What is the enemy?

When you ask a protected area manager about the origin of his daily problems, the answers are always the same. If he manages a territory nearing a border, his neighbors are definitely responsible for his misfortunes. Should he be surrounded by communities, they keep making his life particularly difficult. If his park is funded by the state, he does not get enough money. Should he happen to be funded by a donor, procedures are too complex. If he works for the private sector, the legal framework is unfavorable and the civil servants responsible for implementing it are ineffective and unresponsive. If he manages a community-based reserve, he is misunderstood and probably victim of the system. In short, there is always a good - and external - reason to explain why nothing works.

In ten years of assessments of parks and reserves, I have never heard a single manager mentioning corruption as a key issue for the management of his park. Officially let’s say. But I’ve often heard the partners of this protected area denounce this situation, as soon as we were face to face.

So is corruption an issue for the management of protected areas? My personal answer is yes. Is it a major problem? I would say yes again.

Corruption, curiously, has many definitions depending on who defines it, as if there was already a problem in calling things by their name. We can say, simply put, that corruption is the diversion of a procedure for the purpose, on behalf of the briber, to obtain particular advantages or for the bribed, to obtain compensation in exchange for his “kindness”. It does not only concern the public sector as we like to believe, but is also frequent in the private sector or amongst NGOs.

All levels are affected. The guard of a reserve who condones poaching because he receives his share. The villager who helps the smuggler to track ivory on his land. The hunting guide who lets local VIPs hunt over the quota to ensure their benevolence. The tourist guide who allows tourists to enter a banned site in exchange for a tip. The patrol leader who focuses his research where he will not find the offenders with whom he made a pact. The village chief who allocates game quota based on promises he received for himself. The researcher who gives an author position to a local facilitator just because he “opens the doors”. The park warden who issues permits to harvest depending on what he gets in return. The project manager who gives up all his goals to keep his job. The donor who does the same. The auditor who can disappoint neither one nor the other without risking to stop performing audits altogether. The national parks director who sells animals from the parks without a just compensation. The minister who says that the timber traffic is now throttled while benefitting from every quintal loaded nearby. The President who swears that no mining permit will be awarded in the parks while he has just signed one and already dreams of the new house he will build thanks to it. The ambassador who, although informed of what is taking place, incenses this President at every reception he organizes in order to keep his position. The NGO, equally informed, who invites
the same President to each and every Congress because he will help to get funding. Etc.

Corruption is the fog that we refuse to see because it is everywhere and has thus become almost normal. With time, we persuaded ourselves that poverty justifies it, that it is benign, and ultimately inevitable. Whatever the means, the end justifies everything and one who succeeds, even at the expense of others, attracts attention and arouses respect. This is a perversion of the scale of values that opens all fields of possible. Corruption is so alive that it now has its own UN convention (which became effective in 2005) and even an International Day (December 9)! Tacitus said: "the more the state is corrupt, the more laws it develops" ... this should make us think about the rationale of such texts if attitudes do not change profoundly.

Let's not fool ourselves: corruption explains today most of our failures in protected areas. I would say 80% but I may be wrong. The real ratio is probably higher!

The mention of corruption appears 16 times in the document we present some extracts of in this NAPA. This document proposes a strategy for EU investment in the conservation sector, in Africa. This is an important issue and I invite you to read it in full. It could serve as the backbone for many donors' intervention in the future: this would avoid the dispersion or competition of means and money, which also make the path for corruption.

First article of the Convention
The purposes of this Convention are:

a) To promote and strengthen measures to prevent and combat corruption more efficiently and effectively;
b) To promote, facilitate and support international cooperation and technical assistance in the prevention of and fight against corruption, including in asset recovery;
c) To promote integrity, accountability and proper management of public affairs and public property.

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University Diploma on Protected Areas management (n°12)

The 12th edition of our University Diploma (a 8 week training course) has started on the 18th of April in Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso). It gathers 20 students coming from 7 countries (Burkina Faso, Ivory Coast, Niger, Guinea, Togo, Benin, Mali) and will combine 7 weeks in class and 1 weeks in a PA to apply the knowledge and lessons learnt on management and governance of PA in Africa.

This training course is funded by the MAVA foundation, with also the support of the BIOPAMA project (EU).
LARGER THAN ELEPHANTS - Inputs for a European Union strategic approach to wildlife conservation in Africa

European Commission
General Directorate for international development and cooperation
1049 Brussels - BELGIUM

PART 1
Directions 1 to 8 of the Road Map for African PA

Nb: this NAPA exposes a few extracts from the synthesis document produced in 2015 by the European Commission in order to plan a strategy for nature conservation in Africa. The original document is more than 100 pages and you may refer to it should you wish to enter into details. There are 4 different documents that have also been produced, one per region: West Africa, Central Africa, East Africa and Southern Africa.

This NAPA presents the first part of the synthesis (context, challenges, drivers...) whilst the next NAPA (in June, issue n°98) will present some of the proposed solutions.

The synthesis document is online on www.papaco.org. The regional documents can be downloaded on the B4life website (UE) on http://capacity4dev.ec.europa.eu/b4life

A – Global context

1 – Africa: iconic wildlife continent

In Africa we find vast wild landscapes of forests, savannahs, mountains, wetlands, coasts and deserts with a dazzling range of animals from okapi to penguins. This is the home of the ‘big five’ – elephant, rhino, buffalo, lion and leopard – that are so attractive to safari tourists. Africa is the cradle of mankind, origin of our species and ape ancestors. Africa retains the last great migrations of mega-fauna, literally millions of antelopes trailing over great savannahs between seasonal feeding areas.

It is also the wintering home of many millions of migratory birds, many coming from their breeding grounds in Europe. The continent is home to many thousands of additional wildlife species, which also show a high level of continental endemism as a result of Africa’s long geological history of isolation. The island of Madagascar constitutes a unique mini-continent with its own strange fauna of lemurs and unrivalled levels of endemism in most taxa. The rivers and lakes of Africa contain thousands of unique fish species including the endemic cichlids so familiar in aquaria or on the dining table as tilapia. The Congo basin alone contains an estimated 1 250 fish species. Africa contains three of the world’s 17 ‘Megadiversity’ countries – Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), South Africa and Madagascar.

2 - Prioritisation approaches

Many approaches have been developed to assess and prioritise the biological importance of different areas in Africa with respect to different criteria, including diversity, endemism, endangered species, wilderness areas, etc. All have their merits but no single approach comprehensively covers all aspects. They include the Worldwide Fund for Nature’s (WWF) global 200 selection of the most important eco-regions, Conservation International’s Megadiversity approach for areas with the greatest overall biodiversity, or its Hotspot approach for areas combining high levels of biological importance with high levels of threat, the Critical Ecosystems Partnership Fund’s Ecosystem Profiling for hotspots, specific efforts to identify sites of plant importance, bird importance or other taxa and the interesting approach of global irreplaceability.

Reference was made to all these approaches during the present work and the areas identified do cover all the major ecosystems and consistently rate them as being of high importance for most taxa.
3 – Population growth

The population growth in Africa is a factor that needs to be carefully considered when planning conservation for the future.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>2013 (millions)</th>
<th>2050 (millions)</th>
<th>2100 (millions)</th>
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<td>Angola</td>
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<td>Namibia</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>313</strong></td>
<td><strong>714</strong></td>
<td><strong>1208</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The data reflects the median projection for the year 2013. Further projections are intended to monitor the trend of population growth.
B – Somme challenges presented in the EU document

1 – Loss of species
Red Data Lists and specialist reports continue to document a depressing catalogue of species losses and severe declines across Africa.

- African elephants have declined from 5 -10 million in the 1930s to a mere 500 000 today. They still occur in 35-38 range states but poaching for ivory has re-emerged as a serious threat. It is estimated that 35 000 elephants were poached in 2013. Most seriously threatened is the forest elephant *Loxodonta africana cyclotis* which lost 62 % of its population between 2002 and 2012.

- The Southern white rhino was rescued by conservation action from the brink of extinction and now numbers about 20 000 but its northern race is feared to have gone extinct in its original habitat and the three races of black rhino have all crashed to a total of a mere 4 000 animals.

- Africa has lost between 30 % and 50 % of its lions over the past two decades and may now number as few as 32 000 animals. The situation is especially desperate in West Africa. A recent six-year survey showed that from a known occurrence in 21 protected areas in 2005, lions are now confirmed in only four sites, roaming in just 1.1 % of their historic range in West Africa and are extinct in all of their former range in Northern Africa.
The great apes are becoming increasingly endangered by the bushmeat trade, deforestation, the pet trade and human diseases. All are endangered and survival is realistic in only a few key localities of West and Central Africa.

Many other iconic mammals are listed as regionally or globally endangered, including such familiar animals as cheetah, hippo, giraffe, large antelope, anteaters, etc.

One-tenth of African birds are listed as globally threatened. Of 119 Afro-Palaearctic long-distance migrant species (those breeding in Europe and wintering in sub-Saharan Africa), 48 (40 %) show marked declines in population. Vultures are especially threatened: they are killed as a result of carcasses being poisoned to eliminate carnivores, poisoned by eating the veterinary drug diclofenac in carcasses of domestic cattle, and killed so as not to attract attention to evidence of poaching.

African amphibians are becoming threatened as a result of the spread of diseases and moist habitats becoming drier.

Africa’s rich diversity of freshwater fish is second only to that of South America and almost totally endemic. These species are vital for the functioning of freshwater ecosystems and are of huge economic importance. Many millions of people rely on freshwater fish for food and income, and many species of perch and tilapia have become globally important commercial species. Twenty-eight per cent of Africa’s freshwater fish species are listed as endangered. The main causes are shrinkage of lakes, pollution of waterways, invasive plants such as water hyacinth, overfishing and the introduction of alien fish species.

The Species Survival Commission (SSC) of the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) publishes global red lists of threatened species rated as critical (CR), endangered (EN), vulnerable (V) and least concern (LC), and encourage national efforts to make more detailed national red lists. Africa lists a high percentage of threatened species in most taxa and each revision or update adds ever more species to these lists. Already several significant animals have become extinct: quagga, bluebuck, western black rhino, etc. Other species have become extinct over a large proportion of their range.

Africa is failing to meet Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and global targets under implementation of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) to reduce and reverse such trends of biodiversity loss. There is evidence of some regional variation in the pattern of species loss. When indices for population abundance of 69 species of large mammal within 78 protected areas over a 35-year period are compared, the results show the sharpest losses in West (and Central) Africa, and a slight rise in Southern Africa where species losses in the previous centuries had been highest.

2 - Illegal wildlife trafficking
Criminal organisations in ivory and rhino horn trafficking undermine security and good governance and hence effective conservation. Whilst elephant populations in Southern Africa appear stable, populations in the rest of Africa are declining dramatically, especially the forest elephant L. a. cyclotis. Rhinos are being exterminated, even in the well-protected reserves of Southern Africa such as Kruger. Secondary species may be affected because poachers spread poison around kills to destroy the telltale flocks of vultures. Trafficking is also endangering numerous, less profiled species such as apes (West and Central Africa), other primates (all regions), reptiles (especially Madagascar), pangolins (humid regions), parrots (West and Central Africa), valuable timbers (West and Central Africa and Madagascar – rosewood), orchids (humid regions) and abalone (marine regions).

3 - Alien invasive species
Alien invasive species are a serious and increasing problem in all regions of Africa. The opening up of forests, changing climate and deliberate introductions have resulted in growing lists of species that replace native flora and fauna and negatively impact ecology. Introduced pines, Australian acacias, eucalypts, waterweeds, fish, insects, molluscs, and some birds and mammals are the main culprits.
Some of the drivers of the threats that are identified in the EU document

1 - Population growth and poverty
Population growth and increasing poverty levels are inextricably linked in most of Africa. Although human population density across the Congo basin and in Namibia is low compared to other regions of Africa, overall rates of population growth are the highest on the planet and the population of Africa is expected to double by 2050 (see previous table).

How Africa will feed this expected enlarged population presents a major challenge but the current agriculture in many countries of the continent is very inefficient, undeveloped and can be enormously improved. Extreme poverty in rural areas leads to overexploitation of natural resources because rural populations cannot take a long-term view of resource use. The burgeoning human population also leads to increasing levels of human-wildlife conflict resulting in loss of wildlife.

2 - Poor governance
Poor governance is the overriding issue in West, Central and Eastern Africa and includes a suite of related failures: weak legislation and enforcement; dysfunctional health, education, justice and extension services; poor communications; poor planning; low hygiene; inefficient agriculture; misuse of natural resources and pollution of water resources; corruption and poverty. Also included is the phenomenon of ‘land grabbing’ where, for example, multinational agro-alimentary interests (e.g. oil palm) acquire huge surface areas of land without due process in terms of land-use planning, environmental assessments and transparency of attribution. The mining, logging and pharmaceutical sectors have also been known to be involved in this practice.

3 - Inadequate land tenure and local resource rights
The issue of land tenure and the alienation of rural populations from their wildlife heritage is a key driver of threats to wildlife. Over much of Africa the state is the owner of the land and its wildlife, and existing legal and policy frameworks give little incentive for rural people to protect and sustainably manage the wildlife that they share the land with. This leads to a situation of ‘tragedy of the commons’ where open access to the natural resources causes severe impoverishment, and even disappearance, of species and habitats.

4 - National and regional conflict
Conflict has overwhelmed many countries of Africa and is especially significant in the Central African region. Many of these conflicts can in fact be described as natural resource conflicts. Conflict and poor governance feed off each other and result in loss of wildlife.

5 - Political indifference and lack of awareness
A low level of knowledge of and appreciation of wildlife issues, lack of recognition of the vital ecological services delivered by healthy ecosystems and poor ecological understanding of the impacts of human activities and developments on those ecosystems are rife at all levels. Lack of awareness among the EU’s population and leaders, African communities, planners, developers and leaders, and Asian consumers all contribute to unsustainable exploitation and inadequate protection of African wildlife and ecosystems. When denied rights to use wildlife sustainably, local communities see wildlife only as a dangerous threat to life, crops and property or a competition to human development.

6 - Climate change
Climate change is a threat to both global and local causes. The Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
(IPCC) reconfirmed that the human influence on the climate system is clear. Desertification is driven by overgrazing, cutting and burning of vegetation and misusing water resources. Opening up forests reduces the rates of transpiration that is re-deposited as secondary rainfall, often hundreds of miles away. Rising sea levels threaten beaches and coral reefs, which are also under pressure from increasing water temperatures and ocean acidification.

Experts are, in particular, alerted about the speed of ocean acidification which is happening faster than ever. Rising temperatures are causing African glaciers to melt and are changing vegetation zones in the Afromontane regions. The wetlands of Northern and Western Africa are drying up. Droughts have profound impacts on vegetation, wildlife and humanity. Changes in a variety of African ecosystems are already being detected from changes in breeding seasons to alterations in migratory, feeding and nesting patterns. Climate change impacts on Africa’s ecosystems will probably have a negative effect on tourism as, according to one study, between 25 and 40 % of mammal species in national parks in sub-Saharan Africa will become endangered. Some botanists expect significant species losses of between 25 and 68 %, dependent on the severity of mean temperature change.

These dynamics need to be factored into conservation approaches and investments in the design and management of protected areas, and species conservation should be planned with climate change predictions in mind. In particular, climate change should be seen as a further impetus for conservation actions outlined throughout this document, including the need to expand the protected areas and improve the representative coverage of biomes, enhance management of the given protected area estate, ensure connectivity between habitats, restore ecosystem functions and reduce other pressures on biodiversity.

7 - Endemic and emerging diseases
Endemic diseases affect conservation in two main ways. Malaria (spread by mosquitoes), river blindness, sleeping sickness and nagana (both spread by tsetse flies), elephantiasis and rinderpest all served as natural defences in maintaining large areas of Africa as wild and undeveloped. The eradication of rinderpest and a better control of other diseases has opened up these regions for human occupation and development. Meanwhile, some diseases that were stable in wildlife populations, but now given close access to human populations, have been able to make a host species jump to become serious human zoonoses, such as HIV and Ebola. Resulting epidemics create population movements and breakdown of local economies, social services and wildlife protection. Chytrid disease, now found on every continent, has wiped out a number of amphibian species. It kills amphibians by blocking the transfer of vital substances through their skins, eventually causing cardiac arrest. The disease originated in Southern Africa and was probably spread by the pet trade or the export of clawed frogs used in pregnancy testing.

8 - Human-wildlife conflict
When humans and wildlife share the same landscapes and resources human-wildlife conflict (HWC) often occurs, resulting in negative impacts not only on wildlife populations but also on human social, economic and cultural life. The underlying causes are attributed to land-use changes and high human population growth. The negative impact of HWC on local communities has become an increasingly important issue to governmental authorities at all levels, especially when the situation is exacerbated by media reporting on the negative perceptions of the general public towards those species that cause the most conflicts. For local rural communities, human-wildlife interaction often evokes loss and fear, with disruption to livelihoods and food insecurity, which in turn undermine conservation and HWC mitigation strategies.

Human-wildlife interactions have been detrimental to wild mammals; many species have been reduced in number due to hunting, pastoralism, habitat modification, disease control or problem animal control. For a charismatic species like the
elephant, a positive correlation has been established between the level of conflict and illegal killing. Human-elephant conflict has become a priority objective of elephant management at many sites for the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Flora and Fauna (CITES).

The human health / wildlife health / livestock health nexus is a particularly important issue arising from humans and wildlife sharing the same landscapes. In Southern Africa, nature-based tourism, which seeks to maximise returns from marginal lands, contributes as much to the gross domestic product of Southern Africa as agriculture, forestry and fisheries combined.

However agro-pastoralists sharing the land depend greatly on livestock for their livelihoods, and the need to balance their livelihoods and environmental security with the development of alternative land uses and opportunities gives rise to a very complex set of development issues relating to animal, human and environmental health. The management of wildlife and livestock diseases (including diseases transmissible between animals and people) presents a challenge for which there are no easy solutions.

D – Characterization of a few constraints, opportunities and solutions that are presented in the EU document

1 - Protected areas have proved the test of time but require long-term support
Increasingly wildlife populations and fragile habitats have become confined to protected areas within the wider landscape. Over much of sub-Saharan Africa the areas with the most intact assemblages of biodiversity are in protected areas, or areas under active management like sport-hunting zones. In West and Central Africa in particular, the protected areas where biodiversity is being most effectively protected are those that are receiving support from donor agencies and their technical partners; most national protected area agencies are weak and under-resourced. It follows therefore that external funding support for PAs needs to be long term. This is particularly the case in West and Central Africa, but is also relevant for Eastern and Southern Africa.

In Africa, the costs of biodiversity conservation and PA management greatly outweigh the level of resources that most if not all the African countries mobilise from national budgets, and with a handful of exceptions almost all of the African PAs will never be able to generate sufficient revenue to cover their management costs. It should however be stressed that although funding is a necessary condition for success, funding on its own is not a sufficient condition for success. Management skills are probably the most important differentiating criterion. Where there are good management skills the necessary funding will generally exist. In effect, adequate funding is an outcome of good management in as much as it is an input requirement for good management.

2 - Governance and resourcing of PA/NRM agencies
The under-valuation of ecosystem services and biodiversity by governments is a fundamental driver of the institutional weaknesses that generate inefficient, ineffective and corrupt management practices. These weaknesses centre on human resources that are too few in number, poorly paid and equipped, ill trained and inadequately supervised. Whether for routine operations or capital development, the level of resources made available to PA/Natural Resource Management (NRM) agencies is invariably inadequate. Badly paid and unsupervised field staff in particular will always be corruptible. There is in effect no accountability mechanism built into the traditional conservation approach where protected areas are managed by governments or the NRM agencies.

In a democracy, accountability is achieved through the ballot. However, if the conservation of biodiversity and protected area management does not have meaning for the electorate then this is an ineffective mechanism to achieve accountability. By separating out protected area policy and regulation from execution (for example through a public
private partnership approach) then accountability can be re-established.

3 - PA design: connectivity and the landscape approach
Recent and developing trends are exposing weaknesses in the designs of PA systems. These include failure to include representative examples of all major ecotypes, and the erosion of connectivity through the accelerating transformation of hitherto undeveloped areas between PAs. For example, elephants seldom if ever spend a full year within a PA, and so it is the species most affected by the ongoing appropriation of unprotected habitat, and the one causing the most serious conflict with man as a result. In response, new PAs and corridors between PAs must be created wherever possible in order to improve PA resilience and long-term system viability. This is in line with the overall landscape approach to conservation which aims to enhance ecological connectivity and gene flows across viable habitats linking PAs.

It is widely accepted that veterinary cordon fencing for disease management in Southern Africa has been environmentally damaging, especially in relation to wildlife migration. Environmentally sensitive alternatives are now being developed such as a commodity- based trade approach and other integrated disease management models, which it is hoped will result in considerably less negative impacts on wildlife migration.

4 – Engaging with local communities and CBNRM
Engaging with communities around PAs and promoting sustainable NRM is undoubtedly one of the most complicated issues that NRM agencies have to face across Africa. The basic premise underlying all Community-based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) is that illegal and unsustainable natural resource use by the rural poor can be halted by giving them ownership of, and management responsibility for, the resource, so that they may directly benefit from its use and their livelihoods improve accordingly. Consequently they will automatically acquire a vested interest in protecting it from unsustainable exploitation. Sport hunting and photo tourism can generate significant benefits for local communities, particularly in the more open biotopes of Southern and Eastern Africa where access is relatively easy and the iconic African savannah species abound. It has proved far less easy to develop community-based consumptive and non-consumptive tourism in the moist forest environment where access is difficult, visibility limited, the environment ‘hostile’ for the client and the ‘carrying capacity’ (in terms of numbers of tourists) limited. Apart from generating benefits directly linked to the utilization of wildlife, CBNRM also addresses other ways of improving livelihoods while minimizing environmental damage.

This can include measures to reduce the costs of living with wildlife (self-help against human-wildlife conflict), as well as to promote alternative crops, or improve agronomy and livestock breeds. It also involves the introduction of new ‘holistic’ approaches for the improved exploitation of rangelands, as well as new techniques of soil and carbon-friendly ‘conservation agriculture’. In the forest sector, Participatory Forest Management (PFM) approaches include Reduced Emission from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD+), payment for ecosystem services and the use of recognized certification of sustainability to add value to specific forest products in trade.

Efforts by the conservation community to develop economic returns from conservation have led to the development of ‘conservation enterprise’ models. A conservation enterprise is a commercial activity that generates economic benefits in a way that supports the attainment of a conservation objective. Conservation enterprises provide incentives through monetary and non-monetary benefit flows for communities and landowners to conserve wildlife on their land. Enterprises can be single businesses or interventions into the value chain for a product, such as in the forestry or agriculture sectors. Given the complexity of running a business in Africa, the most successful conservation enterprises are built in partnership with conservation managers, communities and private
sector operators. However CBNRM is not a panacea that alone will neutralize the unsustainable utilization of natural resources that is driven by poverty.

Various factors are at play to ensure that there are no neat solutions:

• In many African countries, rural populations do not have clearly defined user rights over wildlife and other natural resources so have no stake in ensuring sustainable use of it. Land tenure law is often complex and overlaps with and contradicts traditional tenure (e.g. Central Africa). This leads to a situation of ‘open access’ to resources resulting in overexploitation. In Southern Africa, recognition of rights of use has progressed much further than in the other regions but even here issues of poor governance at the local level have imposed limitations on the CBNRM approach in some areas.

• CBNRM schemes and indeed agricultural expansion cannot escape the fundamental undermining issue which is that human populations continue to increase everywhere while the resource does not. Thus as the population increases, in order for the harvest to remain steady (i.e. sustainable), each person will have to accept a smaller share of the harvest, in other words a declining income. CBNRM is therefore more difficult where population pressure on land is already high and governance is weak.

• The notion of ‘community’ among forest-living people in Central Africa is misleading because they have such an individualistic approach to the use of natural resources. Mobilizing forest people to work together to adopt sustainable methods of natural resource use for the benefit of all is therefore complex, time consuming and costly, and requires expertise from many different fields.

The ultimate solution for sustainable CBNRM must depend on a combination of two things. The first is greater governmental efforts to introduce legislation that supports local ownership and rights to wildlife and natural resources, together with assistance for business start-ups and for monitoring their sustainable use. The other is to reduce the population growth rate to the greatest extent possible, thereby minimizing the scale of the poverty alleviation challenge. Some countries, notably China, have grasped this nettle with albeit unpopular measures but at least they are not in denial of this fundamental problem, as are most countries in Africa. Family planning within CBNRM areas is essential if they are to be sustainable in the long term.

Lastly the conservation linked to the development paradigm (for poverty alleviation) that dominates modern biodiversity conservation thinking has resulted too often in conservation projects having to address all the socio-economic ills of populations living around protected areas, despite rarely having either the financial resources or the expertise to do this. Conservation projects should be designed in such a way that they are accompanied by properly funded and resourced socio-economic development initiatives, with objectives that are compatible with wildlife conservation.

5 – Law enforcement

While in situ anti-poaching will always be a key component of wildlife management, recent failures to protect elephants and especially rhinos in areas considered extremely safe underline the fact that in situ protection measures can never be impenetrable. Conservation outcomes improve significantly if resources are mobilized to monitor closely the entire judicial process from arrest to prosecution. This requires wildlife authorities to work closely with all the national law enforcement agencies (forest, police, customs, justice department, national representatives of Interpol) to detect and prosecute wildlife crime. Such national-level multi-agency Wildlife Enforcement Networks (WENs) are lacking in most countries.

The EAGLE (Eco-activists for Governance and Law Enforcement) network of wildlife law enforcement NGOs in Central and West Africa is having success with their approach to investigations, law enforcement operations, legal assistance for prosecution of cases, and media coverage of the results. It has also developed a toolkit for donors
wishing to improve governance in the forest sector. In most countries there is also a severe lack of skills in intelligence-based methods for law enforcement, in particular forensic investigations to determine the origins of seized ivory. In most countries sanctions for wildlife crime are inadequate, and the ratio of arrests to convictions is very low because of corruption, dysfunctional legal systems and lack of understanding of the importance of wildlife crime.

6 – Poor governance and lack of political will fundamentally undermine conservation efforts
No lasting progress in wildlife conservation can be achieved if there is no political will at the very highest level to mainstream natural resource conservation in national development agendas. In most African countries there is a serious disconnect between the political discourse regarding wildlife conservation, and the resources that governments are prepared to mobilize to conserve wildlife. Most protected area agencies are consistently underfunded and understaffed, even in countries where tourism provides a strong economic incentive to value wildlife. Manpower and operating budgets are inadequate, and flawed human resource management procedures and lack of career development opportunities for staff leads to low morale and corruption.

However, the strong political backing for the transfrontier conservation movement in Southern Africa, which from the outset received the strongest possible endorsement from President Mandela and is now being spearheaded by SADC, is a notable exception to this trend and a beacon of hope and faith in the future of African wildlife and conservation. Other examples of strong political leadership from Heads of State improving conservation outcomes include Namibia, Botswana, Gabon and Chad.

What are the solutions?
They will be exposed in next NAPA in June...

SeyCCAT seeks the services of a Chief Executive Officer (CEO) to manage SeyCCAT’s operations from its headquarters in Mahe, Seychelles.

1. The Chief Executive Officer shall be responsible for the general and active management of the affairs of SeyCCAT, subject to the supervision and control by SeyCCAT’s Board of Directors (the “Board”). The Chief Executive Officer shall be based in Mahe, Seychelles and shall have the specific duties set forth herein and in SeyCCAT Legislation, and such other duties as the Board may from time to time prescribe.

2. Reporting to the Board and Participation in Board Meetings. The Chief Executive Officer is responsible for reporting to the Board on the activities of SeyCCAT and participating in its meetings from time to time as requested by the Board. To the extent requested by the Board, the Chief Executive Officer shall ensure that appropriate staff members are available to assist at Board meetings.

3. Reporting to the Chairperson of the Board. The Chief Executive Officer is responsible for promptly, regularly and fully informing the Chairperson of the Board about the current affairs, activities and finances of SeyCCAT, and for obtaining the Chairperson’s advice and approval in all cases where this may be required by SeyCCAT Legislation or Operational Manual.

4. Authority to sign contracts. The Chief Executive Officer generally prepares or causes to be prepared and signs contracts, leases, tax returns, grant agreements, applications for permits and registrations, and all other written documents on behalf of SeyCCAT, subject to any approvals by the Board.

5. Liaise with Governmental organizations, local communities, NGOs, businesses, donors, media. The Chief Executive Officer generally represents and promotes SeyCCAT’s interests in day-to-day dealings and on-going liaison with representatives of the governments of the Seychelles; local and international non-governmental organizations; local and international businesses that impact biodiversity or are potential donors SeyCCAT; multilateral and bilateral international donor agencies; foundations and wealthy individuals who are potential donors to SeyCCAT; local and international scientific and educational institutions/associations/individuals; regional institutions; and local and international media.

6. The Executive Director collaborates with members of the Board to plan and agree on a future fundraising strategy for SeyCCAT. A significant amount of the Chief Executive Officer’s time, particularly in the first three years of SeyCCAT’s existence, might be devoted to the development and implementation of SeyCCAT’s fundraising strategy. The Chief Executive Officer shall research and identify potential donors, meet with and make presentations to potential donors, prepare grant applications to potential donors and negotiate the terms
of grant agreements with donors, prepare reports to donors and resolve any issues raised by donors, and travel in connection with the foregoing efforts.

7. Preparation of plans, strategies, budgets and RFPs: The Chief Executive Officer is responsible for the development and implementation of long-term strategic plans, annual operating plans, internal operations manuals and policies, and annual budgets, prepared by the Chief Executive Officer and SeyCCAT staff for consideration and approval by the Board.

8. Coordination with other initiatives. The Chief Executive Officer interacts with other donor-funded initiatives and government initiatives in order to coordinate efforts, achieve greater efficiencies and synergies, access additional potential sources of funding, and raise awareness of any potential negative impacts on biodiversity that could result from proposed or current donor-funded, government-funded and private-sector-funded initiatives.

9. Hiring and Supervision of Staff. The Chief Executive Officer generally hires the other staff of SeyCCAT based on Board-approved budgets and authorization (except for positions that may require Board approval), prepares work-plans for such other staff, supervises the proper performance of their duties, evaluates and (if necessary) terminates other staff.

10. Maintaining financial records and accounts. The Chief Executive Officer ensures the proper preparation and maintenance of financial records and accounts of SeyCCAT, either directly or by supervising other officers and staff who may be charged with that responsibility.

11. Administration, Monitoring and Evaluation of Grants: The Chief Executive Officer is responsible for administering Board-approved transfers of funds to grantees; ensuring that grantees submit financial and technical reports as required by the grant agreements; resolving any issues involving a grantee’s failure to perform as agreed or failure to report in a proper and timely manner as required; and reporting to the Board on all of the preceding.

12. Relations with the Investment manager and/or investment consultant. The Chief Executive Officer assists the Board in reviewing and monitoring all reports from the investment manager and/or investment consultant, and shall be in regular and frequent contact with the investment manager and/or investment consultant in order to ensure that any significant developments relating to SeyCCAT’s investments are promptly brought to the attention of the members of the Finance Committee of the Board.

All candidates for Chief Executive Officer must provide evidence of the following skills and abilities:

1. An undergraduate degree from a recognized university is required, and in addition, an MBA or other graduate degree is preferred.

2. At least 5 years of experience in a similar position.

3. Demonstrated skill, experience and success in marketing and fundraising with an emphasis on raising funds from multilateral and bilateral aid agencies, foundations, and corporations.

4. Excellent interpersonal and communications skills, and the ability to work with groups and organizations. Experience in working with international aid and development agencies, foundations and corporations will be of the greatest importance.

5. Be a highly energetic, self starting, entrepreneurial and creative individual who can express/recognize ideas, opportunities, and communicate goals and objectives clearly.

6. Exemplary verbal and written skills in English. Knowledge of Creole would also be an advantage, but is not a requirement.

7. An ability and willingness to travel internationally.

8. Demonstrated organizational and management experience in administering staff, developing and implementing a detailed budget and other resources.

9. Experience working with and reporting to a Board of Directors, interacting with Board members and submitting memoranda and reports thereto.

10. Familiarity (or the ability to quickly achieve familiarity) with biodiversity conservation issues, protected area management, ecosystem based adaptation to climate change, and related activities.

Get more info with and submit applications to: helena.sims@TNC.ORG by the 13th of May 2016.