementation of CBFM in sub-Saharan Africa. These enabling conditions are summarized as follows:

- A discrete community with identifiable membership is essential to enable smooth decision-making and costs and benefits sharing;
- The existence of legitimate and respected local community institutions that can facilitate dialogue and provide platforms for interfacing and engaging with other stakeholders;
- The existence of clearly defined and legally recognized resource property rights and resource entities;
- The existence of a conducive policy, legal and regulatory environment providing for clear tenural rights, decentralization of power and devolution of authority to the community;
- A strong political support to strengthen the foundation and growth of CBFM;
- A policy and legislative provision that enhances generation, ownership and equitable sharing of income and benefits;

- The existence of a positive policy environment for investment in and operation of small forest-based enterprises to function efficiently and generate profits in a sustainable manner;
- Enhanced capacities of local communities and their institutions to execute their mandates and responsibilities under CBFM arrangements;
- Enhanced capacities, knowledge and skills of public forest institutions to better engage and support communities in CBFM;
- Long term commitment to the CBFM, especially in the form of investment, by government, communities and the private sector as well as civil society and non-governmental organization partners;
- An effective communication strategy based on well-defined communication channels for facilitating exchange of information and experience sharing between stakeholders;
- Democratic participation of all stakeholders in the governance of the affairs of the CBFM enterprise, including goal setting, planning, management, experimentation and evaluation;
- A common vision and genuine agreement among different user or interest groups on the principles and objectives of forest resource management;
- Adoption of a participatory process of collective monitoring and evaluation of the impacts of activities and addressing any negative trends;
- A phased approach to allow for learning and adaptation;

The FAO Guidelines is intended to benefit CBFM practitioners and forest managers as well as policy makers, planners, forestry and rural development extension workers, local administrators and community leaders active in the forestry and other natural resources management sectors in sub-Saharan Africa.

To access the Guidelines directly online click on:
http://www.fao.org/docrep/016/i2786e/i2786e00.htm
The Guidelines can also be accessed from:
FAO webpage: http://www.fao.org/africa/

For more information on the Guidelines and on FAO's activities to promote it in Africa, interested parties may contact: Foday Bojang, Senior Forestry Officer, FAO Regional Office for Africa, P.O Box GP 1628, Accra Ghana;
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FAO REGIONAL OFFICE FOR AFRICA

Ensuring sustainability of wildlife resources in central Africa through community involvement

Arnoud Steeman[1] and Dieudonné Bruno Waneyombo-Brachka[2]

Summary

The wildlife of Central Africa is an important source of protein and income for communities. However, several factors threaten the sustainability of this resource. The reliance on State control and law enforcement as tools to counter the threats has proved ineffective. This article presents a new FAO/GEF project that aims at empowerment of local communities as an alternative approach to achieve sustainable management of the wildlife and bushmeat sector in four Central African countries, namely Central African Republic, Gabon, Republic of the Congo, and Democratic Republic of the Congo.

Introduction

Wildlife in Central Africa is under threat. In the past each Bantu village managed its own resources in a specific area, the boundaries of which are more or less known by everyone (even if the Baka, Bambenga or Bayaka communities move around all over the forest). Although wildlife off takes were low in part because of low population then, and also because most harvest were for consumption at the family level and not for trade. However, through controlled access by the local resident population and respected boundaries, the off take of wildlife resources was sustainable. Nowadays, poaching and overhunting for the commercial bushmeat market are major threats to the survival of wildlife in Central Africa. State control and law enforcement have been the tools for decades to counter the threats. These tools have proven to be ineffective mainly because they have not been combined with the need for involving local communities, and improving local governance.

An alternative approach to achieve sustainable use of wildlife resources is based on the capacity of local stakeholders to build their own management systems by promoting governance of wildlife resources (Nguinguiri, 2003).

This article presents an FAO/GEF project that applies this alternative approach of empowering local stakeholders to contribute to the management and conservation of their wildlife resources.. The title of the project is "Sustainable Management of the Wildlife and Bushmeat Sector in Central Africa" (GCP/RAF/455/GFF). It is an ongoing project being implemented by FAO in four countries of Central Africa (Central African Republic, Gabon, Republic of the Congo, and Democratic Republic of the Congo). The Global Environment Facility (GEF) provides the funding for the project, the key focus of which is to design and implement sustainable use of wildlife resources that is based on a well developed capacity of local stakeholders to construct their own management systems in wildlife resources governance.

The role of bushmeat in society

Bushmeat is a fact of life in Central Africa. The diverse wildlife of the humid forests of Central Africa provides the population living in or near the forests of the Congo Basin with both protein and income. *Bushmeat Crisis Task Force* (2006) estimates the bushmeat consumption of rodents, antelopes, and wild boar, and primates, in the order of 30-70 kg per person per year.

The preference to consume bushmeat cannot simply be explained as a lack of alternatives. It is a complex of factors that include financial constraints, food preferences and cultural values (FAO, 1998). The cultural attachment to bushmeat in urban areas is strong and the desire to eat bushmeat can be explained by taste, habit, tradition, prestige, ritual, and nostalgia.

Concerning the trade in bushmeat, a hunter can earn between 300 and 1000 USD per year. This exceeds the average household income in the

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region, and is comparable to the wages of those persons paid to prevent hunting. (Bushmeat Crisis Task Force, 2006). It is thus clear that it is extremely difficult to limit bushmeat consumption to village level subsistence needs.

Hunting levels are unsustainable

It is generally acknowledged that the current level of hunting is unsustainable. To get an idea of the pressure it suffices to visit bushmeat markets in big cities such as Bangui (CAR), Brazzaville (Congo), Libreville (Gabon), or Kinshasa (DRC), where one can get an impression of the daily delivery of game, mostly smoked to improve the shelf life.

This pressure can be expected to grow with the increase in human population. *Bushmeat Crisis Task Force* (2006) estimated that the 30-70 kg per person per year at that time was equivalent to about four million animals, consumed by 30 million people. According to Usongo and Nagahuedi (2007), the human population in the region is expected to double in 25 to 30 years.

According to the United Nations (Population Division United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2011) there were in 2011 close to 130 million people living in the ten countries that make up the forests of the Congo Basin. These ten countries are also members of COMIFAC (Commission des Forêts d'Afrique Centrale).The population is expected to increase to more than 179 million in 2025. The increase itself is almost 50 million people, more than the 30 million people consuming four million animals. In 2100 it is expected that these countries will be home to more than 397 million people. The population of the Democratic Republic of the Congo alone is expected to grow from close to 68 million in 2011 to 212 million in 2100 (Population Division United Nations, 2011).

If the demand continues to grow as expected, and consumers do not or are unable to switch to eating meat from domestic livestock, then hunting of wild game will increase in the future. This will place most large mammals at risk of local or regional extinction

Open access

Hunting in the forests of the Congo Basin is out of control. While the drivers are demographic growth and consumer preferences, the underlying reasons for the increasing hunting pressure include both failing state control and the breakdown of traditional control and management of hunting grounds. The clan, the lineage and the community no longer have effective control over access to hunting grounds; neither does the government administrative unit in charge of the sector. This breakdown of traditional local regulations governing hunting by members of the local communities has had colossal negative impact on sustainable management of wildlife in the Congo basin. Power over the access to hunting lands and over the definition and application of local regulations was vested in the traditional chiefs, or heads of lineage. However, the legal frameworks of the four countries in which the FAO/GEF project is implemented, today do not recognise local control over traditional lands, and they do not recognise the rights of local populations to manage or regulate hunting on these lands. Thus the application of traditional rules over hunting has broken down. The de facto situation is open access almost everywhere. Sites may differ in degree, and in some locations some communities are still capable of controlling access by outsiders, but open access is generally the norm. Where there is open access and no communal control and no effective state control, natural resources suffer.

At the same time, the market for bushmeat has changed; this is a immense issue. One of the major challenges with unsustainable wildlife management in central Africa sub-region is the demand by commercial markets. Local markets have changed to international markets and wildlife resources from central Africa are now common in markets in Europe – France, Belgium, Netherlands, etc. Forests have become more accessible, mainly through logging of forests: roads opened up the forests, and larger settlements grew around logging sites. These sites attracted new settlers, creating an increased demand for bushmeat. Recent warfare in the area lead to a spread of firearms, and the availability of low cost snares adds to the ease with which a hunter can obtain considerable numbers of game and increase his income. With the breakdown of local control on access, has come also a breakdown of culturally determined restraint in which species to hunt and how many, as the hunting has become an economic activity for local populations.

The past decades have shown that poor governance, a lack of respect for law and order and a general lack of enforcement of laws and regulations have rendered state control and enforcement of wildlife laws ineffective.

Community management

The FAO/GEF project "Sustainable Management of the Wildlife and Bushmeat Sector in Central Africa" will therefore – in summary – support the development of an enabling governance framework which will include ensuring an adequate legal framework in the four countries in which it is implemented, in a way that will allow community based management of wildlife, based on exclusive rights to the lands and wildlife resources, and the sale and trade by community members of bushmeat and other wildlife products. This project aims to bring back community management and ensuring adequate participation in the decision making processes.

Within communities there is often an awareness that conservation and traditional hunting areas must continue to exist. Communities may not be able to control access everywhere but they should have access to specific and exclusively owned areas. In this case, communities might apply their knowledge and traditional know-how (from clans or lineages) in terms of access to land and hunting activities. The project will assist in setting aside a community wildlife management areas with jointly produced management plans and approved by the National Wildlife Authorities. This will be solely managed by communities.

Developing a supporting legal framework, field tools, and capacity

The project will need to overcome barriers(GEF, 2011). One barrier is the legal framework of the countries in which the project operates. The policies and laws of these countries do not support community based wildlife management, or do not have provisions for wildlife management. The project will develop a regional strategy for wildlife management and bushmeat, and based on this strategy policies will be developed for each country. This, in turn, will be the basis for developing laws and regulations.

Another barrier is that there are no participatory wildlife management tools in these countries with which one can facilitate the development of community management of wildlife. However, community wildlife management systems exist in other parts of Africa. For example, there are successful community management projects in South Africa and Namibia, but these are grassland ecosystems and are relatively dry (savannah). Hunting and monitoring wildlife in savannahs are very different from doing that in the humid forests of Central Africa. Likewise there are ample examples of successful community based management of forest resources other than wildlife – for instance dry forest in Burkina Faso – but these do not necessarily give the right tools to develop community based wildlife management in the forests of Central Africa. The project intends to draw on the knowledge and experience throughout Africa to develop and test tools specific to establishing community based wildlife management in the humid forests of Central Africa.

With the lack of tools, comes another barrier – weak institutions, including government departments and nongovernmental organisations (NGOs). The weak institutions do not have sufficient capacity to develop and manage effectively community based wildlife management systems. The project is designed to work closely with government institutions and relevant NGOs to develop their capacities and test field tools as well as to establish community management on the ground.

Conclusion

This article has briefly presented the FAO / GEF project titled "Sustainable Management of the Wildlife and Bushmeat Sector in Central Africa." The project recognises the importance of wildlife for food security and the obstacles to the sustainable development of the bushmeat sector. The project offers an alternative for state control and law enforcement practices to counter the threat of run-away wildlife hunting in Central Africa in advocating strong involvement of local communities, through their empowerment in the governance of hunting areas with exclusive access rights. In order to realise such alternative successfully, it will need to overcome a number of barriers by developing a supporting legal framework, field tools to develop community management of wildlife resources in the forests of Central Africa, and to increase capacities of local institutions in developing such community-based management.

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Links

"Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security"

FAO declares that the eradication of hunger and poverty, and the sustainable use of the environment, depend in large measure on how people, communities and others gain access to land, fisheries and forests. Many tenure problems arise because of weak governance, and attempts to address tenure problems are affected by the quality of governance. The same idea was reiterated in the Rio+20 declaration, enshrined under the banner "The future we want"[1] *To access online the document "Voluntary Guidelines on the Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests in the Context of National Food Security" please kindly click on:*
http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/nr/land_tenure/pdf/VG_en_Final_March_2012.pdf
http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/nr/land_tenure/images/VG_Informal_aid.pdf

To access online the document "The future we want" *please kindly click on the webpage:* http://www.slideshare.net/uncsd2012/the-future-we-want-rio20-outcome-document

Natural resources are not just valuable economic resources; they are also political and social resources

FRR (a division of The IDL Group Ltd.) elucidates and characterizes natural resource governance in the following statement: "*Natural resources are not just valuable economic resources; they are also political and social resources. At all levels: local, national and international, actors compete to gain access, control and benefits from natural resources. How these competitions are played out and resolved, and who ultimately benefits from them, lies at the heart of natural resource governance.* " FRR provides consulting services in natural resource management which tackle the challenges of poverty, governance, growth and sustainability.
For further information on FFR visit: http://www.theidlgroup.com/FRR/NaturalResourceGovernance.htm .

Governance arrangements have to set the framework within which changes may occur.

Sayer and Collins (2012) observed that "society's requirements for forest goods and services are constantly changing and governance arrangements have to set the framework within which those changes may occur in an equitable and considered way."
Contact the authors:
Jeffrey A. Sayer and Mark Collins (2012), Forest Governance in a Changing World: Reconciling Local and Global Values. The Round Table, Vol. 101, No. 02, 137–146, April 2012 ISSN 0035-8533 Print/1474-029X Online/12/020137-10 2012 The Round Table Ltd
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To view abstract and to download full text visit: http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/00358533.2012.661531#.UgtqMLHFK70

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00358533.2012.661531

[1] http://www.slideshare.net/uncsd2012/the-future-we-want-rio20-outcome-document

NEWS

2014 International Year of Family Farming

Following the UN declaration of 2014 as the International Year of Family Farming (IYFF), FAO in collaboration with government, UN partners and global civil society have been tasked to raise the profile of family farming, focusing on its role to alleviate hunger and poverty and provide food security while protecting the environment and biodiversity. The overall aim of the IYFF is " to promote international awareness and support country owned plans aimed at strengthening the contribution of family farming and smallholders in eradicating hunger and reducing rural poverty leading to sustainable development of rural areas and food security." IYFF launch activities in Africa will take place this year, in preparation for the celebration and implementation of in 2014. A key focus of IYFF will be the implementation of a series of national IYFF consultations to take place in each sub region.

For more information contact the Regional focal point: Sylvana Ntaryarima
Email: sylvana.ntaryarima@fao.org

The first global meeting of wildlife enforcement networks

Wildlife poachers now are well organized criminal syndicates, and in response, wildlife law enforcement officers from around the world convened in Bangkok 7 March 2013 for the first global meeting of wildlife enforcement networks. The event was held alongside the conference of the 178 government Parties to the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species, CITES, which continued through 14 March 2013.

Wildlife law enforcement officers from around the world meet for the first time on the sidelines of the CITES conference, March 7, 2013. (Photo courtesy CITES)

Officers from the 10 wildlife enforcement groups operating within Africa, Asia, Europe, and North and South America attended the meeting, together with others from networks proposed for Central Asia, West Asia and the Oceania/Pacific region. As a collective, proactive response of national governments, wildlife enforcement networks cooperate by sharing information on poaching and illicit trade activities, and exchanging best practice techniques on combating wildlife and forest crime. The meeting was hosted by the International Consortium on Combating Wildlife Crime, ICCWC, a collaborative effort by the CITES Secretariat, Interpol, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, the World Bank and the World Customs Organization to strengthen international cooperation to combat wildlife and forest crime. It was made possible due to financial support of the U.S. State Department. At the meeting, officers shared their experiences combating poachers, heard about the ICCWC tools and support available to them, such as the ICCWC Wildlife and Forest Crime Analytic Toolkit, and planned to overcome challenges to national, sub-regional and regional cooperation.

Large-scale seizures of African ivory (consignments of over 800 kg) destined for Asia have more than doubled since 2009 and reached an all-time high in 2011. (Photo courtesy TRAFFIC)

Wildlife enforcement networks hope to arrest poachers and illegal traders by operating across borders and organizational boundaries, coordinating the efforts of wildlife law enforcement agencies and other relevant authorities at a national, sub-regional or regional level. According to a new report entitled

"*Elephants in the Dust – The African Elephant Crisis*", increasing poaching levels, as well as loss of habitat are threatening the survival of African elephant populations in Central Africa as well as previously secure populations in West, Southern and Eastern Africa. The report – produced by CITES, the UN Environment Programme, the International Union for Conservation of Nature, and the wildlife trade monitoring network TRAFFIC – was released 6 March 2013 at the CITES conference. It shows that systematic monitoring of large-scale seizures of African ivory destined for Asia indicates the involvement of criminal networks, which are increasingly active and entrenched in the trafficking of ivory.

Source: Culled from http://ens-newswire.com/2013/03/08/wildlife-law-enforcement-gathers-global-strength/ Environment News Service (ENS) 2013.

Fisheries crime enforcement officers at first meeting of Project Scale, Lyon, France

On 26 February 2013, INTERPOL launched Project Scale, a global initiative to detect, suppress and combat fisheries crime.

The project was launched during the first INTERPOL International Fisheries Enforcement Conference at Interpol headquarters in Lyon, France. The conference was followed by a two-day meeting of the first permanent Interpol Fisheries Crime Working Group. Illegal fisheries are estimated to cost the global economy up to US$23 billion a year. INTERPOL says fisheries crime is linked to other forms of serious transnational crime including corruption, money laundering, fraud, human and drugs trafficking. Funded by the Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation and The Pew Charitable Trusts, Project Scale coordinates operations to target this criminal activity, disrupt trafficking routes, ensure the enforcement of national legislation and harmonize national and regional enforcement efforts.

Source: Culled from http://ens-newswire.com/ Environment News Service (ENS) 2013.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

Nineteenth Session of the African Forestry and Wildlife Commission and Third African Forestry and Wildlife Week. Windhoek, Namibia 30 September to 4 October 2013

The African Forestry and Wildlife Commission
At the kind invitation of the Government of the Republic of Namibia, the Nineteenth Session of the African Forestry and Wildlife Commission (AFWC19) will be held in Windhoek, Namibia, from 30 September to 4 October 2013, at the Hotel Safari.

Created in 1959, the African Forestry and Wildlife Commission is one of six regional forestry commissions established by FAO to provide a policy and technical forum for countries to address forest and wildlife issues on a regional basis. The Commission comprises heads of forest and wildlife services of member countries in the region. It meets every two years.

The 3rd African Forestry and Wildlife Week will seek to draw the attention of policy-makers to the significant contribution of forests, trees and wildlife to national economies and their potential growth, and the improvement of the livelihoods of the populations. The third African Forestry and Wildlife Week (AFWW3) will be simultaneously observed with AFWC19. AFWW3 will aim to showcase the forest and wildlife sectors' contribution to food security and economic development in Africa.

The theme for AFWC 19 and AFWW3 is **"***Development of forest and wildlife sectors for effective contributions to food security and a green economy in Africa"*. By selecting this theme, the AFWC intends to illustrate the extent of the often forgotten or under-estimated role of forestry and wildlife in ensuring food security and enhancing a green economy in Africa, at both the community level and nationally throughout the continent.

Eligible participants: representatives of governments, non-governmental and civil society organizations; international, regional and sub-regional organizations; academia; research institutions; development partner countries, the private sector, and projects managers, and practitioners from the forestry, wildlife and other sectors that impact on forested land (e.g. agriculture, livestock, mining) are encouraged to attend. Approximately 250 participants are expected to take part in the week's events.

Side events and exhibitions: Organizations, institutions, projects and individuals are invited to exhibit their work or organize side events on subjects related to the theme of the week-long events. As space will be limited, those wishing to organize such activities are kindly requested to inform the AFWC secretariat at the address given below by 15 September 2013, with a description of their proposed event. Participants are particularly encouraged to share recent Innovations, experiences, knowledge and successful applications of technology and data which will be of benefit to countries in the region.

Event date: 30 September to 4 October 2013
Venue: Hotel Safari (Tel.: +264 61 296 7174; Email: Confcent@safarihotelsnamibia.com)
City: Windhoek
Country: Namibia
AFWC website: Visit www.fao.org/forestry/afwc to access the programme, agenda and secretariat notes

Communication with the Secretariat:
Email: afwc@fao.org
Fax: +233 302 668 427 (for the attention of the AFWC Secretary)

Theme and Deadline for Next Issue

The next edition of Nature & Faune magazine will feature short articles that address the broad theme of **"African Youth in Agriculture, Natural Resources and Rural Development"**. This is consistent with the magazine's mission of enhancing natural resource management for food security. There is consensus that a strong involvement of Africa's youth in rural development through agriculture and natural resources management will boost food security in the continent.. However, youth participation in the two sectors in many African countries is very low, largely because of the misperception that agriculture and natural resources are outdated fields with minimal financial returns. Moreover the agriculture sector is highly unattractive to Africa's youth because of its labor intensive nature, while the natural resources sector takes time to yield benefits. The sectors are also bedeviled with problems such as difficulties in accessing land and finance without collateral; high risks, costs and inefficiency. As such, motivating the youth to view agriculture and natural resources management as career opportunities will require multi-level interventions. This poor participation of Africa's youth is a critical threat to future food security; and therefore must be urgently addressed.

About 65% of the total population of Africa is below the age of 35 years, and over 35% is between the ages of 15 and 35 years - making Africa the most youthful continent. By 2020, it is projected that out of 4 people in the African continent, 3 will be on average 20 years old. About 10 million young Africans arrive each year on the labor market. The United Nations defines youth as young men and women from age 15 through 24. For the purpose of the upcoming edition of Nature & Faune, the term youth includes the group of young people, male and female, married or single, from age 15 through 24. The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that almost 50 percent of all employed youth in the age-group 15-17 are involved in the worst forms of child labour, often in the agricultural sector. In order to avoid rural poverty, many youths have migrated to urban areas in search of better job opportunities. However, they face several challenges in finding employment in urban cities; and those who find a job usually work in the informal sector with poor pay, low job security and insufficient social protection.

It is thus widely acknowledged that Africa's youth have a poor record of participating meaningfully in agriculture and natural resources management, yet credible strategies for addressing the issue are not being adequately and systematically sought. Any attempt to addressing it, must ensure that youth, the key stakeholder group in this process, is adequately involved. In addition, Africa's youth can provide an efficient, innovative and productive labour force for rural development through agriculture and natural resources management if they are well-educated and appropriately skilled. In order to seek evidence-based strategies for addressing the challenges, a series of questions need to be answered: How will Africa prepare its youth to become active contributors to the rural development processes of their countries and be formally involved in national development agenda? What role could education play in addressing the myriad of challenges and removing barriers to effective African youth contribution to rural development through agriculture and natural resources management? How can Africa use approaches and mechanisms that aim at leveraging the forces of globalization for the benefit of its rural youth populations? From the perspective of banking, what are the incentives banks and other financial institutions need to effectively support and strengthen the rural and urban youth in agriculture and rural development? What measures and strategies are needed to bring the voice of the youth to the table and to advocate for greater youth engagement and representation?

The editorial board is inviting authors to contribute articles that examine the above questions and other relevant ones from various perspectives and also to analyze the rural youth situation in Africa and outline the potential for their active participation in the agricultural and natural resources fields and rural development. You are most welcome to share your experiences, thoughts and ideas on what needs to be done at local, national, regional and international levels to support young Africans to deliver their full potential in rural development through agriculture and natural resources management.

Deadline for submitting manuscripts for the next issue of Nature & Faune is 1 November 2013.

FAO REGIONAL OFFICE FOR AFRICA

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