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C for credibility

The thirty-ninth session of the World Heritage Committee will take place at the end of this month, starting on the 28th of June in Bonn, Germany. This Committee is composed of 21 countries chosen during the UNESCO general assembly to deal specifically with World Heritage issues. The Committee is more or less representative of the different regions of the world (two countries are representing Africa at the present time).

This concept of “World Heritage” is a generous idea. It was born in the late 50s when it became necessary to save the temples located in Abu Simbel and Philae, in Egypt. At that time, the construction of the Assouan Dam put them at risk of being flooded, and it appeared appropriate to unite all the energies to displace and preserve them forever. From then on grew the idea of preserving for future generations the best treasures of our world, be they the creations of man or of nature. Enshrined in the 1972 Convention, this philosophy has gradually enrolled many natural sites all around the globe (almost 200 in total now), some of them being the great iconic parks of Africa.

So are these parks saved forever?

Well, not really...

If Africa currently hosts 37 natural properties inscribed on the World Heritage list, 14 of them are also incorporated into the “sites in danger” list (that

is, nearly 40% of all African sites), which means they may lose the values for which they are famous. Apart from some unavoidable insecurity issues, most cases are related to deficiencies of governance and / or management that persist over time. These are therefore challenges that are within the reach of the managers of these territories as long as the states really want to do something about it. And yet, some sites have been “in danger” for over 20 years! They are the subject of a so-called “reactive monitoring” every year: a mission organized on the ground to measure progress towards the return to a controlled situation, until the area can finally be removed from the list of sites in danger. And every year, in reports that become as long as they are useless, we invariably praise the work that the state has (not) done and we ask it to do more again (knowing that it won’t).

The Committee will receive the reports this year again. It will certainly discuss them, will make some observations and probably will hasten to decide nothing: the same story will go on. In 2002, however, UNESCO added a new C to its strategy that already counted three (capacities, conservation and communication): this was the C of credibility. This credibility is the ability of the list to keep only those sites that truly deserve the label, not those who do not have the specifications, not those who have lost them or not those who do not care at all. This credibility is also the ability of IUCN to make its advisory voice at the convention audible, not only through unread reports, but through decisions which go in the right direction. This credibility is finally meant to rebuild a list of sites that show the way for all the other parks, reserves and other conservation areas all over the

world and not just a list of vague souvenirs of a world that is now disappearing.

Time is running out for Africa. Too many of these properties are in danger of fading physically before they are even removed from the list; there is no time to differ difficult decisions. All our energy should be directed towards the places which are still capable of carrying out loud the banner of the World Heritage. All our efforts must focus on rehabilitating these sites which still can be saved and recognizing, maintaining, supporting those who make the relevant efforts. Others, all the others, should simply return to anonymity since it is indeed the choice made by the countries that host them. Admittedly, this is a painful position, regrettable certainly, but do we have the choice?

This NAPA continues our series on the governance of protected areas in Africa. This month, we'll be discussing **the governance by the state**.

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Governance of protected areas in Africa – State governed Protected Areas

Directions 1 to 3 of the Road Map for African PAs



With the support of the French Agency for Development (Afd), the Papaco is conducting a series of studies on governance of protected areas in Africa. This NAPA presents a summary of the results for **state governance** (study conducted by UNEP-WCMC).

See the full report on
www.papaco.org

This study is part of a series of four studies on PA governance in Africa, one of which provides an overview of the different PA governance types that currently exist as well as their contribution to preserving biodiversity, and the others focusing on shared and private governance models (see *previous NAPA, 84, 85, 86 and next one, 88*).

This study on state PA governance is based on 13 case studies of state governed PAs from across 6 countries in Africa, as well as on information from the literature, the study identifies opportunities and limitations of the governance approach and provides recommendations on good practices for more efficient state governance in the future.

A brief historical overview

In state governance systems, one or more government bodies (e.g., ministry or PA agency reporting directly to the government, or a sub-national or municipal body) hold the authority, responsibility and accountability for managing the PA, determining its conservation and developing and enforcing its management plan (Borrini-Feyerabend et al., 2013). Today, this governance model is the most common one throughout sub-Saharan Africa: of those reported, 35.6% of all PAs are governed by the state (see Study 0).



The Dja natural reserve in Cameroon is a PA governed by the state.

The prevalence of state-governed PAs originates from Africa's colonial past as the first African PAs were created starting in the mid-1920s and 1930s when the power to govern these was firmly vested in the state. This marked the beginning of an era of nature conservation dominated by principles of strict separation of humans and nature, which excluded people from PAs and limited or forbid their rights for consumptive use (Adams and Hulme, 2001a).

When African countries started gaining their independence from the 1950s onwards, this top-down form of PA governance was inherited, which often meant that states further centralized control, including power over natural resources and land tenure rights, therefore contributing to the continued existence, expansion and creation of PAs that are under state governance (Büscher and Dietz, 2005; Roe et al., 2009; Ribot, 2002).

Despite international movements towards participatory resource management beginning in the 1980s, African states often retain the highest level of authority and hold greatest decision-making

powers. Central governments often hold the rights over the most lucrative resources, be it land or wildlife, in order to control the main channels of revenue generation. Many African states therefore maintain ultimate control of PA governance through shortfalls in decentralization policies and rights to natural resources, even when responsibilities and decision-making powers are meant to be shared or fully devolved to communities or other stakeholders (Murphree, 2009; Nelson and Agrawal, 2008; Ribot, 2002).

Some argue that, after a strong movement towards devolving control of natural resources, we are now seeing a reversion back to the protectionist model with greater enforcement, which relies more on state governance (Wilhusen et al., 2002; Roe et al., 2003; Büscher and Dietz, 2005; Büscher and Dressler, 2007). Although a switch back to protectionism is likely to be occurring in several instances, the movement towards devolving power to communities continues simultaneously, sometimes perhaps even within the same country. Furthermore, in addition to the push for community driven conservation, there are also significant areas of land with private governance of PAs, further diversifying the directions that governance has been taking across the continent.

Current status of state PAs

The following brief overviews of the current status of state PAs are taken from case studies from Tanzania, Namibia, Madagascar, the Gambia and the Republic of Congo. They are not exhaustive and do not represent a comprehensive review of the whole continent, but these cases provide a snapshot of where state PAs presently stand at a national level.

Tanzania

Tanzania has a complex PA network that includes National Parks, Game Reserves, Forest Reserves, Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs), Nature Reserves, Marine Parks and Marine Reserves. This network covers about 30% of its territorial area (terrestrial and marine) and the majority therein are administered and controlled directly by government institutions.

While the first Forest Reserves in the country were established in 1888, the first PA legislation enacted in Tanzania was the Game Ordinance No. 20 of 1940. The National Parks Ordinance was first enacted in 1951, and in 1959 a decision was made to have the excision of the Ngorongoro Conservation Area from the Serengeti NP and

create a new authority known as the Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority (NCAA) with its own legislation, known as the NCAA Act No. 413 of 1959. Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) became more common after the enactment of the Marine Parks and Reserves Act No. 29 of 1994. There are a number of other policies and laws in place that support each PA type, none of which are foreseen to undergo major institutional transformations in the near future that would affect the governance of state PAs.



The Serengeti, in Tanzania, is governed by the state

Namibia

Namibia's 21 state-run terrestrial PAs now cover around 147,763.37 km², or about 17%, of the country's land surface. All terrestrial PAs are managed by the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET), the existing marine park is managed by the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources and a State Forest Reserve in the north east of the country is managed by the Directorate of Forestry within the Ministry of Agriculture, Water, and Forestry.

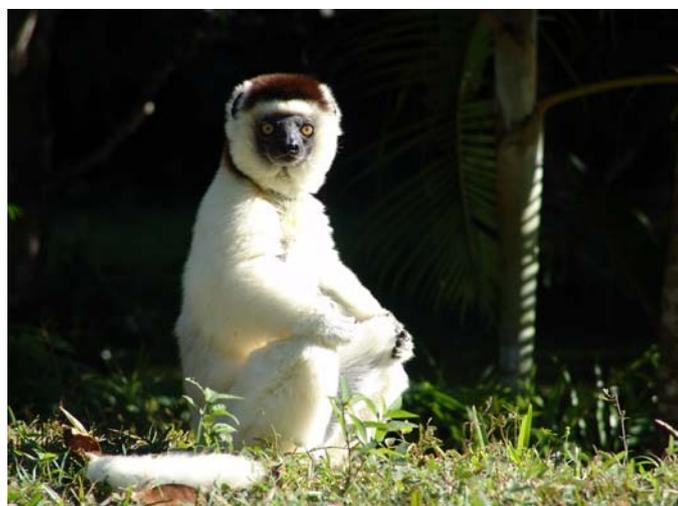
There has been some consolidation of state-run terrestrial PAs since Namibia's independence. The former Caprivi Game Reserve, for example, was re-proclaimed in 2007 as the Bwabwata National Park incorporating an important area of land that was previously un-proclaimed and with two designated core conservation areas and a multiple-use area. Namibia has also proclaimed one marine PA, the Namibian Islands' Marine Protected Area, which covers almost 10,000 km² of marine area.

The Nature Conservation Ordinance of 1975 is the main legislation governing the establishment of PAs in Namibia and the utilization of wildlife, and it sets out the procedure for establishing state-run PAs. The MET has prepared a Parks and Wildlife Bill that, when enacted by the National Assembly, will replace the outdated pre-independence Nature Conservation Ordinance of 1975, which remains the primary legislation governing parks and wildlife conservation in Namibia. It is expected that the new

legislation will make provisions for the recognition of the currently unregistered private game reserves and larger landscape conservation areas that link state-run PAs with neighboring conservation areas under different types of governance.

Madagascar

Madagascar has been undergoing a process of rapid evolution in PA governance for more than a decade. Prior to this, all PAs within the national network were governed by the state, initially by the Ministry of Waters and Forests until a parastatal association, ANGAP (*Association Nationale pour la Gestion des Aires Protégées* or National Association for Protected Area Management), was created in 1991 specifically to assume management responsibility. ANGAP was subsequently rebranded Madagascar National Parks (MNP). By 2003, this network consisted of 47 sites covering almost 1.7 million hectares, and comprising 'strict' PAs in IUCN categories Ia (Strict Nature Reserve), II (National Park) and IV (Special Reserve). Some sites were managed through 'direct control' by ANGAP, some were 'entrusted' to international NGOs such as WWF, and some were the object of joint management, e.g., with the European Union, UNESCO and Wildlife Conservation Society (Randrianandianina et al., 2003).



National parks (MNP's network) are an important tool for Lemurs conservation

At the fifth World Parks Congress in 2003, Madagascar launched its Durban Vision to triple PA coverage (Corson, 2014), precipitating the adoption of multiple-use categories (III, V and VI) and pluralistic governance models. Two major trends have subsequently developed: (i) the establishment of a new generation of multiple-use PAs, largely promoted by NGOs and administered in shared

governance structures involving local community associations and regional authorities; and (ii) the progressive transition of the original PA network from state governance to shared governance between MNP and local community representatives. The two sub-networks (hereafter MNP and non-MNP) together form the Madagascar Protected Area System, SAPM (*Système d'Aires Protégées de Madagascar*), which has the objectives of (i) conserving Madagascar's unique biodiversity, (ii) conserving the country's cultural heritage and (iii) promoting the sustainable use of natural resources for poverty alleviation and development (Commission SAPM, 2006).

SAPM is administered by the Biodiversity Conservation/Protected Area System Directorate (DBC/SAP) within the Ministry of Environment, Ecology and Forests (MEEF). This ministry retains ultimate responsibility for all PAs. However, DBC/SAP now mandates that *all PAs within SAPM must be administered by shared governance structures* (AGRECO, 2012; MNP, 2014). All PAs in Madagascar therefore officially fall within the shared governance category, although there remains great variation in the models implemented within the two sub-networks and across the range of sites (see Study 1 on shared governance and example of a privately PA in Study 3).

The Gambia

The establishment of PAs in the Gambia dates back to 1968 when the Abuko Nature Reserve was created as an important water catchment area providing a source of water to the capital, Banjul, and its surroundings settlements. The Government of The Gambia then developed legal and institutional frameworks necessary for the protection, conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity.

To date, a total of seven wildlife PAs and one community wildlife reserve have been established, covering a total of 48,969 ha, or 4.27% of the Gambia's total land surface (Camara, 2012). All state PAs are under the authority Department of Parks and Wildlife Management (DPWM). In addition to the PAs established by DPWM, other PAs exist under the Department of Forestry (DoF), but these Forest Parks/Reserves are not included in the current national estimate of 4.27% PA coverage as the exact coverage of these parks and reserves is still disputed. Many of the Forest Parks/Reserves on record at the DoF no longer exist or are completely degraded. The categorization of Forest Parks and Reserves does

not follow the IUCN system, but the 1998 Forest Act which classified forests into categories and subcategories.

The traditional top-down management approach involving the use of force to police PAs to achieve concrete conservation objectives is proving increasingly less effective. Furthermore, state agents, such as the DPWM, have weak institutional setups and inadequate human resources, both in terms of skills and numbers, and they have limited finances and logistics to fully execute their mandate. The government has therefore started devolving its management responsibility to local communities and civil society groups, including NGOs, as well as private individuals. There is also an ongoing review process of the Biodiversity/Wildlife policy 2001 and Act 2003 that seeks to transfer management roles and responsibility to local administrative authorities and local structures, as well as to adequately address emerging issues in biodiversity and PA management, including benefit sharing, access to genetic resources, business and private sector involvement and the growing pressure on the government for more inclusive PA management.

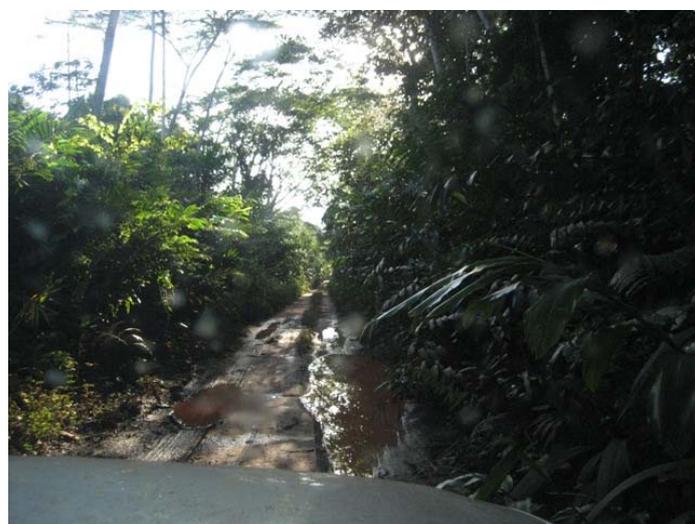
The Republic of Congo

The area under conservation in the Republic of Congo now comes to 41,051.989 km², representing over 12% of the country's land surface. This is expected to increase thanks to the momentum established with the creation of new PAs by the government and the creation of the ACFAP (Congolese Agency for Wildlife and Protected Areas). Nine PAs are currently under state governance.

PAs are managed by Conservators appointed by decree of the Council of Ministers (Article 14 of Law 003/91 of 23 April 1991). In 2000, the Republic of the Congo began a far-reaching reform of the legal and institutional framework of the environment and forest sectors. In this process, the forest code and subsequent texts were revised several times, as was the law on wildlife and PAs, while the institutional framework is currently undergoing modification (ACFAP Five Year Action Plan–2011–MDDEFE (Ministry for Sustainable Development, Forest Economy and the Environment/ACFAP)). The plan, which is part of the framework for the implementation of the society-wide program 'The Future Path' (*Le chemin d'Avenir*) announced by the President of the Republic, is based on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the National Program to Reduce Poverty, and the three

pillars of sustainable development. It aims to enhance the contribution made by the wildlife and PA sector to the development of the country.

A new law on wildlife provides that PAs are placed under state control whatever their status. Where this is not the case, the establishing legislation indicates the public or private entity that takes on this responsibility. Unfortunately, the drafting of this article is ambiguous and opens the way to different interpretations. One reading of this article could suggest that some private or community areas could elude the administrative supervision of the state, but this would amount to contradicting the provisions of both the constitution and the law, which clearly state that natural resources form part of the national heritage.



Strengths and weaknesses of state PAs

To highlight key strengths and weaknesses that are illustrated by the case studies and are discussed in the literature, this section draws on the IUCN framework of principles of good governance for PAs developed by Borrini-Feyerabend et al. (2013).

Legitimacy and voice

Legitimacy: The case studies consistently highlight that having constitutional status is a key strength of PAs governed by the state. This status gives PAs legal legitimacy, both nationally and internationally, which protects PAs from easily being de-proclaimed or de-gazetted in times of contestation. Being under centralized control, state-governed PAs therefore also fall under common policies and legislation pertaining to biodiversity conservation and share national priorities, in comparison to privately protected areas (PPAs), for example, which can be isolated from overall national conservation objectives and are governed according to the priorities of individual landowners.

Stakeholder involvement: While enjoying a high level of national authority, legitimacy *vis-à-vis* the law and centralized decision-making powers that can even extend across borders or into the maritime realm are important characteristics of state governance. However, the lack of stakeholder involvement therein has been highlighted as a severe constraint in both the case studies and the literature. The case study examples consistently point to limited or insufficient involvement of all stakeholders, in particular local communities, in setting park objectives and strategic direction as well as in planning, management, monitoring or enforcement of the PA. This leads to resentment by local stakeholders who feel they have no voice.

Empowerment: As has been widely discussed in the literature, excluding local communities from the PA, both in terms of access and decision-making involvement, can have adverse effects on the effectiveness of the PA (e.g., Kothari, 2008; Sowman et al., 2011). Furthermore, it has been shown that empowering local communities and incorporating local and traditional institutions into conservation efforts can lead to successful, sustainable protection of biodiversity while also improving local livelihoods (e.g., Treue et al., 2014; Persha et al., 2011; Waylen et al., 2010; Matose and Watts, 2010; Torquebiau and Taylor, 2009). Denying local communities and other stakeholders meaningful influence and participation in PA planning can therefore have detrimental effects on state-run PAs. This can be seen across many of the case study examples as the majority of these state PAs face increasing illegal use of natural resources and boundary disputes. Furthermore, most of the PAs lack the financial means to effectively manage the park, let alone provide communities with adequate compensation for their restricted access and use of the PA, thereby losing an alternative method of appeasement. By not empowering local stakeholders, many state PAs therefore lack the necessary social acceptance and appreciation and lose out on valuable opportunities to more effectively conserve biodiversity.

Logistical support processes: While in theory, state governed PAs should have adequate and stable funding as they are controlled by the government and are integrated into national policies and legislation, this often does not translate into practice. Therefore, as became clear through some of the case studies, governments sometimes lack the resources to carry out adequate stakeholder consultations, especially with communities. Alternatively, in cases where advisory committees

have been established in order to allow for stakeholder representatives to contribute the voice for their communities to the running of the PA, these representatives can lack the necessary skills to perform their function and the structures in place might not function as intended in addition to often being ill-planned. Such logistical constraints can therefore also have an impact on the process of informing, involving and actively engaging a diverse range of representative stakeholders.

Direction

Policy direction and values: Being anchored in national biodiversity legislation, state PAs tend to have a clearly articulated vision and objectives. Many of the state-run PAs from the case studies do have a strategic vision with a clear understanding of their top-down governance structure, rules of what is and is not permitted in the PA and clear policy guidelines for addressing contentious issues. These visions, however, have most often neither been based on values agreed by a representative group of local stakeholders, nor have a clearly articulated management direction that stakeholders understand and support. Even if stakeholders have provided input to the original strategic vision, as decisions are made in a top-down manner, changes in direction and management are often made through a board, for example, and these are not necessarily in line with what was agreed with other stakeholders.



Coherence between values and practice: Although high-level objectives and directions are in place, these often do not translate into practice. As seen from the case studies, some PAs have not even developed a management plan, which is necessary to outline management direction and operational systems. As is also highlighted in the literature, many such 'paper parks' exist, often due to

insufficient budgets to enable proper protection, in particular in West and Central Africa where much enforcement is required due to high levels of bushmeat hunting (Jachmann, 2008; Western, 2003). Most of the case studies do indeed flag insufficient operational budgets as a major obstacle, leading to poor management of even basic management practices. Where financial resources have not been flagged as a major hindrance, such as in the case of Mudumu NP in Namibia, successful management arrangements that are in line with the overall strategic vision have been established, even in complex landscapes, involving effective co-management with conservancies and other local stakeholders.

Performance

Conservation outcomes: Compared to the other types of governance, PAs under state governance often tend to cover larger pockets of land, which have the ability to safeguard greater amounts of species and maintain intact habitats as well as maintain ecosystem services (Ladle et al., 2011). The case studies provide further examples supporting this trend: several PAs are reported to, in the very least, have achieved conservation success in terms of maintaining the integrity of a large habitat in a landscape of increasing poaching, fishing and land encroachment. Although the use of natural resources and illegal activities continue to some extent, levels have been observed to be lower inside PAs than outside. Dynamite fishing, for example, which is widely used along the coasts of Tanzania, is now very seldom seen in the Mafia MPA. The maintenance of large mammal populations within the Mudumu NP has also been reported as a success.

Enforcement: PAs with few resources, weak stakeholder involvement and low community support, however, have not been able to effectively conserve biodiversity. Instead, these PAs report 'rampant' conflicts over illegal harvesting and access to resources or 'uncontrolled' illegal hunting, fishing and timber harvesting. Where some form of enforcement exists, PA management relies on daily patrols, arrests and prosecution in order to protect resources. These issues are echoed in the literature as countless PAs have inadequate staff numbers, poor pay, and lack of equipment, making the management of parks and enforcement of restrictions unfeasible (Bauer, 2003; Lindsey et al., 2013; Langholz and Krug, 2004; Nelson, 2010).



The state is in charge of law enforcement

Management effectiveness: Some of the case studies (particularly from Namibia) demonstrate that state PAs can have sufficient management capacity to act adaptively in complex situations with positive conservation outcomes. These PAs have also undergone management effectiveness assessments in order to track progress. Most other PAs, however, report lacking management information, no systems for recording and monitoring ecological or social data, a lack of reliable, recent inventories, etc. In addition to the absence of information needed to track management effectiveness, there are often insufficient numbers of staff and many are untrained and lack the skills to undertake effective monitoring.

Accountability

Transparency, access to information and resource allocation: Being administered by the government, state PAs have great potential to be run transparently and accountably by using existing legislation and mechanisms. In Tanzania, for example, PA revenues are audited and finances are reported as part of the head office's accounting systems, which are overseen by an elected board. Revenues from tourist visitations can also be paid directly into government treasuries in order to ensure that all revenues go towards the PA. Ideally, tourism revenues are shared transparently with villages through formal agreements that are made known to community members. However, as is also noted in the literature (Nelson, 2010), high levels of corruption and informality can impede such transparency. Some case studies have also reported government staff not representing the state in a neutral manner, often favoring personal interests. Furthermore, little information is shared about PA income and management decisions, and local communities frequently do not have autonomy over how revenue is used. In some cases,

information on income, performance and management is kept entirely confidential.

Fairness and rights

Respect of rights: From the case studies, most PAs are reported to grant local communities and/or traditional rightsholders the rights to land or to use at least some natural resources within the PA. This can range from having access to certain key resources, such as deadwood, fruit, wild honey or mushrooms, to being given priority access to marine resources and fisheries. Whether or not such rights are deemed as sufficient by communities is difficult to evaluate in this study, but in the case of the Hai||om San in Etosha National Park in Namibia, for example, people felt they had not been consulted properly about the plans to resettle them outside the park and have refused to move while other groups have been resettled. The resettled area is not well serviced by the government and some of those resettled are reported to have therefore moved back to the park. It is likely that many communities have suffered to some extent from the creation of a PA considering that, in sub-Saharan Africa, it has been estimated that the creation of over 85% of all PAs led to state appropriation of local community or customary tribal land (Lockwood, 2010).

Equitable distribution of costs and benefits: Various methods have been highlighted in the case studies to provide communities with benefits generated by PAs, most notably through tourism revenues and concessions. In the case of conservancies, benefits can also be derived through wildlife resources or schemes to offset livestock losses. In Etosha NP in Namibia, for example, although neighboring populations are not directly involved in PA management decisions, the park management has worked diligently to foster good relationships with the communities in different ways: neighboring communal conservancies derive income from tourism and hunting on their land and any wildlife that leaves the PA is considered a shared resource with the conservancies. As a result, the PA is not under threat by local communities and is reported to be delivering conservation success. In the majority of case study examples, however, it was reported that no mechanisms were in place with which to assess and account for how costs and benefits of the PA were distributed. Notably, the percentage of revenues shared with the communities might not always be considered fair. While state PAs have been reported to be able to provide benefits to neighboring communities (Ezebilo and Mattsson, 2010), such situations do

not appear to be representative of state governance overall, and state PAs are more often criticized in the literature for not doing so, and even for imposing substantial costs on local communities (Cernea and Schmidt-Soltau, 2006; Brockington and Igoe, 2006; Nelson and Agrawal, 2008).



Recommendations for good practices and conditions for success

As Jones (2014) noted in his case study report from Namibia:

Intrinsically there is nothing wrong with state governance of a PA – provided the necessary steps have been taken to ensure societal legitimacy for the national PA system and government involves local stakeholders at an appropriate level in securing local legitimacy for individual parks. But what is an appropriate level of local stakeholder involvement necessary will depend on the context of individual parks. It is also difficult to separate the governance type from other variables. For example, the effectiveness of State governance will depend on the political will and ability of governments to allocate resources to park management.

State governance in sub-Saharan Africa does indeed have the potential to achieve effective biodiversity conservation, and it is certainly already contributing to the protection of species and their habitats. As the literature and case studies demonstrate, however, this governance type will need to undergo a number of changes before it can do so more consistently and with greater impacts. State governance will need to become more inclusive, not only to gain more societal legitimacy, become more equitable and reduce conflict, but

also to maximize resources, capacities and skills. Greater transparency and accountability will also be needed, both in financial as well as operational terms. Some of the PAs discussed in the case studies provide examples of mechanisms that can be used to make such progress. The following recommendations outline the general direction in which state governance should be headed, keeping in mind that every PA and PA network needs to be considered within its specific political, economic, social and cultural context.

Financial security and accountability:

As an ongoing process, governments need secure sufficient funding for their PA network in order for PAs to be equipped with levels of financial and human resources that can support the governance processes needed to ensure successful conservation outcomes.

In order to contribute to building greater financial security, governments can:

- Work towards fostering greater political will at a national level to support biodiversity conservation through PAs and encourage increased allocation of funds to this purpose.
- Introduce appropriate, strong regulations for payment of environmental services and the collection thereof, such as water protection charges, in order to generate additional revenues, some of which should go directly to local communities.
- Transfer more responsibilities to local government authorities that can share costs and ensure the necessary human and financial resources are allocated to PAs.
- Devolve management responsibilities to other entities, such as NGOs or local communities, to avoid high transaction costs often incurred through slow and bureaucratic top-down decision making. By entering co-management agreements with other entities or local communities the pool of skills and resources can also be enlarged.

In order to create greater financial accountability and transparency within the PA network, governments should also:

- Ensure that financial resources are managed transparently and are accounted for through various, possibly already existing, financial mechanisms and legislation. Efficient and accountable financial management should also allow for more resources to reach PAs.
- Establish multi-stakeholder committees in which to discuss the potential for PA revenue

generation, decide on a revenue management system and determine appropriate amounts to be shared with local communities and other stakeholders through their consultation. The results should be communicated widely to the local population and simple systems should be in place to allow oversight and access to funds.

- Allocate a percentage of the PA revenue shared with villages to annual auditing, and the results of such audits should be made available to village councils and, ideally, to villagers.

Stakeholder involvement/representation:

Having good stakeholder relations is key to effective governance of all PAs. State PAs should therefore:

- Engage in early and meaningful stakeholder consultations, in particular of neighboring communities, during the design and planning phase of a PA, or as soon as possible if the PA has already been established and stakeholder consultation has been low. Such involvement should increase the extent to which communities feel that the PA is legitimate as a contributing part of their landscape as they would have been given an opportunity to voice their concerns, values and ideas for the future.
 - To aid in this process, existing tools and guidelines could be followed, such as was the case in the establishment the Namibian Islands' Marine Protected Area, which underwent a rigorous process of stakeholder consultation that was conducted according to World Bank guidelines, meeting with relevant sectors, users and their representatives from the area. The outputs, negotiations, agreements and compromises from this process were subsequently included and incorporated into the proclamation and zonation process of the Marine Park.
 - Broader social assessments and socio-economic studies should also be carried out to complement more targeted stakeholder consultations in order to gain a better understanding of the current situation, needs and views of the wider population taking into account social stratification.
- Devise PA management plans that include meaningful stakeholder input. These plans should also establish management bodies, such as advisory committees, with stakeholder representatives. Such

committees would not act as decision-making bodies but members should be allowed to make meaningful contributions. Committees should also have well understood and established reporting criteria, covering a wide range of issues from how the committee is run to how it communicates its processes and decisions or how benefits are distributed, to ensuring transparency and accountability. Furthermore, regular meetings should take place. PAs need to ensure that the costs of creating and maintaining committees are manageable and should adapt their structure to what is feasible within the PA budget, keeping in mind the tradeoff between the utility and sustainability of committees.

- Ideally, committee members should be provided with continuous training, including on their roles and responsibilities, and the represented communities should receive information and training on how to elect and monitor their representatives in an informed manner. In cases where communities have pre-existing systems for selecting representatives, these should be used.
- In large PAs, or where many different types of stakeholders are involved, the PA should establish geographically based advisory committees to provide forums in which to discuss issues affecting them.



To further aid in creating meaningful consultations with relevant stakeholders, capturing and integrating their concerns and needs into PA planning and management, state PAs can also:

- In consultation with communities, establish a multi-stakeholder task force to address land claims through formal agreements, as well as appropriate zoning plans that recognize

current and future needs of local communities in the management plan.

- Create forums in which contentious issues (e.g., displacement, tourism or zoning) can be discussed and resolved between relevant stakeholders in a safe environment.
- When possible, integrate local communities directly in management activities, such as monitoring, effectiveness assessments, tourism management, law enforcement, etc.

Fairness and rights:

Closely linked to the need for state PAs to sufficiently engage with other stakeholders affected by the PA is the need to consider issues related to fairness and rights:

- Rights to land, resources and wildlife play a critical role in determining the way in which conservation takes place in practice. In state PAs, these rights are typically held by the government. In order to achieve more equitable governance, however, PAs should consult with communities affected by the PA in order to determine the appropriate rights and/or benefits that should be given to local stakeholders and to ensure that these commensurate with their responsibilities and/or costs.
- Once decisions on rights and/or benefits and costs have been agreed by the affected stakeholders, PAs should establish mechanisms with which to assess and account for how such costs and benefits are distributed. These should include widely disseminating relevant information to local populations and allowing for their input.
- Systems should also be in place that allow stakeholders to address disputes over fairness and rights issues, including human rights violations, in a proactive manner and such should be a prominent part of PA management and reporting. In this context, neighboring communities should be assisted in organizing and representing themselves to the PA.

Improved management planning and decision making:

- Governments should allow for more PA management responsibilities to be transferred to local authorities and/or communities. Better integrating PA responsibilities into local structures can help distribute costs, as well as increase the human resources and skills available.

- Governments need to ensure that PAs are provided with a sufficient budget and technical expertise to support the development of a management plan, daily management activities, as well as capacity building for both PA staff and local stakeholders involved in management. It is crucial to ensure that the necessary skills and processes are developed and put into practice to allow for management issues to be addressed effectively.
- Management plans need be drawn up in consultation with other stakeholders. These plans should contain financial plans, specify roles and responsibilities, include monitoring and evaluation components, and set out a plan of work to be implemented annually. Dates should be set for management plans to be reviewed, with the involvement of all relevant stakeholders. Furthermore, management plans should be accompanied by a business plan, such as – when feasible – developing tourism in the park with the involvement of local communities. The latter should be employed for such activities, not only to provide more income and/or compensation to communities, but also to give them a renewed link to the land and a stake in the success of the PA.
- Governments should allow for management decisions to be made quickly, without needing to pass through too many bureaucratic processes. Accompanied by improved and more frequent biodiversity monitoring and management effectiveness assessments to demonstrate conservation success, swifter decision making would allow for PAs to respond to new challenges and adapt management strategies. Changes in management should be discussed with affected stakeholders and can be accompanied by social assessments to gain a better understanding of their appropriateness in the wider socio-economic landscape.



JOB ADVERT

The Zoological Society of London (ZSL), a charity founded in 1826, is a world-

renowned centre of excellence for conservation science and applied conservation. ZSL's mission is to promote and achieve the worldwide conservation of animals and their habitats. This is realised by carrying out field conservation and research in over 50 countries across the globe and through education and awareness-raising at our two zoos, ZSL London Zoo and ZSL Whipsnade Zoo, inspiring people to take conservation action.

ZSL is currently opening the following positions:

- Deputy Country Manager (Indonesia)
- EDGE Programme Manager and EDGE Voluntary Intern Opportunities: Species Report Cards and Research
- Conservation for Communities Social Marketing Officer
- Net-Works Philippines M&E Officer
- Project Development Manager Conservation Programmes (London)

Applicants should send their completed Equality of Opportunity Monitoring Form, CV, and a covering letter detailing relevant experience and skills and stating why they want the position, by email to ZSL's HR Department (hr@zsl.org).

More info on www.zsl.org – deadline varies upon positions.

See the full report on
www.papaco.org

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Program on African Protected Areas & Conservation
PAPACO - Program Officer – Green List

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