

Chapter 8

Combining Institutional and Procedural Approaches: Community Involvement in Management Decisions

We now turn to the most profound method for handling distributive issues: the active involvement of indigenous and local communities in the management of biodiversity. This approach combines the procedural elements of communication and participation with the institutional elements of creating rights and ownership in the implementation of the policy. Such an approach dilutes the power and influence of the policy-maker to a significant extent: participation in or even devolution of ongoing management decisions to stakeholders mean that the policy-maker sacrifices control over policy implementation. This can even result in fundamental changes to the policy itself.

As we have seen, distributive problems can arise if nature conservation management is practised with the exclusion of local communities. Thus, many distributive issues can be overcome if local communities are involved in biodiversity management. Involvement and respect of local and indigenous communities in wildlife management are generally-accepted principles that are enshrined in the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD, 1992, article 8j). There are important distributive impacts in those principles: local communities are able to influence the nature management decisions which affect their lives.

Local and indigenous groups, however, may not be homogenous in their interests. They may have different goals and social objectives that distinguish them regionally, nationally and even internationally. For example, in developing countries poverty reduction and meeting basic needs are likely to be more important than in developed countries, where reducing local unemployment, and sharing economic and other benefits of biodiversity management with the community, might be more important (Roberts and Gautam, 2003).

The requirements for successfully involving indigenous groups and local communities differ from those of other stakeholders in important ways, including:

- **Creating a supportive legal and policy framework** which can legitimise the involvement of local and indigenous communities in biodiversity-related management. Resource ownership, access and user rights, and management plans need to be addressed, as well as the potential for community involvement and collaborative management (Gawler, 2002). A

detailed policy plan or strategy for community involvement can also guide the implementation.

- **Training policy-makers, agencies and park managers** in working with local communities. Governments often lack close relationships with the affected groups and rely on local authorities and agencies that have closer contact with local communities. But these representatives of government authority are not always well-versed in the culture, traditions and working habits of these groups. Preparation for any policy initiatives might therefore include assurances that there is some ability to interact with, and respond to, these groups.
- **Building community capacity for involvement:** local communities may lack the sophistication to work with nature conservation agencies or national park directorates. Training and education may be required for the agency personnel in management and working techniques so there is a capacity to represent and act in the interest of the community.
- **Incorporating conflict resolution mechanisms:** since communities that are going to be involved in nature management may be heterogeneous and have different interests, it is worth understanding potential sources of conflict at an early stage. Understanding cultural and social characteristics of local groups is important for choosing appropriate strategies. In managing natural resources, traditional and local communities may have some issues that deserve attention, namely those surrounding gender, power and equity within the community, traditional ecological knowledge, and the tension between short and long-term goals.
 - ❖ **Gender issues:** In many traditional communities, women and men have roles and tasks that help give society its structure. They may also have different perceptions of the need and opportunity to engage in the management of natural resources. There are many factors that influence women's capacity to engage in public work: *e.g.* household status, employment, work related rights, double work burden, education and literacy, health, ability to control fertility, access to financial resources, existence of legal rights, traditions and cultural values, socialisation and self confidence (Buchy *et al.*, 2000). Participation of women in decision-making is usually a sensitive issue in traditional communities, and sufficient time is needed to overcome cultural barriers. However it has generally been associated with positive outcomes because women are more likely to rely on nature for their day-to-day activities.
 - ❖ **Power and equity within the community:** communities interacting strongly with nature often have hierarchical structures which mean that some people or families have better access to resources than others, *e.g.* chiefs, wealthier families, families with private property or animals

and households closer to the natural areas. These groups may thus enjoy greater benefits from the existence of a natural area and their positions allow them to act more strongly for their private interests. Therefore when involving local people in wildlife management, it is important to ensure that the poorer and more vulnerable groups have a voice in the decision-making bodies.

- ❖ **Traditional ecological knowledge:** local and indigenous communities may have specialised ecological knowledge and traditions that can be useful for biodiversity management. Knowledge of natural processes, species identification, seasonal productivity of certain species and influencing circumstances are often embedded in local culture. Traditional practices, *e.g.* voluntary restrictions on access and use of certain areas, sacred or no use sites, zoning, taboos in certain seasons, minimum size of stock to be saved, etc., may have evolved through long traditions of experimentation and experience (Berkes, 1999; Gawler, 2002). This valuable knowledge can be combined with modern scientific methods and form the basis for joint work and monitoring.
- ❖ **Short and long-term goals:** an important caveat to community or local management can be the problem of maintaining behaviour that is focused on long-term outcomes. For example, assigning private rights over a resource that had been public and where social norms had made that public resource sustainable, may induce shorter term behaviour centred on private interests. “Selling-out” to commercial interests may be in an individual’s interest, but not in the community’s – the rate at which cash-poor individuals discount the future will be higher than that of societies. This may lead to destructive land use (*e.g.* burning of forests to clear land, or selling it to private commercial interests, Chapin, 2004) that neglects the public aspect of the resource.

8.1. Forms of community involvement

There are many forms and degrees of involvement by communities. They are influenced by traditions within communities, systems of property rights, and even by the administrative authority within a country. In the following section we distinguish three main forms: community-based management, joint management of natural resources by communities and government agencies, and management by stakeholder bodies.

8.1.1. Community-based management

One response to the need for community involvement has been the implementation of community-based management or collective management in which land, or a biodiversity-rich resource, is a common resource managed

by the local community. For this to work well, good ties are needed between and within communities.

Community-based management is more common in developing countries, where a greater number of traditional settlements exist. Some examples can also be found in those OECD countries where Aboriginal or indigenous communities still live in reserves or in protected areas (e.g. Canada, USA, Mexico, Finland and Sweden). The rights of these people and their participation in management are key in many of these countries.

There are several ways that community-based management can be organised and implemented. Local administrative and management bodies (e.g. the village council) might be set up by local people to prepare and implement the management plan for the area. Access and user rights (e.g. fishing, hunting, collection of wood) can be created by the government where the administrative body is empowered with the assignment of these rights. In some cases, subsidies are also provided by the government to compensate for lost opportunities. Revenues from the area (e.g. tourism, trophy hunting) can be used to support conservation objectives.

Empirical evidence on equity and distributional benefits is rather mixed when it comes to respecting the rights of indigenous and local groups to manage resources themselves. It is important to specifically account for those who are included and excluded from the decision-making body. It is also important to delve into traditions of resource use and, where necessary, even put in place restrictions if economic incentives favour destructive use. It might be useful to explore other forms of land use such as private land for individuals from the community. The inclusion of poorer and/or vulnerable resource users (e.g. women and youth) in community management as well as decision-making bodies also has been shown to be important for equitable benefit sharing (Mahatny and Russel, 2002; Adhikari *et al.*, 2004).

8.1.2. Joint management of natural resources by community and governmental agency/park administration

In joint management of natural resources, local communities and administrative bodies share some management responsibilities. It is important that the tenure, ownership and user rights over the resource are clear. This form of management is most suitable when the area is under the direct control of the parties (Buchy *et al.*, 2000). The rights and responsibilities can be laid down in a contract between the conservation authority/body and the local communities. The time frame might be very long, e.g. 99 years for some Australian national parks.

Joint management committees can be set up which are responsible for drawing up management plans and making decisions about park

management (Reid *et al.*, 2004). They work best when there is rough equality of power and influence between the parties. Local or indigenous communities can take on certain management tasks, *e.g.* fire management, game management, monitoring of habitats. In return for these activities they are assigned certain rights, *e.g.* hunting, fishing, collecting wild plants or wood for subsistence use. In this way local knowledge and competence in nature management can be made best use of. It is important to acknowledge the difference between the working cultures of indigenous people and park managers when assigning tasks. The approach is likely to work best when local people are responsible for those tasks which are part of their culture.

Some examples of joint management are parks in South Africa and Australia (Reid *et al.*, 2004). There are also examples from North America, where more than two partners (*e.g.* the management body and local communities, plus recreational wildlife users and subsistence users) are involved in the management of the area (Buchy *et al.*, 2000).

8.1.3. Management by stakeholder bodies

Management by stakeholder bodies is another common way of involving local communities in the management of natural resources. In this case a set of stakeholders, including the representatives of governmental bodies, local businesses, local communities and civil organisations, form the advisory board of a natural area. They are usually responsible for making or revising strategic plans and for supervising the management of the area. The main characteristic of this form of management is that there is usually mixed ownership and no full control by any individual board member over the use of the resources (Buchy *et al.*, 2000).

This is a less intensive public participation method for biodiversity management than the other methods, but it also can be an effective way to provide benefits for the local community through assigning access and user rights, lowering entrance and user fees, selling local products and services from the area, employment possibilities or increased income. The interests and needs of local people can be expressed on the stakeholder board and through collaborative actions. This approach has been working in some countries, *e.g.* regional parks in France, watershed/catchment management in the USA.

Table 8.1 summarises the main characteristics of the three forms of community involvement; many of the examples are discussed in further detail below.

Table 8.1. **Main characteristics of the three forms of community involvement**

Characteristics	Community-based management	Joint management of community and governmental agency	Management by stakeholder bodies
Ownership of the area	Community ownership or state ownership but handing back the property or user rights to the communities	Community ownership (sometimes the land is leased back to the state) or state ownership with special community rights	Mixed ownership
Legal regulation required	For property rights, framework for community management	For property rights and need to sign a contract between the parties (may be a requirement of the contract as well)	Potential for stakeholder bodies
Degree of community involvement	The whole community participates	Large part of the community participates (both directly and indirectly)	Only part of the community participates (through representatives or with direct involvement in some activities)
Where is the balance of power crucial?	Within the community (poor, vulnerable groups, young people, women)	In the community as a whole, and within the community (poor, vulnerable groups, young people, women)	Between the stakeholders
Managing distributive issues	Fair and balanced representation is required in the decision-making body. Sometimes outside help is needed to overcome cultural barriers	Special rights need to be assigned to the community Fair representation is needed in the decision-making body	Fair and balanced representation is needed in the decision-making bodies
Examples	Saami villages, Sweden. Community-based participation in wetland conservation, West Kalimantan, Indonesia. CAMPFIRE Program of Zimbabwe	Co-management schemes in Aboriginal national parks (e.g. Kakadu, Australia)	Waswanipi Cree Model Forest, Canada Community forest partnership, England Watershed management with community participation (Conasauga River Watershed), USA Regional nature parks, France Wetland co-management in the Djoudj National Park, Senegal

8.2. Facilitating community involvement

There are many ways the government or its bodies can foster or facilitate community involvement in the management of natural resources. Some examples are as follows:

- **Technical assistance:** local communities may lack training in assessment, management or monitoring. Assistance can be provided with scientific knowledge, models, techniques (e.g. geographical information systems) or the use of modern equipment. Guidelines can be prepared and training can be organised to help the communities.

- **Co-ordination:** community involvement can be more effective if it is part of a nationally-organised framework: *e.g.* community forest programmes, watershed or catchment programmes or Aboriginal management programmes. Some examples include Canada's Model Forest Program, England's National Community Forest Partnership and the USA Watershed Protection and Restoration Program. When such national frameworks exist, experiences at the local level can be shared more widely, *e.g.* through regional and national discussion forums.
- **Financial assistance:** community-based, shared or stakeholder management can be aided by financial assistance. Large restoration projects especially might need financial support to be successful. Projects sometimes need seed money to start a co-operative operation (*e.g.* paying the members of the decision-making body). In some countries (*e.g.* the US or Canada) grant programmes are launched to help these community-based efforts. In other countries, benefits from the area partly go to local communities: *e.g.* park fees in Uganda, buffer zone fees in Nepal and tourist revenues in the CAMPFIRE programme, Zimbabwe.
- **Clearinghouse mechanism:** a clearinghouse mechanism can help spread information about local and regional experiences, or the results of projects or discussion forums.

8.3. Examples of different forms of community involvement

Below are just a few examples of the many different types of management and state assistance both in developed and developing countries.

8.3.1. Community-based management examples

Rights of Saami people in the World Heritage site, Lapponia, Sweden (summarised from Lusty, 2000)

The Lapponian Area covers almost 9 400 km² and lies in Norrbotten county, in the circumpolar zone of Northern Sweden. It is inhabited by the Saami people, who arrived in the area between 4 and 5 000 years ago. For thousands of years, the Saami lived mainly by hunting wild reindeer for fur and food. They led nomadic lifestyles, following the reindeers' annual grazing cycles. A few Saami families still migrate and maintain their summer residence in small cabins. The majority, however, now lives in villages. They have a rich folk culture with traditional handicrafts, clothing and music, which, together with their language, are distinctively different from those of other ethnic groups in Scandinavia. The Saami people's rights are protected by laws dating back to 1886. All reindeer breeders belong to a Saami village, which represents an administrative and economic unit. The members decide

how herds are to be managed within the confines of the Reindeer Husbandry Act (see Section 6.4.2), which sets a maximum allowance of 280 000 reindeer for the whole of Sweden. The Saami village can also decide how many reindeer each of their individual members is allowed to keep. There are government subsidies available for herdsmen, based on kilograms of meat. Saami also have fishing and hunting rights.

This is a good example of how an indigenous community can have rights to use and manage natural resources within the rules of the state (e.g. maximum allowances) and with the state's financial support (subsidies to herdsmen). Distributive issues are settled between the state and the community and also within the community (see also the conflict case in Section 6.4.2, which describes how these rights were violated).

Customary rules in community-based wetland conservation, West Kalimantan, Indonesia (Wickham, 1997)

The Danau Sentarum Wildlife Reserve comprises 125 000 hectares of lakes and temporarily and permanently flooded lowland forest in the north-central region of West Kalimantan, Indonesia. Water levels fluctuate during the year, and there are three months without any water at all. The reserve supports a diverse flora and fauna, and unique habitats. Around 3 500 people live in 40 permanent and seasonal villages within the watershed. Research in the area showed that customary rules and regulations for resource use and sanctions for breaking them have existed in the communities for centuries (Wickham, 1997). Those that are in line with current regulations could be an integral part of community-based nature conservation strategies relying on self-regulation. Around 40 such rules were identified in the research, some of which are listed in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2. Overview of various regulated resources in Danau Wildlife Reserve

Forest resources regulations	Fishing equipment regulations	Selected fish regulations
Honey	Fish nets (type/size)	Jelawat (<i>Leptobarus hoeveni</i>)
Rattan	Fish traps (type/size)	Betutuk (<i>Oxyeleotris marmorata</i>)
Hunting	Other fish equipment	Siluk (<i>Scleropages formosus</i>)
Forest fires	Fishing with electricity	Toman (<i>Opficephalus micropeltes</i>)
Logging	Fishing with poison	

Source: Wickham, 1997.

This case is a good example of where traditional restrictions on the use of nature in a community can be used to set rules for community-based nature management. If these restrictions and self regulation are accepted by the community, no distributive problems are likely to arise.

Zimbabwe's CAMPFIRE Programme (Alexander and McGregor, 2000; Jones and Murphree, 2001; Mashinya, 2007)

Early conservation laws in Zimbabwe outlawed hunting and prohibited local communities from managing or benefiting from wildlife. Private farm owners were given the right as "appropriate authorities" to use wildlife on their land by the Parks and Wildlife Act of 1975, while users of communal lands* were not. This led to conflicts between the government who "owned" the wildlife on communal land, and the people residing on that land who were not allowed to use the wildlife for their subsistence, and who also suffered damage to their crops or livestock by wildlife. The Park and Wildlife Act was amended in 1982 to allow "appropriate authority" status to be granted to local rural district councils (RDCs), enabling them to legally exploit natural resources within their jurisdictions.

The CAMPFIRE programme (Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources) was developed after this amendment to promote greater local control over the management and use of biological resources in communal areas. This programme sought the participation of local communities in generating wildlife revenues through sustainable use, rather than simply being the passive recipients of money via RDCs (Alexander and McGregor, 2000). Due to the previously rapid conversion of wildlife habitat to agriculture and grazing, there was interest in creating economic incentives for preserving wildlife and its habitat. The programme had several objectives, including voluntary participation by communities in developing long-term solutions to resource management problems; introducing new systems of group ownership and rights to natural resources for resident communities; providing appropriate institutions for resource management and exploitation by resident communities for their direct benefit; and providing assistance to communities wishing to join the programme. The project was also designed to provide money from tourists and both meat and revenue from trophy-hunters (Young et al., 2001). At least 50% of these revenues were to go directly to communities (Jones and Murphree, 2001).

Despite the appealing goals of this programme, its implementation has been criticised (Alexander and McGregor, 2000). Recent research shows that after donor funding ended in 2000 and Zimbabwe's severe national political and economic crises began, the extent and quality of community participation has declined sharply and benefits were captured by local elites. The loss of NGO support has also had negative effects on the success of the programme (Mashinya, 2007).

* Areas which were held in trust by the government for indigenous tribes on a collective basis.

The CAMPFIRE programme was a brave attempt to revitalise community-based biodiversity management in a way that also addressed distributive issues (e.g. creating use and benefit-sharing rights). However, democratic instability and the withdrawal of international financial support can have important negative effects on both process and outcome.

8.3.2. Joint management between community and/governmental agency: some examples

Contracts with Aboriginal people in Kakadu National Park, Australia (Grady, 2000; Reid et al., 2004)

Kakadu National Park (Table 8.3) is situated in the northern part of Australia and covers 19 804 km². It is also a World Heritage Site. Approximately 50% of the land in the park is held as inalienable freehold land by Aboriginal groups. The Aboriginal people have been continuously present in the area for more than 50 000 years. Having lost their lands to newcomers, they were reinstated in a 1976 act of government. The estimated number of Aboriginal people in the area was 1 200 in 1991. There are about 16 clans of traditional owners widely scattered throughout the park. New legislation, the *Environment Protection and Biodiversity Conservation Act (1999)*, recognises the critical role of indigenous people in the conservation and sustainable use of ecological resources, and in holding traditional knowledge.

Since the act came into force, contracts have been signed with the Aboriginal groups governing management of the area. Parks Australia (the governmental agency managing national parks) and the Aboriginal traditional owners jointly manage the park, and Parks Australia covers the cost of it. The role of the Aboriginal groups in the management and administration of the

Table 8.3. Key characteristics of Kakadu National Park

Characteristics	Values in Kakadu National Park
Contract signed and duration	Stage I. 1979, Stage II:1991, Stage III.1987,1989,1991 (100 years)
Size	1.9 million ha
Vegetation	Rainforest, grasslands, wooded savannas, eucalyptus forests and mangroves
Owners	Bininj/Mungguy traditional owners (about 200-300 people represented by three Aboriginal land trusts)
Conservation authority financial benefits and costs	Costs AUD 11 million to AUD 14 million per annum to manage and government provides 74% of the park budget
Financial benefits to landowners	Lease money and 39% of income from tourism (totalling AUD 1.3 million in 2000)

Source: Reid et al., 2004.

park is laid down in the management plan. Their former advisory role has become a more formal management role. Five local Aboriginal associations are set up in Kakadu, representing the different political interests of different clans, and they oversee aspects of financial investment, local business, enterprise ventures and other businesses for their members. The Aboriginal people are involved in the management of fire, the native vegetation structure and habitats. Their traditional knowledge of land management is critical for sustaining the habitats. They are also able to practise their traditional rights of gathering native plants for food and handicrafts, and of hunting and fishing. They consult with governmental bodies about the sustainable take levels of different species (Grady, 2000; Reid et al., 2004).

The operation of Kakadu National Park is a good example of co-management and benefit-sharing with the Aboriginal community. Distributive issues are settled in the contract (participatory management, rights to use the area and sharing the revenues).

8.3.3. Stakeholder management examples

Canada's Model Forest Program (Canadian Model Forest Network, 2006)

Canada's Model Forest Program was launched in 1992 by the Government of Canada through the Canadian Forest Service (CFS). The programme is one of the world's largest experiments in sustainable forest management. A model forest is an area where the latest forestry techniques are researched, developed, applied and monitored. It operates through a grassroots partnership that includes a variety of stakeholders who value the forest for different reasons. Canada's Model Forest Program currently involves 11 model forests ranging in size from just over 100 000 hectares to nearly 8 million hectares.

The main objectives of the programme are: i) to increase the development and adoption of sustainable forest management systems and tools within and beyond model forest boundaries; ii) to share knowledge gained through the programme at local, regional and national levels; iii) to strengthen model forest network activities in support of Canada's sustainable forest management priorities; and iv) to increase opportunities for local-level participation in sustainable forest management.

Model forests build partnerships with a wide range of individuals and organisations whose interests in the forest may vary, but who share the common goal of sustainable forest management. Partners include: scientists, Aboriginal communities, environmentalists, forest industry, community groups, landowners, national parks, academic institutions, governments, recreation enthusiasts and others interested in sustainable forest management. Partners invest significant time, effort and resources learning

about and appreciating each other's views and expertise. This allows consensus-driven partnerships where decision-making is shared to achieve social, environmental and economic sustainability in forest management.

Each model forest is managed by a partnership made up of local individuals and organisations. Their goal is to make sure that the forest continues to be a healthy and dynamic part of their community. Successes at the local level can then be shared with other model forests through Canada's Model Forest Network. The success of Canada's Model Forest Program has attracted worldwide attention. An International Model Forest is now in place, with 20 model forests in 15 countries. Several other countries have also expressed an interest in joining the network.

Canada's Model Forest Program is a good example of stakeholder management. The participatory decision-making method addresses distributive issues and helps find the best solutions for all stakeholders. Networking and information sharing are also useful elements of the programme.

Waswanipi Cree Model Forest, Québec, Canada (Roberts and Gautam, 2003; Pelletier, 2002)

In Canada there is a legal basis allowing local communities to sign forest management agreements with provincial governments to create a community forest. The Waswanipi are local tribes in Québec who successfully operate a community forest management system called the Waswanipi Cree Model Forest. Their vision is to link traditional tribal ties with the development of resource-based activities, such as forestry, tourism and recreation. It tries to combine traditional ecological knowledge with applied research and technologies to develop new sustainable forest management practices (Roberts and Gautam, 2003).

Located 800 kilometres north of Montreal, Waswanipi is the southern-most of the Cree communities in Québec. The people of Waswanipi have lived in the boreal forests since time immemorial. Their land base extends over 35 000 square kilometres and is divided into 52 ancestral family hunting territories, called trap-lines. The Crees have benefited from the boreal forest for millennia, while successfully maintaining a healthy and viable economy based primarily on hunting, fishing and trapping. It is only recently that outsiders have seen the potential for extracting natural resources and forestry companies have established a permanent presence in the area.

The Waswanipi Cree Model Forest is a special project where community participation, sustainable forest management and community/technology transfer play a major role. A Working Committee (of 20 people from 13 different organisations) was created to make strategic decisions for the

project. Crees favoured co-management, where they participate at all levels of forest management planning (laws and regulations, 25-year plan, 5-year plan, yearly plan) and monitoring. The co-management approach was accepted by the committee as a means of improving forest management planning. After setting the main tasks, a Development Team was created which involved representatives of three forestry companies, the Government of Québec, and local communities. The learning experience has been successful, and many problems (e.g. communication, balance of power, timing) have been gradually overcome or mitigated (Pelletier, 2002).

Although the Waswanipi operate a community forest, this case shows that the operation can be improved by involving more stakeholders. Through negotiation and the participatory planning process, distributive issues have been raised and settled because the plans have been accepted by all the groups involved.

England's National Community Forest Partnership (www.communityforest.org.uk)

The National Community Forest Partnership is made up of 12 Community Forests in England with 58 local authority partners, the Forestry Commission and the Countryside Agency. The 12 forests are located in and around major towns and cities, with each forest working with the local authorities, government agencies and a variety of partners within their operating area. The Community Forests all benefit from a dedicated local team or organisation working with a variety of partnerships and delivery agencies to carry out projects in the area. They are particularly effective in the protection and management of sensitive areas like semi-natural woodland, moss-lands, heather moorland and wildflower areas, river systems, unimproved grassland, Sites of Special Scientific Interest, Sites of Biological Importance and Local Nature Reserves. Involvement of local people in planning and implementation and their training is an important part of the programme.

The community forests are good examples of stakeholder management, where local people participate as well. Local communities benefit from the improved state of local forests, and they probably voluntarily contribute to the costs of the projects.

Watershed management with community participation in the USA (EPA, 2001)

The Clean Water Action Plan was announced in the USA in 1998 to improve water quality nationwide. The action plan seeks to support existing local watershed partnerships to address critical local problems, develop

restoration strategies and implement solutions that improve the watersheds' health. A watershed (also known as a catchment or basin) is a geographical area in which all the falling water drains to a common water body, i.e. river, lake or stream. The watershed approach uses watersheds to co-ordinate the management of water resources. It integrates biology, chemistry, economics and social considerations into decision-making. A successful watershed approach includes the support, participation and leadership of local stakeholders and land users. A watershed approach recognises needs for water supply, water quality, flood control, navigation, hydropower generation, fisheries, biodiversity, habitat preservation and recreation, and recognises that these needs often compete. It addresses natural resource issues that cross jurisdictions and political boundaries (EPA, 2001; Clean Water Action Plan, 2000).

Seven themes of watershed management are commonly found: a) increasing public education and awareness; b) developing new partnerships and co-ordinating efforts; c) collecting necessary information through monitoring and research; d) establishing appropriate plans and priorities; e) obtaining funding and technical assistance; f) implementing solutions; and g) evaluating the results (EPA, 2001).

There are over 3 000 local watershed groups. Watershed partnership can include any person or group interested in watershed health, e.g. landowners, elected officials, representatives of federal, tribal, state and local government agencies, agricultural organisations, business organisations, environmental organisations, student groups and senior citizen organisations. It ensures that activities carried out are based on mutual understanding and consensus. Various federal agencies also encourage local watershed efforts with financial and technical support. A Regional Watershed Coordination Team was established by regional offices of federal government agencies in 12 river basins. It also helps the watershed groups by co-ordinating governmental efforts (EPA, 2001).

Wetland co-management in the Djoudj National Park, Senegal (Diouf, 2002 in Gawler, 2002)

The Djoudj National Park was created in the delta ecosystem of the Senegal River in 1971. The population of the area is characterised by dispersed settlements, and there are now eight villages around the park. The main socio-economic activities are raising livestock, agriculture, fishing, handicrafts, trading and hunting. The population was removed from the area when the park was initially established, but this exclusionary policy was changed after 1994 with the introduction of a new participatory management policy. The new policy aimed to give value to defined spaces, regenerate natural resources and restore the environment, define customary law, and

give value to local environmental knowledge. A five-year integrated management plan was developed through consultation with the relevant stakeholders (local populations, state technical services, NGOs, research institutes and international partners).

Four committees are responsible for the implementation of the management plan: Orientation, Scientific, Park Management and Village Conservator. The park's Orientation Committee was responsible for gathering support for the management plan, and for making the major decisions affecting the park: *e.g.* investments within the buffer zones. The Scientific Committee prioritises and approves scientific and technical research in the area and investments to be carried out within and around the area. The members of the Park Management Committee are the main stakeholders of the area, including two representatives of each village in the buffer zone. This committee influences the implementation of the management plan. Effective community involvement is secured by the operation of the Inter-Village Conservation Committee, which co-ordinates specialised committees on ecotourism, waterways, health and forestry/pastoralism. These consultation structures have facilitated a closer relationship between the local people and the park agents.

Change in the planning and operation of the Djoudj National Park illustrates how previously excluded local communities can be involved in the park's strategic planning and operation once again. Participation in all dimensions of decision-making can ensure that distributive issues are discussed and solved.

Residents' task force for water quality improvement in Korea (OECD, 2006)

The Daepho River is a 9 km-long stream flowing into the Nakdong River in Korea. Until the early 1970s, the Daepho could still be used as a source for potable water without treatment. But water quality deteriorated due to waste water discharge from nearby residential areas and local industrial firms, livestock enterprises and restaurants. In 1997, the local authority drew up a water management plan and announced its intention to designate the area as a water source protection area. Local residents protested against the restrictions, and after some negotiation an agreement emerged that if local residents could revive the river, the government might reconsider the designation.

As a result, the residents formed a "task force for water quality improvement" and started to voluntarily clean up the river. Each household contributed a certain amount of money every month to raise funds. Women's associations organised campaigns in each village to save water and reduce the

use of detergents. The city council installed settling tanks for every household and restaurant to prevent food waste discharge into the river. Livestock enterprises installed pre-treatment facilities. The task force also mechanically cleaned up the river. Artificial wetlands were planted with parsley dropwort to filter domestic waste water.

Within a year, these efforts improved the water quality of the Daepho to Class I. The previously cloudy water turned clear, enabling crayfish, endangered shellfish and other fish to return. The task force continued its efforts and in 2002 a voluntary agreement was signed in which the citizens made a commitment to maintain the water quality level and in return the government deferred the designation of the water source protection area.

The Korean case shows that voluntary joint action by citizens can be more effective than implementing a strict regulation. The final result is good water quality with increasing river biodiversity and good co-operation among citizens.

8.3.4. Benefit sharing with communities involved in nature conservation: some examples

In some developing countries, policy involves creating a protected area with restricted access and charging fees to visitors and other users for accessing the area's resources. The institutional innovation in these programmes is to channel parts of these revenues back to local communities as compensation. From a distributive perspective, the relationship of this compensation to the burden imposed on the local communities determines whether equity issues are adequately addressed. Additionally, these schemes are not unproblematic, since rather than receiving predictable streams of compensation, local communities receive flows that vary with the total revenues generated. If communities are risk-averse, the additional well-being generated by these funds will therefore be lower than their cash value.

Park fees channelled back to local communities in Uganda (Musinguzi, 2006)

The Mgahinga Gorilla National Park is home to a large variety of wildlife, including about half the world's critically endangered mountain gorillas. The government of Uganda passed a law in 1996 requiring the park authority to contribute 20% of the proceeds from park entrance fees to local communities adjacent to the park. The government did this in an effort to help local people appreciate the benefits stemming from the park and from gorilla tourism. In addition, communities near the park have had conservation training from some non-governmental organisations such as CARE. Grants have also been given for building primary schools, health clinics and improving roads.

Studies show that people's attitudes have generally improved since these initiatives were implemented.

Sharing buffer zone fees with local communities in Langtang National Park, Nepal (adapted from CBD, 2005: www.biodiv.org/doc/world/np/np-nr-me-en.doc)

In 1993, Nepal introduced an innovative management system by establishing buffer zones in and around protected areas and sharing revenue earned by national parks with local inhabitants. This was made possible by a provision made in the fourth amendment to the *National Parks and Wildlife Conservation (NPWC) Act (1973)*. According to the provision, the buffer zone communities are entitled to receive 30 to 50% of the total annual revenue generated from the protected areas.

Langtang National Park (LNP) is a good example of conservation and sustainable use of mountain biodiversity. The park, which covers 1 710 km², was declared in 1976 to conserve endangered species such as the musk deer (*Moschus chryogaster*), red panda (*Ailurus fulgens*), snow leopard (*Uncia uncia*) and their habitats (including the watersheds of Trishuli River and mountain pastures), as well as local cultural heritage. The other objective was to promote sustainable mountain tourism to benefit local people and improve their living conditions. The national park is located about 40 km north of Kathmandu, the capital of Nepal, and spread over three mountain districts.

The park's buffer zone was defined in 1998 and covers an area of 420 km², runs through three districts and includes 34 village development committees (VDCs). The government has been ploughing back 50% of the total revenue earned by the park into the buffer zone for community development activities. As of October 2005, the Buffer Zone Management Committee (BZMC) had mobilised NPR 14.1 million (1USD = NPR 71) for biodiversity conservation and socio-economic development programmes for buffer zone communities. Apart from government support, the legal provision also encourages conservation partners to complement the park's efforts. A number of national and international NGOs have also joined hands with the national park and buffer zone management council for community development activities.

This case is a good example of how distributive issues can be settled through a benefit-sharing programme. It helps raise the living standards of local communities whilst also making them more committed to biodiversity programmes.

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