

EC NEWS

DGRES INCODEV call for proposals

On 17 December 2004 the European Commission published its new call for proposals for research with developing countries (INCO-DEV).

The following specific topics may be of interest:

A.2 Rational use of natural resources

A.2.1 **managing humid and semi-humid ecosystems** (open only for Specific Support Actions, SSAs eg workshops etc)

A.2.3 **Managing arid and semi-arid ecosystems** (Coordination actions (CA) are strongly encouraged for this call)

(i) Improved agriculture and agroforestry systems

(ii) Sustainable, integrated water resource management

(iii) Research in forest ecosystem restoration and reclamation techniques

A.3 Food security

A.3.2 **Bio-diverse, bio-safe and value added crops**

A.3.2.2 Development and dissemination of sustainable improved production and management practices

A.3.2.3 Development of innovative, efficient, environment-friendly post-harvest, storage, processing and marketing methods

A.3.2.4 Policy, regulatory and institutional issues

The call closure for Specific Targeted Research Projects (STREP) and CA is **13 September 2005**, the budget available 60 million Euro. The call closure for SSA is **7 March and 7 September 2005**, the budget available 0.5 million Euro for March, and 1.5 million Euro for September. Contracts are

expected to be signed 9 months after call closure.

The call and supporting documents may be downloaded from: http://fp6.cordis.lu/fp6/call_details.cfm?CALL_ID=185

Please note that only electronic submission via the EPSS is allowed for this call. For further details please refer to the call text.

DGResearch expert consultation on forest research for development

On 20 and 21 January 2005, the European Commission held an expert meeting on forest research for development. The consultation was to provide inputs for the EC 7th framework programme for research, which is currently being drafted.

The presentations and draft workshop reports for the meeting are available at: <http://www.etfrn.org/etfrn/eucomm/7fp/index.html>

The meeting report is in preparation, and will also become available at the web address above. It is anticipated that the report may serve as a background document for a wider consultation.

European Union Development Policy reviewed

The current European Union Development policy, focusing mainly on poverty reduction, is under review to address

- An accelerated globalisation process which includes not only trade and economic matters, but also all the major issues of concern to citizens, such as environment, health, migration, security;
- new political priorities in an enlarged EU,

in particular the EU's neighbourhood policy and the security strategy, and the draft Constitutional Treaty;

- the emergence of a more robust international consensus reflected in: the UN's Millennium Declaration and Development Objectives; the commitments made at Monterrey regarding funding for development, at Doha regarding trade and at Johannesburg regarding sustainable development; and
- the debate on the effectiveness of aid, covering issues such as harmonisation between donors and the tailoring of aid to policies and procedures in the partner countries.

From mid January – 2 March 2005, the European Commission's Directorate for Development held a web-based consultation to contribute to the debate on and review of the EU development policy. The consultation was based on an issues paper, which is available in English and French. The issues papers may be downloaded from:

http://europa.eu.int/comm/development/body/theme/consultation/index_en.htm

The Commission services will publish the comments received, a report about the results of the consultation and how the responses have been taken into account. This information will be accessible via the consultation page: Your Voice in Europe: http://www.europa.eu.int/yourvoice/consultations/index_en.htm#open

ETFRN NEWS

I would like to thank the readers who wrote to convey their appreciation of the ETFRN

news. Your moral support is valued, and has assisted in generating further interest in the continuation of ETFRN. So far, the ETFRN CU has funding commitments for two further issues of the ETFRN News in 2005, one on forests and water, and another on a theme to be confirmed.

Partnership with the National Forest Programme Facility

The ETFRN CU is entering into a partnership agreement with the National Forest Programme Facility (Facility). The agreement will cover communication and dissemination activities for the Facility, using both the ETFRN and the Facility networks. It will include work on the NFP digests, and an issue of the ETFRN News, on a theme to be defined.

An independent legal status for ETFRN

The ETFRN Steering Committee agreed to review the future strategy and governance, and to set up an independent legal status for ETFRN to address the current funding difficulties. More news will follow in due course.

Job Opportunities

Readers looking for a new job may be interested in the ETFRN vacancies webpage. It has many links to job opportunities pages, and links to specific vacancies are regularly added – to see these, you will need to scroll to the bottom of the page.

<http://www.etfrn.org/etfrn/resource/frames/job.html>

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1. GLOBAL

FORESTS AND ARMED CONFLICT

By David Kaimowitz

War is a topic that is on many people's minds these days; and rightly so. Not only do wars kill and maim large numbers of people, but they force millions more to flee their homes and farms and devastate the country's national economies. Africa, in particular, has been hit hard by armed conflicts in recent years, and that is one major reason for worsening poverty there.

Most wars are civil wars, although many of them spill over into neighboring countries. They tend to take place in poor countries with weak governments. Often they go on for years. The violence may be on-going or it may break out sporadically and then stop for a while, only to reappear several years later. In many cases it is hard to separate out political, ideological, ethnic, or religious factors from simple criminal activity and resource-grabbing.

A large portion of the armed conflicts occur in forested regions. (See box 1) There are a number of reasons for that. Forested regions tend to be inaccessible and easy for armies to hide in. Armies have been able to fund their activities by extorting money from petroleum, mining, and logging companies, drug dealers, and farmers in these areas, or to carry out mining, logging, and drug trafficking operations themselves. Soldiers often survive by hunting and fishing and preying on isolated farmers in remote

forested areas. Many people living in these areas deeply resent the fact that they have been neglected and / or mistreated by national governments, particularly if they perceive outsiders as benefiting from the local natural resources. The influx of migrants of other ethnic groups often stirs conflicts with local people. Armed groups of various types and inclinations frequently earn a certain degree of local support or acceptance by filling the vacuum left by a very weak presence of the national government.

Box 1: Some Tropical Countries with Armed Conflicts in Forested Regions in the Past Twenty Years

Angola, Bangladesh, Cambodia, Colombia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Cote D'Ivoire, Guatemala, Guinea, Honduras, India, Indonesia, Liberia, Mozambique, Mexico, Myanmar, Nepal, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Peru, Philippines, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Solomon Islands, Sudan, Surinam, and Uganda.

These features are more prominent in some cases than in others, and each case has a unique set of circumstances and combination of factors promoting violence. Mountainous and arid areas share many similar characteristics. They are certainly not unique to forests, but the fact that they apply to forests is nonetheless crucially important.

Over the last five years, international recognition of the problem of armed conflict

in forested regions has grown rapidly. Workshops on the topic have been held in Colombia, Japan, the Netherlands, and the United States, among others. A number of global studies and comparative research projects have focused on different aspects of this phenomenon.

These events and research activities have focused on different aspects of the problem.

Some have been more concerned with the **role of natural resources in contributing to armed conflict**. The academics concerned with this aspect have largely tended to fall into three main groups: 1) Neo-Malthusians typically argue that depleting natural resources has made people poorer and more desperate and led them to fight over land, water, grazing rights, and forests. 2) Followers of Paul Collier argue that armed groups are more likely to focus on grabbing commercially value resources such as oil, minerals, cash crops, and timber, and use these resources to finance their activities. 3) Political ecologists are more likely to emphasize violence caused either by the grievance of traditionally marginalized groups or by wealthy and powerful actors that seek to suppress them.

Other initiatives have looked more at **the impact of armed conflict on forests and forest dwelling people, as well as on conservation and forestry efforts**. This work has unambiguously shown that forest dwellers are among the groups that armed conflicts harm the most and that war has very negative impacts on formal conservation and forestry efforts. Fuelwood collection, hunting, and logging by refugees and displaced people also frequently cause major environmental damage. The net impact of armed conflict on forest cover and

biodiversity, however, is much more mixed and varied. On the one hand, armies build roads and clear some areas for military purposes, log and hunt to support their activities, contribute to the refugee problems described above and undermine conservation and forestry efforts. Yet on the other hand, armed conflicts often lead to large areas being abandoned, forests growing back, and animals returning. In a few cases insurgent groups have implemented their own conservation policies.

There has also been a lot of interest in **best practices for conservation and forest management in contexts of conflict or potential conflict**. This has been based largely, but not entirely, on the practical experiences of conservation and community forestry initiatives operating in conflict areas, and on efforts to reduce the environmental impacts of refugees. Some evidence suggests that community forestry efforts reduce the incidence of violent conflict, although the record is clearly mixed. There have also been some notable successes in maintaining conservation efforts even in areas of extreme conflict.

An increasing number of countries find themselves in **post-conflict situations**. These can pose particular risks to forests, as governments remain weak, there are often many armed people looking for ways to make a living, and economic activity recovers in the forested areas.

This special issue of ETFRN brings together in one place reports about many of these previous research efforts and field experiences, written by the researchers and practitioners who have been most active in this field. We have tried to get a balance

between global overview pieces and articles focusing on specific countries, as well as a balance between Africa, Asia, and Latin America. We also made a special effort to assemble the key references on this topic and to provide information about what they include and how readers can access them. We sincerely hope that our readers find this information useful and that it contributes to more effective efforts to reduce armed conflict in forested regions and the environmental and social impacts of those conflicts that do occur. Hopefully it can also contribute to more effective forestry and conservation initiatives in post-conflict situations.

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STRUGGLES OVER RESOURCE WEALTH AND CONFLICT*

By Michael Renner

Abundant natural resources—such as oil, minerals, metals, diamonds and other gemstones, timber, and agricultural commodities including drug crops—have fueled a large number of violent conflicts. Resource exploitation played a role in about a quarter of the roughly 50 wars and armed conflicts of recent years. More than 5 million people were killed in resource-related conflicts during the 1990s. Close to 6 million fled to neighboring countries, and anywhere from 11–15 million people were displaced inside their own countries.¹

The money derived from often illicit resource exploitation in war zones has secured an ample supply of arms for various armed factions and has served to enrich a handful of people—warlords, corrupt government officials, and unscrupulous corporate leaders. But for the vast majority of the population in affected countries, these conflicts have brought a torrent of arms trafficking, human rights violations, humanitarian disasters, and environmental destruction. Ample endowments of coveted resources have helped push these countries to the bottom of most measures of human development.²

In places like Afghanistan, Angola, Cambodia, Colombia, and Sudan, the pillaging of resources allowed violent conflicts to continue that were initially driven by grievances or secessionist and ideological struggles. Revenues from

resource exploitation replaced the support that was extended to governments and rebel groups by superpower patrons but largely evaporated with the end of the cold war.³

Elsewhere, such as in Sierra Leone or the Democratic Republic of the Congo, predatory groups initiated violence not necessarily to gain control of government, but rather as a means of seizing control of a prized resource—typically one of the few tickets to wealth and power in poorer societies. They are aided by the massive proliferation and easy availability of small arms and light weapons.⁴

Commercial resource extraction can also be a source of conflict where the economic benefits accrue only to a small domestic elite and multinational companies, while the local population shoulders an array of social, health, and environmental burdens. This is particularly the case in countries that lack democratic governance, are corrupt, and are characterized by extreme divides among rich and poor and ethnic tensions. The result has been protests and even violent conflict in places like Colombia, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea's Bougainville island, and Indonesia's Aceh province.⁵

Finally, tensions and disputes arise as major consumers of natural resources jockey for access and control. The history of oil in particular is one of multi-hued foreign meddling, including support for dictatorships and military interventions, of which the invasion and occupation of Iraq is but the latest chapter. The United States, Russia, and China are backing competing pipeline plans for Caspian resources. Likewise, in their struggle for access to Siberian oil, China and Japan are pushing mutually exclusive export routes. Some

observers have begun to speak of a new “great game”—the term by which the 19th century British-Russian imperial rivalry was known. In Africa, France and the United States and France are maneuvering for influence by deepening military ties with undemocratic regimes in Algeria, Gabon, Congo-Brazzaville, and Angola. China is seeking a greater role for its oil companies, particularly in Sudan, and working to increase its political clout in Africa and the Middle East. And the United States is getting ever more deeply involved in Colombia's civil war, in part to secure the flow of oil against rebel attacks on export pipelines.⁶

From Pakistan to Central Asia to the Caucasus, and from the eastern Mediterranean to the Horn of Africa, a dense network of U.S. military facilities has emerged since 2001—with many bases established in the name of the “war on terror.” Both the Clinton and Bush administrations have deepened U.S. involvement in Colombia's civil war, in part to secure the flow of oil by protecting an export pipeline against rebel attacks.⁷

Overly dependent on natural resources, resource-rich countries often fail to diversify their economies, stimulate innovation, or invest adequately in critical social areas or public infrastructure. Resource royalties help political leaders maintain power, even in the absence of popular legitimacy—by funding a system of patronage and by beefing up an internal security apparatus able to suppress challenges to their power.⁸

A number of conflicts—in Sierra Leone, Liberia, and Angola—have finally come to an end, but others burn on. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, foreign

forces that invaded in 1998 have withdrawn, yet fighting among various domestic armed factions continues, and elaborate illegal networks and proxy forces have been set up that continue to exploit natural resources.⁹

The enormous expansion of global trade and financial networks has made access to key markets relatively easy for warring groups. They have had little difficulty in establishing international smuggling networks and sidestepping international embargoes, given a degree of complicity among certain companies and often lax customs controls in importing nations.¹⁰

Over the past five years or so, awareness of the close links between resource extraction, human development, and armed conflict has grown rapidly. Campaigns by civil society groups, investigative reports by UN expert panels, and greater media interest have shed light on these connections, making it at least a bitslightly more difficult for “conflict resources” to be sold on world markets. To discourage illicit deals, revenue flows associated with resource extraction need to become more transparent, but governments, companies, and financial institutions often still shirk their responsibilities.¹¹

Commodity-tracking regimes are equally important. In the diamond industry, national certification schemes and a standardized global certification scheme—the so-called Kimberley Process —have been established. But the resulting set of rules still suffers due to the lack of independent monitoring and too much reliance on voluntary measures. Efforts are also under way by the European Union to establish a certification system for its tropical timber

imports—up to half of which are connected to armed conflict or organised crime.¹²

Natural resources will continue to fuel deadly conflicts as long as consumer societies import materials with little regard for their origin or the conditions under which they were produced. Some civil society groups have sought to increase consumer awareness and to compel companies to do business more ethically through investigative reports and by “naming and shaming” specific corporations. For instance, consumer electronics companies were pressured to scrutinize their supplies of coltan, a key ingredient of circuit boards, and to ask processing firms to stop purchasing illegally mined coltan.¹³

Promoting democratization, justice, and greater respect for human rights are key tasks, along with efforts to reduce the impunity with which some governments and rebel groups engage in extreme violence. Another challenge is to facilitate the diversification of the economy away from a strong dependence on primary commodities to a broader mix of activities. A more diversified economy, greater investments in human development, and empowering local communities to be strong guardians of the natural resource base would lessen the likelihood that commodities become pawns in a struggle among ruthless contenders for wealth and power.

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* A slightly different version of this text was published under the same title in Worldwatch Institute, *State of the World 2005* (New York: W.W. Norton, 2005), pp. 96-97.

¹ Quarter share of all conflicts is from Michael Renner, *The Anatomy of Resource Wars*, Worldwatch Paper 162 (Washington, D.C.: Worldwatch Institute, October 2002), p. 6. Number of deaths estimated from data in Milton Leitenberg, *Deaths in Wars and Conflicts Between 1945 and 2000* (College Park MD: Center for International and Security Studies, University of Maryland, May 2001). Refugee numbers derived from UN High Commissioner for Refugees, at www.unhcr.ch; number of internally displaced persons derived from U.S. Committee for Refugees, at www.refugees.org, both viewed 25 August 2002.

² Renner, op. cit. note 1. In Angola, for instance, some \$4.2 billion in state oil revenue disappeared in 1997-2002, a sum roughly equal to the entire sum the government spent on all soxcial programs during the same period. Human Rights Watch, *Some Transparency, No Accountability: The Use of Oil Revenue in Angola and its Impact on Human Rights* (New York, January 2004). *Human development indicators from U.N. Development Programme, Human Development Report 2004* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2004).

³ Renner, op. cit. note 1, p. 10.

⁴ Ibid. Weapons proliferation from Small Arms Survey, *Small Arms Survey 2004* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2004), and from Michael Renner, *Small Arms, Big Impact: The Next Challenge of Disarmament*, Worldwatch Paper 137 (Washington, DC: Worldwatch Institute, October 1997).

⁵ Renner, op. cit. note 1, pp. 35-47.

⁶ Michael T. Klare, *Resource Wars: The New Landscape of Global Conflict* (New York: Metropolitan Books, 2001); Michael Renner, "Post-Saddam Iraq: Linchpin of a New Oil Order,"

Foreign Policy in Focus, January 2003. Caspian from Lutz Klevevan, "Oil and the New 'Great Game'," *The Nation*, 16 February 2004, pp. 12-13. China-Japan struggle from Ayako Doi, "Asian Enmities. China and Japan Revert to Hostility, And Hope for Reconciliation Fades," *Washington Post*, 29 August 2004, and from James Brooke, "The Asian Battle for Russia's Oil and Gas," *New York Times*, 3 January 2004. www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/articles/A40260-2004Aug27.html

⁶ Julio Godoy, "U.S. and France Begin a Great Game in Africa," allAfrica.com, 11 August 2004, allafrica.com/stories/printable/200408110821.html; Eric Schmitt, "Pentagon Seeking New Access Pacts for African Bases," *New York Times*, 5 July 2003; Felix Onua, "Nigeria and United States Agree on Military Exercises in Oil Delta," Reuters, 13 August 2004. China from Gerald Butt, "Thirst for Crude Pulling China Into Sudan," *The Daily Star* (Beirut, Lebanon), 17 August 2004, www.dailystar.com.lb/printable.asp?art_ID=7398&cat_ID=3. Colombia from Alexandra Guáqueta, "The Colombian Conflict: Political and Economic Dimensions," in Karen Ballentine and Jake Sherman, eds., *The Political Economy of Armed Conflict. Beyond Greed and Grievance* (Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers, 2003), pp. 73-106.

⁷ Michael Renner, "Oil and Blood: The Way to Take Over the World," *World Watch*, January/February 2003, p. 21; Lutz Klevevan, "Oil and the New 'Great Game'," *The Nation*, 16 February 2004, pp. 12-13; Seth Mydans, "Georgia and its Two Big Brothers," *New York Times*, 28 November 2003. Colombia from Alexandra Guáqueta, "The Colombian Conflict: Political and Economic Dimensions," in Karen Ballentine and Jake Sherman, eds., *The Political Economy of Armed Conflict. Beyond Greed and Grievance* (Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers, 2003), pp. 73-106.

⁸ Jeffrey D. Sachs and Andrew M. Warner, "Natural Resource Abundance and Economic Growth," *Development Discussion Paper No. 517a* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard Institute for International Development, 1995); Michael Ross, *Extractive Sectors and the Poor* (Boston: Oxfam America, October 2001), pp. 5, 7-9; William

Reno, "Shadow States and the Political Economy of Civil Wars," in Mats Berdal and David M. Malone, eds., *Greed and Grievance: Economic Agendas in Civil Wars* (Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers, 2000), pp. 45–46, 56–57; Philippe LeBillon, "The Political Ecology of War: Natural Resources and Armed Conflicts," *Political Geography*, no. 20 (2001), pp. 561–84.

⁹ Ongoing fighting from Marc Lacey, "War Is Still a Way of Life for Congo Rebels," *New York Times*, 21 November 2002, and from Finbarr O'Reilly, "Rush for Natural Resources Still Fuels War in Congo," Reuters, 10 August 2004; illegal networks from United Nations Security Council, "Final Report of the Panel of Experts on the Illegal Exploitation of Natural Resources and Other Forms of Wealth of the Democratic Republic of the Congo" (New York: 16 October 2002).

¹⁰ Renner, op. cit. note 1.

¹¹ Transparency codes and other efforts are discussed exhaustively in Ian Bannon and Paul Collier, eds., *Natural Resources and Violent Conflict: Options and Actions* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2003).

¹² Bannon and Collier, op. cit. note 11. Ian Smillie, *Conflict Diamonds: Unfinished Business* (Ottawa, ON, Canada: International Development Research Centre, 27 May 2002); U.S. Government Accounting Office, Critical Issues Remain in Deterring Conflict Diamond Trade (Washington, DC: June 2002), pp. 17–21. Robin Pomeroy, "E.U. Bids to Cut Down Worldwide Illegal Timber Trade," *Reuters*, 21 May 2003; Jeremy Smith, "E.U. Aims to Stem Illegal Rainforest Timber Trade," *Reuters*, 14 October 2003.

¹³ See, for example, the Campaign to Eliminate Conflict Diamonds in Washington, D.C., at www.phrusa.org/campaigns/sierra_leone/conflict_diamonds.html, Fatal Transactions Campaign in Amsterdam at www.niza.nl/fataltransactions/partner.html, Global Witness in London at www.globalwitness.org, Christian Aid in London at www.christian-aid.org.uk, and Project Underground in Berkeley, California at www.moles.org.

VIOLENT ENVIRONMENTS: A SUMMARY

By Nancy Peluso and Michael Watts

Violent Environments both provides a critique of the standard narrative of relationships between violence, resources, and environment put forth by writers in the field of environmental security and suggests alternative ways of understanding these connections. In the introduction to the book, Nancy Peluso and Michael Watts define violence as a site-specific phenomenon rooted in local histories and social relations, yet connected to larger networks of power relations and processes of material transformation. The volume's contributors—an interdisciplinary collection of anthropologists, geographers, sociologists, and historians—draw on rich bodies of literature not normally included in many policy, political science, or economics-driven debates over environment and security—namely, political ecology, agrarian studies, STS-studies, and the anthropology of violence. In contrast to more standard approaches, these contributions are not intended to merely identify the "environmental triggers" of violent conflicts; nor do the writers start from a presumed "resource scarcity." Rather, *Violent Environments* accounts for ways that specific resource environments (such as agricultural lands, tropical forests, or oil reserves), environmental processes (deforestation, conservation, or resource abundance), and cultural politics are constituted by, and in part constitute, the political economy of access to and control over resources.

We start with the entitlements by which different and differentiated individuals, households, and communities possess or gain access to resources within a given political economy. Our approach places great weight on how these entitlements are distributed, reproduced, and fought over in the course of shaping, and being shaped by, patterns of accumulation. We examine the changing contexts of nature transformation, who performs the labor, who bears the burdens, and how benefits are claimed, distributed, and contested. Transformations and instabilities in the conditions and characteristics of nature, environment, or natural resources produce concomitant “shiftings” of the positions of resource users, whether the poorest peasant or the most powerful transnational corporations. To begin to understand the complexities of violent environments, we argue, it is necessary to understand not only the actors—farmers, indigenous peoples, workers, the state, transnational capital—but also to locate them and their relations to each other in particular historical moments or conjunctures. Violence, as such, is thus best understood through examining the social relations within specific systems of accumulation and fields of power. The forms of violence, who engages them, and their dynamics are accordingly expanded, deepened, or contracted analytically.

We see the strength of this book as its contributors’ rejections of automatic, simplistic linkages between “increased environmental scarcity,” “decreased economic activity,” and “migration” which purportedly weaken states and cause conflicts and violence (Homer-Dixon 1994: 31). While these factors may certainly be present in situations where environmental

violence emerges, the authors in this book argue that they need to be both contextualized and theorized; in other words, they can not be viewed as unilateral causes of violence. Many times, such factors work in concert or are produced by violence.

We strongly disagree with the heavily Malthusian cast Homer-Dixon (1999) and others have given to what they call “environmental scarcity” and “violence.” In our view, and as other authors have argued (see, e.g., Ross, 1999, also Fairhead 2001), it is not simply *shortage* but also abundance that can be, and often is, associated with violence. Moreover, state or internationally sponsored processes of environmental rehabilitation or amelioration can have negative effects on competing users and produce violence as well—in conditions of both scarcity and abundance. Scarcity and abundance are historically (and environmentally) produced expressions of the kinds of social and political relations we mention above, and as such, should not be the starting point of an analysis. The case studies presented in the volume demonstrate time and again the great variation in forms of scarcity, abundance, and appropriation where violence occurs.

The authors in *Violent Environments* focus on the specific institutions and processes of production, accumulation, and resource access as well as the forms that nature and social relations take in aiming to understand the nature of resource conflict. This perspective ties all of our case studies together, although there is not a unity of vision imposed on the authors. Though most of our contributors, and we as editors, start from this approach, we all engage a variety of theoretical insights and grapple

with the strengths and weakness of a political ecology model. Political ecology represents a huge body of work, nearly 25 years in the making by geographers, anthropologists, and sociologists, working on resources, environment, culture and politics (see, for example Tim Forysth's review in *Critical Political Ecology*, 2003).

Violence as a set of social acts and relations ultimately stands awkwardly in respect to environmental concerns. The environment is increasingly present and yet frequently hidden by both the perpetrators and observers of violence alike. When *Violent Environments* came out (2001), very little work had explored explicitly the ways that environmental violence reflected or masked other forms of social struggle. In general, the ways different forms of violence systematically figured in environmental struggles was seriously under-theorized, despite the fact that global trends toward economic and political liberalization have brought an explosion of new property claims and protectionist strategies. Oftentimes, the resources and environments providing the fuel for capitalist expansion were kept out of view, as was the violence of their production. Some forms of resource development, including conservation, augment existing local tensions deriving from religion, ethnicity, gender, and class conflicts. Violent forms of surveillance and compliance are often used to enforce naturalized structures of resource control, but these are often obscured or hidden. As a result, the geographic and historical shifting of zones of peace and tension (Keane, 1996), and the manner and media of their representation, seem basic to an understanding of the changing contemporary landscapes of conservation and environmental management.

The papers in *VE* are organised in three sections, to suggest and illustrate three dynamic modalities of violent environments: (a) the forms, periodicities, and repertoires of environmental violence; (b) the intersection of violent extraction with resource and environmental characteristics; and (c) the normalization of environmental violence. The first set of papers examines *the patterns, tactics or rhythms of violence* and their associations with particular environmental relationships, particularly, but not limited to, those involving land. Authors in this section include Paul Richards, Nancy Peluso and Emily Harwell, James McCarthy, Iain Boal, and Aaron Bobrow-Strain. The second set examines *changing technologies of extraction and the changing loci of resource control in relation to the biophysical characteristics of resources or the environments* within which they are found. The authors in this section include Michael Watts, James Fairhead, Valerie Kuletz, Susan Stonich and Peter Vandergeest, and Paula Garb and Galina Komarova. The final set of papers examines *the coercive capacity of changing institutions of green governmentality and the normalization of violence*. In this section are papers by Roderick Neumann, Nandini Sundar, Amita Baviskar, and Ravi Rajan. Betsy Hartmann, in the introductory section, presents a systematic critique of the Project on Environment, Population, and Security.

Violent Environments has been deliberately constructed so that there are important continuities, overlaps, intersections and conversations amongst the authors. In particular, three themes cut across nearly all the papers: the direct and indirect roles of state agencies and actors in creating the conditions for and/or for mobilizing violence; the complex dialectics between resources

and identities (individual and collective) and the ways such identities are violently defended or contested; and the ways that community can be created from, maintained, and protected by violence. There are no automatic innocents in any of these relations and networks, nor is there necessarily a hope that some abstract state or force. We simply argue for better understandings of the specific ways in which history, memory, and the practices of people, states, and the forces of capitalism have come together violently.

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The book *Violent Environments* is available in paperback or hard cover from Cornell University Press. (ordering information on page 127)

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UNDERLYING CAUSES OF EXTREME CONFLICT AND TROPICAL FORESTS

By Wil de Jong, Deanna Donovan and Ken Ichi Abe

A close examination of many of the extreme conflicts in the 20th century shows an important link with tropical forests. Three-quarters of Asian forests, two thirds of African forests and one-third of Latin American forests have been affected by violent conflict. The last remaining tropical forests are located in areas that over the past two decades have been subjected to violent conflict.

Direct causal links between extreme conflicts and tropical forests seem obvious. Historically we have seen that forests provide refuge for warring factions of all sides. The American War in Vietnam was largely fought in forested areas. Nicaragua's Contras launched their attacks from the country's forests, and many settled there once the conflict ended. Drug lords favour forests because they not only provide land for illicit crop production and processing, but also shelter from state law enforcement agents. The drug lords and their armies who control cocaine production in Bolivia, Peru and Colombia operate in remote forest regions. Refugees from wars flee to forest areas because not only can they hide there, they can also find basic resources for survival. The refugees from Rwanda fled to the border region with Congo, and camped near or inside that country's rich forest. Forests also provide valuable commercial resources with which one or more of the parties can finance militia operations.

Timber sales have been one of the principal sources of funding for illegal arms shipments for paramilitary armies of the Liberian government in recent years.

The scholarly debates that try to explain social and environmental interaction, including tropical forests and extreme conflicts, can be divided into three camps:

- 1 The camp that holds that environmental scarcity is a key driver of future major conflicts. Some key authors in the 'scarcity' camp are Kaplan and Homer-Dixon.
- 2 The camp in the political ecology tradition that sees complex causes of major conflicts, including political tensions and dispossession of resources. This 'power' camp includes key authors such as Salih, Peluso and Watts.
- 3 The camp that explains major conflicts as a result of the availability of finance, in conditions of poor governance, and a low perceived value of human life. This 'opportunity' camp includes key authors, such as Collier and Hoeffler.

In 1994 Robert Kaplan¹ pronounced the environment will be *the* security issue of the twenty-first century. Natural calamities like spreading disease, deforestation, soil erosion, water depletion, air pollution and possibly rising sea levels in combination with exponential population increase, he predicted, will force large numbers of people to migrate, leading to conflicts where migrants and residents meet. Homer-Dixon² made a similar, although slightly different prognosis. He argued that it is not scarcity per se that causes the problem, as technological change will resolve that issue. Rather a combination of environmental scarcity, decreased economic activity and resulting migration together will weaken the state, eventually leading to internal conflicts

and rising violence.

Others take a different route to explain the link. Salih,³ like many others, argue that user rights and resource control are the key variables that link environment, environmental destruction and extreme conflict. Political ecologists commonly argue that highlighting the environmental in the explanations overlooks the political-economic roots of conflicts. Their argument is squarely opposed to the scarcity camp, because, they hold, it is erroneous to suggest that resource depletion and the poverty engendered lead to conflict. Rather it is the underlying power imbalance and political structures that result in environmental decline. Thus, Peluso and Watts⁴ argue that power lies at the root of conflict and it is not *how much* of a resource exists but *who* has access to its benefits. One recurring phenomenon is governments bringing in their own people and marginalizing the existing population. Extreme conflicts in most cases are the result of a long history of power usurpation linked to material control.

Proponents of the third camp⁵ observe that most contemporary conflict is civil or internal. Collier and colleagues conducted statistical analysis of a large number of cases to find correlations between factors that might be causally linked. Their analysis suggests that opportunity for rebellion explains many conflicts, while indicators of grievance did not. The availability of finance, they observed as one of the key factors positively correlated with opportunity; a second was primary commodities, such as diamonds or timber that can provide financial resources. Money from emigrants enhances opportunity and is another important source of funding for dissident groups. Poor governance increases the risk of the conflict actually

occurring. In addition, their analysis suggested that extreme conflicts emerge in areas with low rates of male secondary education enrollment and low per capita income, resulting in a low perceived value of human life. A 'nothing to lose' attitude dominates, facilitating individuals jumping at any opportunities for extortion and self-enrichment.

The ten cases discussed in a book edited by the authors of this article⁶ provide most evidence for the second or political ecology camp. In general, chapters on extreme conflicts and tropical forests focus on the impact of conflict on the forest environment or on populations who depend upon them. Quite a few conservationists have expressed worries about the impact of extreme conflicts on protected species and offered solutions. As significant as the impacts of actual conflict are, post conflict situations can actually lead to equally if not more damaging resource plundering. Post conflict situations in which remnant soldier groups need to find new futures may generate new, local conflicts over resources. The latter type of conflict supports the second argument, the political ecology explanation of extreme conflicts and tropical forests. Examples are given in the chapters that discuss political plunder in Cambodia, largely explained by a political reconfiguration in the country, or many of the existing conflicts in the tropical, forested areas of Africa.

Although the traditional role of forests as shelter may never be abandoned, it seems that the current role of forest as the source of financing is the most threatening. The link between forests and power is through 'resources' (i.e. timber) and markets, thus fiscal arguments raised by the third camp

cannot be ignored. Those who seek power must have the means to impose their will and for many these means ultimately derive from the liquidation of natural assets, too often forests. This process is increasingly facilitated by the advances in technology worldwide and the ready availability of eager commercial collaborators.

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REDUCING VIOLENT CONFLICTS OVER FORESTS

By Mary Melnyk, Jay Singh, Scott Bode, Kim Sais and Julie Kunen

Conflict financed or sustained through the harvest and sale of timber, or conflict emerging as a result of competition over timber or other forest resources is a major challenge to development, further impoverishing and contributing to instability in many countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America. The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) has taken a strong stance on the issue and is actively funding activities to reduce conflict while creating opportunities for sustainable livelihoods. Our comprehensive approach to directly reduce conflict includes rigorous analysis, strategy development, engaging staff and implementing activities in countries across the globe.

Analysis and strategies

Since 2001, USAID has been working with the Foundation for Environmental Security and Sustainability (FESS) to develop an environmental security framework to address a broad range of environmental issues, including deforestation, as they apply to regional security, stability and conflict. FESS' Environmental Security Assessment Framework (ESAF) is an analytical tool that assists in evaluating, assessing, prioritising and monitoring regional environmental threats. A field assessment in Nepal constituted a pilot test of ESAF. Further information can be found at www.fess-global.org.

As a first step for well-targeted and effective

programming related specifically to forests and conflict, in 2002 USAID commissioned the analysis *Conflict Timber: Dimensions of the Problem in Asia and Africa* (http://www.ardinc.com/html/projects/p_timber.htm). Its primary objective was a comprehensive examination of the economic, ecological, political, social and security dimensions of conflict timber in Asia and Africa. It profiles 14 countries with in-depth case studies of Indonesia and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Further in-depth analyses have been done for the Philippines and Cambodia. This analysis identified a strong link between conflict timber and poor, inequitable systems of governance. Ambiguous property rights to forests further promoted struggles over timber. Also, loose financial oversight generates opportunities for powerful individual actors (military, police, politicians) to engage in conflict timber activities.

To raise awareness and engage staff on the issue of forests and conflicts and other natural resources, a series of reports have been developed. These reports, entitled toolkits, should help staff develop strategies to reduce or prevent conflict. They are discussed in the paper by Feil and Voils (this issue, page 19).

Activities to reduce conflict over forest resources

USAID offices around the world are working on programs to reduce conflict over forest resources. Vital to many activities is the empowerment of local communities to manage their forest resources and the incorporation of natural resources management into programs to strengthen democracy and the rule of law. With USAID assistance in the Philippines, local governments and communities jointly

assessed forest status and decided on forest allocation while adopting and budgeting for forest use plans. The forest land use plans govern who has rights to the forests, law enforcement, forest protection, and production-related activities. In 2003, for example, 31 local governments committed \$270 000 to reduce illegal logging, place open-access areas under management, and mitigate forest-related conflicts on at least 670 000 hectares of forestlands.

Grants to local NGOs in Cambodia are working to resolve forest and land conflicts by disseminating information to communities on their legal rights in accordance with Cambodia's new Forestry and Land Laws. The NGOs will work with ethnic minorities to demarcate their ancestral lands, register these claims with provincial authorities and prevent the further encroachment of forests by immigrants. In response to communities' requests, the NGOs will also strengthen their capacity to organise and manage forests, while providing them with cell phones to report illegal logging to authorities. Likewise, in Ecuador, USAID support to the World Wildlife Fund assisted the Awa indigenous group to develop a new forest strategy that formally recognized their ancestral rights to the forest, thus helping to resolve an ongoing land tenure conflict.

There are many conflicts over forest and land use in the watershed areas of Lampung, Indonesia. Yet, now there are opportunities to address these conflicts because many government functions have been decentralized. Methods to negotiate land and forest disputes are being developed by the World Agroforestry Center (ICRAF) and partners, supported by USAID. Policy

dialogue on tenure and negotiations on land use have begun to yield significant results. Several agreements have been reached between farmer groups and local government. A consultative group composed of government officials, community members and non-governmental and research organisations has also been organised with ICRAF's assistance at the West Lampung district level and a framework policy for Integrated Natural Resource Management is currently being drafted.

In Senegal, conflict over use of forest resources arose between indigenous people and migrant farmers. A conflict assessment involving about 5 000 residents, development partners and businesses in the area identified pragmatic options for addressing the conflict, and an ensuing meeting opened dialogue for drafting an action plan. Subsequently, the community developed another action plan to promote sustainable management of the 73 000-ha Pata forest, creating forest-monitoring committees. This also strengthened democratic processes while reducing conflicts over these resources.

The Liberia Forest Initiative explicitly addresses conflict timber and the need for reform of the forestry sector. It is a United States government effort to help accomplish Liberia's transition from war to peace. To avoid the use of timber to finance conflict and to promote the gainful employment of ex-combatants, the program will establish a new system for competitive and transparent allocation of forest concessions, and it will employ ex-combatants for forest conservation. Furthermore, the program will work to gain rights for communities to manage forests. Other elements of the program will develop

regional collaboration for a cross-border peace park and a transparent process for the administration of budgets by Liberia's Forest Development Authority.

The future

USAID's approach is part of a growing concerted effort to address natural resources, specifically forests, taking into account the environment, corruption, government accountability, and economic growth so as to reduce conflicts, empower local populations and improve their health, and create conditions for sustainable growth. Working across regions and technical areas, USAID hopes to achieve multiple benefits for development by reducing conflicts over forests.

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MAINSTREAMING FOREST AND CONFLICT DYNAMICS IN DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION: A FOREST AND CONFLICT TOOLKIT

By Moira Feil and Olivia Voils

USAID emphasizes the need to closely link development cooperation to conflict management. In an effort to strengthen conflict management as a crosscutting theme, the Office of Conflict Management and Mitigation (CMM) was established in 2002. Recognising the complexities of violent conflicts and their multifaceted drivers, CMM commissioned a series of briefing papers on how conflict relates to various themes, including youth, health and natural resources. In the framework of this effort, the Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR; Bogor, Indonesia), the Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars (Washington DC), and Adelphi Research (Berlin, Germany) were asked to submit three papers on the linkages between conflict and water, minerals and forest.

The aim of these briefing papers is to raise awareness among mission employees on the links between different natural resources and conflict, and to assist USAID in their program development by integrating conflict prevention and natural resource management. Throughout the project it was clear that USAID required accessible and practical toolkits that would give employees on the ground a quick understanding of the major issues related to these natural resources and conflict as well as practical guidance on how to recognize and address such conflicts in their own work.

USAID specified that the briefing papers should inform development advisers in a concise and practical way about forest and conflict issues. The result was a toolkit comprising four sections: **key issues and lessons learned** summarizes the main linkages between forests and violent conflicts; **program options** give examples of innovative projects that address the key issues and illustrate how they can be tackled; the **survey instrument** lists one page of questions that should help practitioners identify forest-related conflict sensitivities in their working environment and related to their activities; and **contacts** lists prominent organisations and experts in the field of forests and conflicts. These sections are closely linked, with contacts relating to program options, the examples deriving from the lessons learned which in turn mirror the key issues.

One challenge in building the toolkit was the definition of conflicts. It was finally decided to include violence as a decisive factor, ranging from sporadic violent actions to large-scale civil violence and war. An immediate important concern is timber as a means to finance violent conflict, as in Burma, Cambodia, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Ivory Coast and Liberia. The issue of logging and related lower-scale conflicts has direct relevance for the work of development agents operating in diverse countries all over the world. This includes the questions of logging concessions, land and resource ownership, distribution of logging income and the social, cultural and environmental impacts of logging that can lead to distress and frustration. These lower-scale issues are in return embedded in larger structures and developments. A key crosscutting issue is governance, ranging from problems of

corruption to decisions on economic policy. Another key issue pointed out in the toolkit is the impact of violent conflicts on forests, which in return has effects on livelihoods and sustainable development.

Lessons learned relating to these key issues were gathered from reports, conferences and interviews with development agency representatives. These lessons turned out to be general and structural in nature and closely related to development work. They include the need for participation and partnerships to avoid conflicts over land and forest ownership and logging concessions and the related need to strengthen forest governance, which in return relates to crosscutting themes such as transparency and strong governance institutions. Some more specific forest-related lessons are the need to strengthen indigenous land rights and on the other hand, public procurement and corporate social responsibility.

For the section on program options, different sources were screened and European and North American development agents across the globe were interviewed by telephone. The resulting shortlist of examples reflects the diverging scale of the key issues raised, from broader governance initiatives (e.g. the FLEG process) to small-scale, local projects where for example stakeholder dialogues helped overcome conflicts within forest communities. The listed options illustrate the forest and conflict links raised in the first section and describe a selection of appropriate responses to (potential) conflict situations.

The survey instrument should help readers develop sensitivity to forest and conflict links and review their own projects and context in

that light. The questions relate to the underlying themes and should help the reader identify issues at different levels (local, structural etc.) from various perspectives.

The toolkit proved a challenging exercise due to the very tight space constraints. While the briefing paper cannot reflect the full complexity of forest and conflict links, it specifically informs a non-specialized but very active audience on this relationship. In view of this tool's structure as a vehicle for spreading important issues, insights and ideas, it would be interesting to expand and frequently update the program options section. Later, indicators relating to each of the program option approaches could be defined to enable development practitioners to identify progress in this area, and in a second feedback loop the toolkit could be enhanced and fine-tuned.

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PROTECTING NATURE IN WAR: HOW DIFFERENT STAKEHOLDERS CAN HELP

By Esther Blom

The issue of nature conservation during conflicts is often neglected, since the human tragedy and the necessary humanitarian aid are given preference over conserving ecosystems and species. However, preventing ecological disasters, habitat degradation and species extinction effectively contributes to maintaining the quality of people's environment, facilitating the restoration of livelihoods after and even during conflict; therefore, it deserves more attention from the international community.

Since its establishment in 1975, the Working Group Ecology and Development –a group of independent Dutch nature conservationists– has aimed to put neglected issues of development and nature conservation on the national and international agendas. Because the issue of nature in war was important and largely neglected, the Working Group organised an international seminar on the subject in 2000 and published the book "Nature in War, biodiversity conservation during conflicts" (Blom *et al.* 2000, eds.: Blom, E., Bergmans, W., Dankelman, I., Verweij, P., Voeten, M. & Wit, P. *Mededelingen No 37. Netherlands Committee for International Nature Protection. Publisher: Backhuys Leiden.- announced in this issue p 125*). Since then it has been fuelling the discussions on this subject through lectures at universities and international meetings. Members of the working group have also been contributing

to nature conservation in the field during and after conflicts through the CIMIC initiative (see below).

During the international seminar, a number of recommendations were formulated for the various stakeholders that may be involved in conflicts.

International nature conservation organisations need to establish cooperation with local groups because these are well informed on the current situation in the area and can often continue their work in the region even when a conflict has developed. Promoting cross-border cooperation is also important, especially in regional conflicts, since it could promote dialogue and contribute to peace building. It is of little use to start a conservation programme in times of conflict; the basis should already be there before the conflict starts. It is important to use any possible means (like humanitarian programmes) to stay in contact and to support the nature conservation network in the conflict area.

Local and international NGOs often must build or maintain relations with the various parties involved in a conflict, and must find their own way to fulfil their tasks. This requires evident neutrality towards the various parties even while cooperating with them and, where possible, creating greater awareness of the need to protect the environment and natural resources of the people affected by the conflict.

Local NGOs should seek diverse financial support. In times of conflict, this may even become crucial since donors are often inclined to withdraw their financial support when a conflict breaks out.

Donors should provide a certain degree of funding flexibility; flexible and independent minimum funding should be available, the use of which may be adapted to the situation. An example of a flexible funding mechanism is provided by the Netherlands Committee for IUCN (NC-IUCN). Their small grants (on tropical rainforests, wetlands, dry areas and purchase of nature areas) have supported numerous nature conservation initiatives of local NGOs during intensive or moderate conflicts. Some of these projects were specifically aimed at mitigating the impact of the conflicts but others were just focused on keeping the regular conservation work going, despite the chaotic and sometimes life-threatening situations.

Examples of small projects continuing in conflict situations

Two wetland projects in the lowlands and one project in the Himalayas in Nepal managed to continue work, albeit with restrictions, in the Government–Maoists conflict. In DR Congo a project by ‘*Promotion des Initiatives Locales*’ helped a group of refugees that had established themselves in an ecologically vulnerable area relocate to a new area and assisted them in developing sustainable agriculture. In Colombia, the Fundación Biodiversidad del Trópico protected the last remnants of the Middle Magdalena lowland forest in the Central Cordillera from expanding agriculture, infrastructure and mining, their work under threat from paramilitary groups in the area. In Burma, the Pan Kachin Development Society –supported by the Netherlands Committee for IUCN– started up awareness campaigns on environment and human rights, despite the high density of military in the state.

Governments or international entities considering intervention in an area of actual or potential conflict should include in the arguments the damage by armed conflicts to ecosystem functioning, biodiversity and natural resources of the local people. In this regard, the environmental sensitivity of the hosting areas should also be taken into consideration in managing and directing refugee flows.

Intervention forces should have guidelines for military and peacekeeping activities that include measures to prevent or limit, where possible, environmentally harmful activities. Awareness and sensitivity should be created among the staff on environmental issues in general and biodiversity issues specifically. Intervention forces should try to assess the actual damage that conflicts have imposed on the environment so that this information can be used when rehabilitating the area. Priority should be given to enabling those organisations that incorporate conservation of nature and natural resources in their activities.

An interesting development in this context is NATO's CIMIC initiative. CIMIC stands for Civil-Military Cooperation and involves six partner countries. Its main aim is to rehabilitate civil society in conflict areas. CIMIC has been active in the Balkan, Iraq and Afghanistan. It provides functional specialists –professionals with expertise that can be applied in the conflict areas. The five clusters of expertise are governance, humanitarian aspects, infrastructure, economy and trade (including agriculture). Environment and nature are not specific focal subjects but their importance is recognised. The Working Group Ecology and Development has a link with this task force through the recent participation of one

of its members as nature and environment specialist.

Consumers, governments and politicians should be clearly aware of the origin of the products offered from conflict areas such as timber, gold, diamonds or coltan and the violent circumstances under which the production takes place. Consumers should demand that the products they buy are clean in the sense that no bloodshed or environmental destruction should be involved in their production. Labelling of products, like the FSC label for sustainably produced timber, may be applied to other products as well. In some branches, as in the diamond industry, first steps have been taken to prevent trade in these products from conflict areas.

There is an urgent need for further information sharing and data collection in order to determine the actual impact of conflicts on the environment. International fora, involving the whole spectrum of stakeholders, could further strengthen and promote the mutual actions. Preventing and mitigating negative impacts of conflicts on nature should appear higher on the international and national agendas.

With thanks to Pita Verweij and Piet Wit

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FUELLING WARS WITH CONFLICT TIMBER

By Mike Lundberg and Alice Blondel

Disputes over the control of natural resources, such as oil, diamonds and timber are at the heart of many conflicts, with income derived from natural resources providing the funding for many more. Revenue from timber sales in particular has perpetuated some of the world's most brutal conflicts, providing the financial and logistical support with which governments and rebel groups have fuelled their war machines. The individuals involved in resource trading and the routes they use are often the same as those trafficking weapons and mercenaries. Moreover, the very nature of conflict precludes proper planning for the exploitation of natural resources and this almost invariably results in unsustainable practices and destruction of a resource that could have formed the basis of future sustainable development. Unless the nexus between natural resources and conflict is addressed, conflicts fuelled by resources such as timber will continue and active peace will remain elusive.

What is Conflict Timber?

Global Witness defines 'conflict timber' as that which 'has been traded in a way that drives violent armed conflict and threatens national or regional security'. The phrase was coined by Global Witness in 1999, and popularised through a UN report in 2001 on the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), where timber was one of many natural resources that have been fuelling

the world's deadliest conflict since WWII, with at least 3.5 million war-related deaths.

Conflict timber is distinct from illegally-sourced timber, which has been logged in contravention of national or international laws. However, in both instances important revenue is removed from the government's budgetary oversight, and often goes unnoticed by the international community. It is this lack of transparency and active oversight by domestic and international actors that allows the relationship of timber, weapons, mercenaries and cross-border trafficking of all three to continue.

A Global Problem

While it does not yet generate public concern like the trade in 'blood diamonds', the trade in conflict timber has fuelled violence in countries across the globe, including Liberia, Sierra Leone, Cote d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Burma, and Cambodia, and has facilitated endemic corruption and human rights abuses in many more.

In Liberia, the logging industry provided extra-budgetary income and logistics that facilitated weapons imports and support for foreign rebel groups, including the notorious RUF in Sierra Leone and the MPIGO and MJP in western Cote d'Ivoire. While the Liberian logging industry generated hundreds of millions of dollars annually, very little to none of that ended up being passed on as benefits to average Liberians as tens of millions of dollars worth of timber revenue went unaccounted for within the government. In the DRC, Zimbabwe's military involvement in the war there was compensated by a secret deal to award to a Zanu-PF company the world's largest timber concession, while timber revenue was used

to fuel fighters in the northeast of the country and exports were of such a significant amount that the market cost of timber in neighbouring Uganda dropped by half.

In Cambodia, the Khmer Rouge derived US\$10-20 million per month from illegal exports to Thailand, facilitated by the highest levels of the Thai government, the Thai military and Cambodia's two prime ministers at the time. While in Burma, which has been steeped in conflict for decades, timber revenue totalling over US\$280 million per year (in 2001) helps sustain the brutal military government, while rebel groups have also financed their war efforts through timber sales.

Dealing with conflict timber

There are various ways the international community can work to help ensure that conflict timber no longer provides funding and logistics to warring parties. One option is the imposition of UN Security Council (UNSC) sanctions: in May 2003, the UNSC imposed sanctions on the Liberian logging industry, for the first time explicitly recognising timber as a conflict resource that can threaten international peace and security. The sanctions have helped bring about the end to active conflict and have placed a number of logging industry actors on travel ban and asset-freeze lists. However, the sanctions are not a panacea, as armed groups continue to profit from domestic timber sales and there are numerous reforms to enact before the sanctions can be lifted, and the timber declared conflict-free.

In Cambodia, while the UN did not directly order timber sanctions, it endorsed and instructed peacekeepers and neighbouring states to uphold a government decision to

ban timber exports (S/1992/792). However, the ban went largely un-enforced, and thus to stop the trade Global Witness began documenting illegal timber exports to Thailand. Within days of Global Witness presenting its evidence in mid 1995, the Thai government closed its border with Cambodia, significantly reducing the Khmer Rouge's ability to fuel its conflict. Attention then turned to monitoring the borders, which the US government played an important role in, and lobbying other countries to encourage changes in Cambodia's forest-use policies. This has ultimately led to a number of reforms and the hiring of an independent monitor, but as in Liberia there are still ongoing problems of illegal logging and corruption related to the timber industry that remain to be addressed.

There is also a critical role to be played by importing companies, their financiers and customers. Just as consumers actively question the origins of some products—for genetic modification, child labour and fair trade—the same consideration should be given to whether timber products have fuelled human rights abuses and civil war. Due diligence by purchasers, their brokers and timber trade associations, in consultation with knowledgeable local actors, should highlight any links to conflict and determine whether or not trading in those products violates OECD guidelines or other national and international business practices. Similarly, local and international civil society should also do more research into the effects of the timber trade in conflict-prone areas, and use that evidence to lobby processors, retailers and consumers to secure more sustainable sources of wood. The various certification schemes available could, through an added awareness of the

geopolitical and social impact of the industry in a particular country or region, incorporate concerns over conflict timber. In the absence of a UNSC resolution, timber-importing countries could also impose smart sanctions on a unilateral or multilateral basis, as Article XXI(c) of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) provides for exemptions relating to security concerns.

Increasing UN capacity regarding conflict timber

As the UN is often called upon to sort out a conflict, it is critical that it expand its capacity to effectively deal with conflict resources. In addition to timber sanctions, Liberia marked first time that a UN peacekeeping mission was specifically mandated to help a government assume full control over its natural resources. Such consideration of natural resources should be mainstreamed into all UN activities. The UN should also adopt a policy to secure only legal and sustainable sources of timber for reconstruction, lest those purchases fuel more corruption or conflict.

The UN should build upon its broad institutional knowledge of conflict resources and the way in which the trade in natural resources, arms and mercenaries are interlinked. Creating a permanent or semi-permanent body to manage such information and conduct its own research would be an efficient move, ensuring the retention of Expert Panel evidence, updating of information on resource and weapons trafficking networks, and deepening the UNSC's understanding of the economic and logistical levers it can use to address instability and conflict. This would afford the UN greater capacity to engage in preventative planning by the Secretariat and

UN missions, and develop more effective responses by the UNSC should crises arise.

Conclusion

The problem of conflict timber is global in scope, and an appreciation of its scale and ability to perpetuate conflict essential. While there are many ways to tackle the problem of conflict timber, progress will be based not upon the immediate policy successes or government decree but on the efficacy of ongoing reforms, with sustainable and transparent management of timber resources. Such success will ultimately depend on the actions and understanding of the UN, donor community, national governments and civil society that—fundamental to ensuring active peace and long-term security—they must sever the links between natural resources and conflict.

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BEYOND TREES: FORESTS, WAR, AND UNEASY PEACE

By Kheryn Klubnikin and Douglas Causey

In 1899 the first Hague Peace Conference convened 100 delegates from 26 countries, including three of the first recipients of the Nobel Peace Prize. All had high hopes for peace in the coming century. The countries represented 75 percent of the world's people and resources, largely a consequence of colonial rule that acquired by force natural resources, goods, and human labour. From our viewpoint today the Peace Conference was strangely silent on the linkages among inequity, civil instability, and violent conflict. There was no mention at all of the status and use of natural resources –such as forests– in peace or in war. King Leopold of Belgium, allowed sole ownership of the Congo by the world, was an icon for the terrible paradox. Between 1880 and 1920, his ruthless and violent exploitation of its forest resources directly caused the deaths of approximately 10 million people, half of the total population. The area still suffers from conflict and violence over forests and governance.

We know today that forests are central to the life of the planet, covering 40 percent of the earth's terrestrial surface and harbouring 80 percent of its biodiversity. They are crucial to the generation and quality of freshwater flow and are key to atmospheric maintenance. Most of the low-income populations classified by the World Bank having subsistence economies are rural and highly dependent upon local economies and resources. For example,

biodiversity in the Andes and Amazonia is both a crucial local process and a global public good –encompassing food security, health care, and local as well as global environmental quality.

Viewing biodiversity as a global or primarily economic resource only may ignore the important local uses and meanings critical for peace and stability among indigenous and traditional peoples. Unless these values are taken into account, economic decisions can have unanticipated adverse impacts on ecosystems, with a variety of cascading effects on subsistence agriculture, irrigation and other water uses, pollination, crop improvement and protection, and possibly more.

Throughout the world natural forests are the most extensive and accessible terrestrial resources. They are the environmental bank of capital and credit supporting individual subsistence and community resilience, as well as a growing global demand for wood fibre. However, elite groups seek to concentrate wealth from forests by extraction and exploitation, wasting the essential capital of the earth's life support, damaging the global fabric of biodiversity and exhausting the environmental assets of the local resource-dependent poor. Rampant deforestation from unrestricted exploitation impacts regions far larger beyond the forest boundary, unraveling the quality and structure of biodiversity, ecosystem services, public health, and environmental stability.

Recent studies have shown that deforestation acts as a significant predictor of social disintegration, civil instability and armed conflict. In over 120 countries, deforestation has been found to be inversely

related to the strength of the rule of law, with general lawlessness and dysfunctional governance acting as key factors. “Disinvestments” in forest ecosystems appear to reflect a breakdown in governance. Elites, such as a controlling rebel group, members of a ruling junta, or other economic interests profit in the chaos of loss. Primary commodities such as forests are lootable resources inviting rapid economic over-exploitation, the essential fuel of civil wars –the dominant form of conflict since 1946. Their origins are perplexing and not well researched. Many lack a distinct beginning or end. They last almost twice as long as interstate wars, consume the societies in which they occur, and take billions in world aid and finance to rebuild. Women and children are the primary casualties, and many children are forced into fighting.

Despite these trends, the concepts of international security that emerged from the end of World War II through the present continue to focus on sovereign leadership and hegemony, regional alliances and nuclear weapons. Current international security theory does not seem to address the fundamental challenges presented by forest losses, environmental degradation and civil wars to the global population. Protection of the environment, resource management and individual human welfare form a new and growing security challenge that relates closely to ecological practice and global policy. Ultimately it reflects a calculus about who has access to, and control of, the essential support functions of the natural world.

Gifford Pinchot, the first Chief of the US Forest Service, said in a famous address given in 1940: “Conservation is clearly a

world necessity...international cooperation in conserving, utilizing, and distributing natural resources...might well remove one of the most dangerous of all obstacles to a just and permanent world peace...”. In 1908 he had worked with Theodore Roosevelt on an international meeting for which invitations had been sent to countries, but which was stopped by a turnabout in the Presidential election. Until his death in 1947 Pinchot fought for a world environment conference and its implication for peace. In 1949 the UN held such a meeting, but it fell far short of Pinchot's dream.

We believe that the nexus of conflict and the environment is already shaping the trajectory of societies and our common planetary future. Science, particularly the ecological sciences, urgently need to work with the peace and conflict community and with the rest of society. There is a need to identify the prospects for the environment as an important element across several scales that can help shape confidence building, reconciliation, and peace.

A list of references is available on request from kklubnikin@fs.fed.us

We thank P. Aspiri for his comments.

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2. AFRICA

THE MANO RIVER CONFLICTS AS FOREST WARS

By Paul Richards

The Upper Guinean forest belt of West Africa –from eastern Sierra Leone to western Ghana– is prized for its biodiversity; especially the Liberian forests. The area around the Nimba Mountains –where Liberia, Guinea and Cote d'Ivoire meet– is among 25 most important biological “hot spots” of global conservation significance. It is also home to four of Africa's current or recent civil wars.

Civil war began in Liberia on 24th December 1989 with an incursion into Nimba County by fighters seeking to overthrow Samuel K. Doe's government. The major faction was led by a dissident Americo-Liberian, Charles Taylor. Groups with connections to the war in Liberia became involved in conflicts in neighbouring countries (Sierra Leone, Guinea, Cote d'Ivoire). The Revolutionary United Front (RUF), launching its rebellion from forests on the Liberian border, fought successive governments in Sierra Leone from 1991 to 2002. Insurrections against President Conteh of Guinea flared in 2000, especially in forested districts adjacent to Liberia, assisted by the RUF. War resumed in Liberia, 1999-2003, when groups backed by Guinea, Sierra Leone and Cote d'Ivoire tried to unseat Charles Taylor, president since elections in 1997. Fighting erupted in Cote d'Ivoire in 2002, when an army revolt divided the

country into a government-controlled forest belt in the south and a rebel-controlled savanna north. President Gbagbo's government also faced a second insurgency, launched by the Mouvement Populaire Ivoirien du Grand Ouest (MPIGO), in forested terrain around Danane, the town from which Charles Taylor's faction first launched its invasion of Liberia. After 15 years, the wheel of forest war had come full circle.

Unemployed young people, with little education and poor job prospects, join militias to escape a life of grinding poverty. Once skilled in war, the fighters move among the factions with little regard for national boundaries. The four Upper Guinean forest conflicts are sometimes referred to by the name of the river that threads its way through the thick forests along the border between Liberia and Sierra Leone. Increasingly, it is realised these Mano River conflicts require regional solutions. Since the forest is a common element it is worth asking whether the forest itself contributed to war, and if so, how forest management might assist conflict resolution.

The Liberian war was substantially funded by logging operations. Ambassador William Twaddell, testifying to the Africa sub-committee of the US House of Representatives in 1996, estimated the Taylor rebels gained \$75 million annually from diamond, timber and rubber exports. Liberia accounts for about 40 percent of the remaining Upper Guinean forest. Timber exports (mainly to France) from ports controlled by Taylor was valued at \$53 million per year during the period 1990-94, funding purchase of cheap Eastern European arms and ammunition. The Liberian Constitution of 1986 requires natural resources to be

managed “in such a manner as shall ensure maximum feasible participation of Liberian citizens under conditions of equality”. After Charles Taylor became president of Liberia he took over the granting of concessions by decree. From 1999 timber was the regime’s main source of support, accounting for half of export earnings and 20 percent of GDP. The main concessionaire –the Oriental Timber Company– exported timber worth \$36 million in 2000 and \$43 million in 2001. Total Liberian timber exports in 2001 were estimated at \$80 million.

Taylor’s support for the RUF in Sierra Leone gained him international notoriety. The Security Council authorised a sanctions regime, including a ban on international trade in “all round logs and timber products originating in Liberia” (SC Resolution 1521 of 2003) to deprive combatants of their revenue. A weakened Mr Taylor, under military pressure from two directions, agreed to a Nigerian offer of asylum and vacated the presidency in August 2003, being replaced by an interim government of national unity, pending elections in 2006. Meanwhile, a 15000 -strong United Nations peacekeeping force has deployed throughout the country, and demobilization of armed factions has begun. UN peacekeeping forces, backed by British troops, had earlier brought an end to the long-running conflict in Sierra Leone, and successfully disarmed c. 70000 combatants. French troops were deployed between the factions in Cote d’Ivoire, and the Guinean rebels appear to have been defeated militarily. There is now a chance to end all four conflicts, but lessons need to be learned.

The Upper Guinean forest has proved an ideal environment for low-intensity guerrilla warfare, in which the agents were often irregulars recruited from among

marginalized rural young people skilful in bush survival. The tactics were largely based on ambush and raiding, drawing extensively on local knowledge of forest by-ways. Ill-equipped government troops in Liberia and Sierra Leone had little capacity for a kind of jungle warfare the American army found daunting in Vietnam. Air attacks –by Nigerian peacekeeping forces– probably inflicted more casualties on civilians than on rebels, well hidden in caves and other secure recesses in the forest. The RUF in Sierra Leone became especially adept at this kind of jungle warfare, until flushed into the open by the night vision equipment and helicopter gunships of South African mercenaries.

A factor in war spreading from Liberia to Sierra Leone, Guinea and Cote d’Ivoire has been that significant portions of the international borders these countries share with Liberia are thickly forested. Cross-border forest populations are often linked by kinship and marriage, and much local commerce and social interaction takes places via unregulated cross-border forest tracks and footpaths. The rebels mingle with the locals, promising to help right ancient wrongs –e.g. land or chieftaincy lost through the arbitrary imposition of colonial borders or the expropriation of allegedly “empty” land as government logging or conservation reserves. British post-war aid to Sierra Leone has emphasised retraining a national army equipped to defend its borders. But there is only so much that can be achieved with better maps, night vision goggles and counter-insurgency know-how. A radical answer would be to cut down the forests. Some roadside gallery forests on the Liberian border, protected by local chiefs for the benefit of travellers from pre-colonial times, were cleared by the Sierra Leone army in the early 1990s to create free-fire

zones to fight the RUF. But massive deforestation for military strategic purposes seems as impractical as it is unthinkable. What are the alternatives?

A sound approach would be to tackle the problems driving young people into the forests to fight. Post-war studies with ex-combatants in Sierra Leone and Liberia identified lack of access to education and poor job prospects as two major factors disposing young people to fight. Demobilization in Sierra Leone included major emphasis on skill training. The battle is now to provide jobs. This is not just an economic problem but also an issue of political reform and human rights. Throughout the region many young people are excluded by poverty and accident of birth from education, access to land and even citizenship (as among Muslim migrants into the forests of southern Cote d'Ivoire). Local land and labour laws lead to young people remaining within traditional communities to be exploited by codes of deference reflecting social values inherited from an era of domestic slavery. An AK47, allied to bush survival skills, buys a temporary escape, but many fighters soon become war-weary, recognising that militia life is unsustainable. The career of Nixon Gaye –a Liberian child soldier recruited in Nimba County by Charles Taylor's militia– exemplifies the problem. A fighter at 14, by the age of 17 he was leading the Special Forces assisting the RUF in eastern Sierra Leone, until sent back to Liberia by an RUF leadership appalled at his atrocities. Gaye then went to ground in a rubber plantation in Margibi County, where he and his wild teenage companions camped under the trees, reputedly subsisting on grubs and whatever they could hijack from relief supplies diverted through the plantation they

had been hired to protect. Too unstable to be incorporated in Charles Taylor's regular forces, Gaye's group was chartered for high-risk missions behind lines controlled by Nigerian peacekeepers. This appears to have included a terrible massacre at Harbel apparently undertaken to discredit Liberian government forces. Gaye was eventually wounded and taken to Gbarnga, Taylor's base, where he was killed, aged 20. He had become a liability when the Liberian factions were edging towards a peace deal. Some ex-combatants remain attracted to imitate Gaye's short-lived infamy, but most see little point in burning out so quickly.

What is not in doubt is the capacity of these young fighters to endure in remote bush conditions many others would find intolerable. Is there a more positive way to make use of the capacity of young West African fighters to survive in the forest? Forestry itself holds few prospects. Sierra Leone, Guinea and Cote d'Ivoire are largely logged out. Liberia has enough timber, but the sector only employs 7000 people. Concessionaires bring in skilled operatives. There may be better prospects in tree-crop planting. Would ex-combatants qualify? Many fighters in the Mano River conflicts joined militias to help protect their families and communities. They are often welcomed home. Where they enjoy land rights planting rubber or oil palm is an option. The training component of demobilization in Sierra Leone did not give enough emphasis to the design and implementation of tree crop packages. This needs to be remedied in Liberia. Fighters less certain of their reception are often interested in work that signals their renewed commitment to society. In urban areas, some ex-combatant groups have moved into socially necessary but unattractive work such as rubbish

collection. In rural areas, land resource management provides similar scope to demonstrate social worth. In fact, several RUF groups, retaining their band structure from the bush war, have moved into cooperative agricultural development. One such group has rehabilitated swampland destroyed by alluvial diamond mining. Perhaps ex-combatants could undertake a range of other land resource recovery, maintenance and protection tasks, including forest protection? The challenge is to rethink environmental protection in terms of work that will help stigmatised ex-combatants prove their social worth. In both symbolic and practical terms this would be a proper antidote to the poison of forest war in West Africa.

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CONFLICT TIMBER AND LIBERIA'S WAR

By Arthur G. Blundell

In 2002, forestry accounted for an estimated 22 percent of Liberia's GDP and half of its exports. Forests are important to the 85 percent of Liberians who are unemployed and many of who rely on shifting cultivation. However, forests have also been a source of instability. Over the past two decades, timber has funded conflict and the security forces of logging companies have engaged in widespread human rights abuses, including massacres. To eliminate this 'conflict timber', the United Nations Security Council (UN) banned the export of forest products from Liberia in 2003. The sanctions remain and the UN has demanded reform of the forest sector to prevent revenue from funding the resumption of violence. This paper summarizes the history of the conflict, the role of timber, and the use of targeted sanctions.

In 1820, rather than receiving their liberty in the USA, 86 ex-slaves were sent to West Africa to found a new country: Liberia. Their descendants, less than 3 percent of present-day Liberians, ruled until 1980, when a semi-literate sergeant seized power. Samuel Doe's kleptocracy lasted a decade until the cold war ended and with it, Liberia's strategic importance. With failing support from the USA, Liberia descended into a brutal civil war, lead by the Libyan-trained insurgent Charles Taylor. Exploiting ethnic animosity, Taylor soon captured most of the country, which gave him control over Liberia's lucrative natural resources.

In 1997, under a UN-backed peace accord, Taylor agreed to general elections. Liberians understood, however, that if he did not win, he would not relinquish power. Under the campaign slogan ‘*You killed my ma, you killed my pa, but I’ll vote for you*’, Taylor won in a landslide. But the international community offered little support, especially when Taylor backed the RUF rebels in neighbouring Sierra Leone. Liberia’s civil war spread when Guinea backed another faction, the LURD.

Given ongoing conflict and the limited international engagement, the Liberian economy collapsed. As one of the few functioning sectors, timber was critical. Forestry attracted investment, notably about \$60 million by the Indonesian Oriental Timber Company (OTC). By 2002, timber was worth more than \$80 million a year and \$19 million in taxes, although the government could account for less than 15 percent. Between 1999 and 2001, OTC paid at least \$1.5 million to known arms dealers in lieu of taxes. In other cases, Taylor allegedly traded timber directly for arms. The notorious Ukrainian mafia boss, Leonid Minin, was awarded a logging concession, the Exotic Tropical Timber Enterprise.

Perhaps most devastating for Liberians, the timber companies employed private security forces –mostly militias associated with Taylor— to protect logging interests but also to gain access to new forests through the intimidation of local people. For example, in 1999, Taylor’s brother, the Managing Director of the Forestry Development Authority (FDA), required the Maryland Wood Processing Industries to pay the local commander, Sumo, \$4000 per month for security. Sumo and his soldiers

are accused of *inter alia*, entering Côte d’Ivoire to loot and to recruit new fighters, and attacking civilians who denied access to his militia. Eyewitnesses claim that Sumo directed the massacre of civilians at Youghbor in May 2003; in 2004, the UN uncovered more than 300 bodies at the site.

In an effort to end the conflict, in 2001 the UN banned the travel of the major combatants and their supporters, the import of arms and the export of diamonds from Liberia. The UN tried to be selective, using targeted sanctions with the largest impact on the conflict while minimizing humanitarian impact¹.

Despite the sanctions, regional security deteriorated considerably. The UN became frustrated with the lack of progress and came under intense NGO lobbying, by Global Witness in particular². In May 2003, the UN banned timber exports. In fact, the civil war had become so widespread that most timber companies had already withdrawn from the forest, fearing looting or worse.

By August 2003, the rebel groups were near Monrovia, and under mounting international pressure, including an indictment by the UN Special Court for crimes against humanity, Taylor went into exile in Nigeria. The world’s largest peacekeeping operation, UNMIL, deployed 15 000 troops. Under a peace accord, a national transitional government (NTGL) was installed, divided among the warring factions. The NTGL gave control over the FDA to one of the rebel groups, MODEL.

Despite Taylor’s departure, the UN remains concerned that forestry could lead to conflict once again. That threat is empirical, not hypothetical: the World Bank found that fully

half of countries recovering from war return to violence within a decade because of the misappropriation of funds from natural resources –exactly what has happened in Liberia. To avoid this, the UN insisted on three criteria before timber sanctions can be lifted: 1) security is established throughout Liberia; 2) money does not fund conflict; and 3) the NTGL and FDA must manage the forest to ensure legitimate use. UN monitors found that all three remain unmet³. The UN reviewed the sanctions 21 December 2004 and extended them for another year.

Although the FDA and NTGL have been slow to reform, the timber sanctions have been remarkably effective. At first the lack of logging was due to the war, but since UNMIL has been in Liberia, most of the logging companies have respected the sanctions.

The sanctions were targeted to stop conflict, but they have had other impacts. Some believe they hinder relief; under Taylor, UN humanitarian workers received death threats because of the sanctions. Sanctions also affect employment: about 8000 seasonal jobs, which paid \$100/month. However, most of the skilled labourers were expatriates (e.g., OTC brought more than 600 workers from Asia). Sanctions also reduce maintenance of logging roads that provided access to local people, but also to the military (e.g., Taylor paid OTC to build roads outside their logging areas). Some timber companies also operated clinics and renovated schools. However, data from the Liberia Forestry Reassessment⁴ indicate that communities in logging concessions were, on average, no better served than those outside.

Despite the sanctions and the importance

of forests to Liberians, international response has been slow. At the February 2004 UN conference, donors pledged \$500 million to rebuild Liberia but forestry was not even on the initial agenda. The World Bank assessment team before the conference did not have a forestry expert. Since then, however, the US government has dedicated more than \$4 million to reform, and the World Bank, EC, FAO and IMF are collaborating. Rather than promote logging, environmental NGOs, such as Conservation International and Fauna and Flora International, have plans to increase 'peace' parks in Liberia.

History shows that countries recovering from war are as likely as not to return to conflict when revenue from natural resources is misappropriated. Once sanctions are lifted, buyers of Liberia's wood should insist that wood is tracked through the chain of custody from stump to export to ensure that only legitimate timber enters trade. Otherwise, international buyers may be fuelling the next war. Until the necessary reforms are implemented, Liberia, the massive investment in its recovery, and the world's largest peacekeeping operation remain at grave risk.

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¹ smartsanctions.ch/interlaken1.htm

² globalwitness.org/reports/show.php/en.00026.html

³ Ods-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N04/354/44/IMG/N0435444.pdf?OpenElement

⁴ An EU-funded project operated by Fauna and Flora International and Conservation International in conjunction with the FDA.

PILOTING COMMUNAL FORESTS IN LIBERIA IN THE POST-CONFLICT PERIOD

By Jamison Suter

After the recent period of conflict in Liberia, aspects of which are discussed in other papers in this issue (Richards, page 29, Blundell, page 32 and Melnyk et al, page 17), with President Taylor's departure to Nigeria and the arrival of largely Nigerian peacekeepers in August 2003, the largest UN peacekeeping mission in history started in October 2003. Soon thereafter a National Transitional Government took power, the Constitution was suspended for two years and positions in Government were divided among LURD, MODEL, Taylor's supporters and 'Liberian civil society'.

Many development and diplomatic agencies sent in representatives and conducted assessments on the country's reconstruction needs. All of these acknowledged the role of the forest sector in fueling national and regional instability, as well as the sector's potential in providing jobs and funding reconstruction, directly and indirectly (for example infrastructural improvements funded by timber companies improving the national transportation network and port operations).

While the commercial aspects of Liberia's forest sector were frequently highlighted, the community- and conservation-related aspects received much less attention. However, reform of the Forestry Development Authority (FDA) was regularly cited as key to meeting the UN Security Council (UNSC) criteria for lifting timber sanctions, even though officially these are limited to the Government regaining control of the timber-producing regions and ensuring that all revenues from the sector are properly managed and used as intended by Liberian law and regulations, and for the benefit of the Liberian public. In response, the FDA prepared a Road Map to Lifting UNSC Sanction[s] on Log and Timber Trade in Liberia: Basic Reforms in the Forestry Industry, which outlined that in addition to reviewing past and all existing concessions and reforming financial management, the country must balance the FDA Managing Director's "three Cs" of forest management: Commercial, Community and Conservation objectives. This has formed the basis for Fauna and Flora International's (FFI's) interventions in Liberia since 2004.

Two of the three Cs have legal and empirical precedents in Liberia, but management of forests by Communities has not yet been pursued by Government. Looking to the future, FFI and the FDA will pilot establishing communal forests (CFs), specifically in the forests and with the villages surrounding Sapo National Park.

The Act for the Creation of a Protected Forest Area Network (October 2003) defines a communal forest as an "Area set aside temporarily by regulation or legally [deeded to communities] for sustainable use of forest products by local communities on a non-commercial basis. No prospecting,

mining, settlement, farming or commercial timber extraction [is permitted]. Other uses [are] regulated by [the] designated local community with assistance from the relevant government authority.”

From this definition, the principal objective of a CF appears to be for communities to use forest products sustainably and on a non-commercial basis in order to improve rural living standards and income, while decreasing vulnerability to crises. However, communal forests contribute to additional objectives. Establishing CFs around the Park should secure a forested buffer zone in perpetuity, and will be integral to maintaining forest connectivity between Sapou Park and other proposed protected areas in south-east Liberia.

Current development models pursued by Government and many INGOs in Liberia view forests as symbolic of a lack of development. By piloting CFs and closely evaluating the results, this initiative will develop and promote nationally an alternative development model that values forest resources in rural communities' economies as a critical component of rural subsistence, income-generation and risk-reduction strategies.

Finally, CFs are intended to improve governance in Liberia. They should render a portion of Liberia's forests off-limits to the Monrovia-based elite that traditionally has hardly considered rural villages' interests or rights in forest management. This should decrease the incentive to both this elite and rebel groups to seek control of these areas for private ends. Removing thus one of the 'prizes' of political office or rebel activity would improve long-term civil stability, improve rural Liberians' welfare and decrease the

discontent that can feed civil conflict.

Future challenges

As the communal forests pilot project begins in Liberia, many major challenges can be predicted, four of which are highlighted below.

- 1 By creating communal forests, Liberia would take forests out of commercial timber production. CFs would represent a revolutionary presence if widely replicated, seriously challenging almost 160 years of Monrovia-centered governance. Thus its acceptance by the current elite will likely be a struggle, especially after the incentive of lifting sanctions is removed.
- 2 Successful communal forests will depend upon, among other things, vastly improved governance and a reliable court system. Can CFs be established without comprehensively addressing the overarching problems of weak governance and deeply rooted poverty?
- 3 Successful establishment of CFs requires that the basic institutional unit – the 'community' – be a clearly defined, functional entity or grouping. However, traditional authority structures are weakened after nearly 15 years of civil instability. Can they be relied on, especially in a context of such fluid demographics?
- 4 Four different agendas are to be pursued through the communal forest mechanism: (i) securing rural Liberians' rights to forest resources and improving their livelihoods and livelihood security, (ii) conserving biological diversity, (iii) elaborating a new development model fully valuing forest resources, and (iv) reforming and strengthening governance nationally. While all four objectives may currently be met via CFs, in time these agendas will inevitably diverge. When this happens, different stakeholders will pull in different directions for CFs to favour their agenda. For example,

once communities are confident of their formal ownership of a CF, they could exert pressure for the forest to be used mostly for income-generation (cash crop production, timber sales, NTFP and bushmeat export) in a manner that might compromise its biodiversity conservation function or would require a liberal re-interpretation of the phrase “on a non-commercial basis” from a CF’s legal definition. Also, CFs could become highly politicised if they end up playing a large role in changing the governance and balance-of-power landscape in Liberia.

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THE CAUSES OF VIOLENT CONFLICTS IN FOREST REGIONS

By Jean-Richard Mutombo

For several decades, armed conflicts have menaced stability and natural resources in a number of African countries. Each African country has been torn apart by different armed conflicts. In this context it is difficult to establish a uniform model that explains the causes and consequences of what is referred to as ‘the new wars’. We will speak of the conflicts in the Democratic Republic

of Congo, a country where the forest constitutes the ‘second lung of the world’, after the Amazon. The causes of this conflict include:

1 The unequal allocation of lands (in the neighbouring countries)

Land problems are severe in Congo’s small neighboring countries, most notably in Rwanda and Burundi. Due to this, these two states wage a merciless war against the Republic of Congo. They do so under the pretexes of protecting the Rwandan speakers and hunting down those responsible for the genocide. These neighbours cross the Congolese border in order to take control of pastures and arable lands. Armed conflicts arise between native populations and the intruders in the eastern regions of the country; areas which are celebrated for their diversity.

2 Other, well known causes

These deal with the illegal extraction of raw materials (COLTAN and diamonds); instability, acuteness of poverty and its consequences: housing and food supply crises, and the weakening of local power.

The impacts of armed conflicts and post-conflict situations on the forest-dwellers

General consequences of armed conflict are the following: disruption of democracy, economic activities, agricultural production and trade; increased dependence on natural resources; a plethora of circulating weapons, massive population movements, raised taxes, drop in financing.....

The negative impacts of the conflicts on the environment are:

- Invasion of protected areas and the destruction of habitats,

- Illegal exploitation of resources is exacerbated,
- Interest in conservation among authorities declines, as new priorities are set,
- Conservation officials are threatened,
- Pollution of certain areas corresponds to the influx in population and
- There is an erosion of biodiversity.

The consequences of conflicts and post-conflict situations on conservation are:

- Interruption of field activities,
- Reduction in capacities,
- Stagnation in policy making and execution and
- Reduction in support from donors

Forestry and conservation activities during conflict and post-conflict situations

It is frequently held that conservation activities do not represent a priority during periods of conflict. However, when one takes into account that the livelihoods of the people are directly dependent on natural resources, the environment must be considered.

It is then necessary to:

- Try to maintain a presence throughout the conflict (monitoring),
- Provide access to information concerning biodiversity to all governmental agencies and NGOs working in the region,
- Try to pursue funding for conservation projects,
- Encourage training of high-level professional staff, since frequently they are affected by the conflicts,
- Maintain good means of communication,
- Try to keep a neutral position,

- Make an effort to work with other sectors (for example, the humanitarian sector) and
- After the conflict, be ready to resume working as soon as possible.

Ways to reduce violent conflicts in forest regions

Each case of violent conflict is unique. However, one must bear in mind that in order to prevent conflicts and maintain peace, it is necessary to consider the following issues:

- Communicate with, inform, and involve all parties at all levels,
- Study and take into greater account the traditional systems for resolving conflicts, and integrate them into conservation practices,
- Integrate conservation activities with those of other sectors,
- Adopt, and assure the compliance of, the holistic approaches that take into account the needs of the population,
- Encourage negotiation and conflict resolution, and
- Increase political involvement in conservation.

During the post-conflict period, it is necessary to put in place environmentally sound governance strategies. It is, however, difficult to raise awareness among the public and policy-makers to place the environment on the list of priorities.

The second obstacle to overcome involves the relatively marginalized position that the environment occupies in state affairs. Environmental Ministries hold very little power.

Finally, it is useful to emphasize the problem of reconciling western and African perceptions on natural resource management. Conservation, even on a very subjective basis, is essential to many westerners. Economic development is more important to most African policy makers. A balance between these two objectives, unfortunately, is not readily found. However if this balance and the balance between territorial integrity, involvement of the authorities and partnership with the population are not attained, natural resources will be exhausted. In turn, this rich heritage will not benefit the local population, nor will it provide the fruits of development or better environmental management.

The war in the Democratic Republic of Congo has resulted in the institution of a structure for controlling protected areas. It is called the Network of Protected Areas of Central Africa. It guards against military actions within parks and other protected areas. As many Congolese as foreigners are involved. World heritage areas and areas of local interest are being saved from the numerous consequences of the war that are listed above.

This network will continue to reflect on ways of creating other protected areas, in order to reach the objective of 15% of the national territory of the Democratic Republic of Congo.

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WHY ARMED CONFLICT PERSISTS IN THE KIVU REGION OF THE CONGO (DRC)

*By Robert Mwinyihali, Terese Hart and
Henri-Paul Eloma*

During the last three decades, the history of sub-Saharan Africa has been filled with armed conflicts. Among the most notable are the wars that tore apart Angola, Mozambique, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Chad, Rwanda, Ethiopia, Uganda, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Sudan, and most recently Ivory Coast. By around 1999, twenty African countries were being subjected to open fighting, either sporadic or continuous. Few of these conflicts actually set one country against another as happened in the case of Ethiopia and Eritrea. Most of these wars were internal even though, for a number, they eventually drew in neighbouring states. That is the case of the Rwandan civil war that caused two million refugees to flee across borders and for the conflicts in DR Congo to which seven other countries contributed troops and arms.

Political reasons, such as ideology, power disputes, leadership vacuum; or socio-economic reasons, e.g. religion, ethnicity, access to natural resources, include all the most fundamental reasons driving the sub-Saharan unrest. Since 1996, DRC has been at war. If the first battles, making up the so-called "war of liberation", were part of an expedition to chase out the autocratic regime of Mobutu Sese Seko, this is no explanation for the subsequent bloody battles that started in August 1998. The opposition is far too bitter and recalcitrant.

The Agreements of Sun City and of Pretoria signed in 2002 and 2003 by all the major belligerents officially brought an end to the war. A transition government was put in place for a period of two years operating on the basis of a mutually approved document, the Global and Inclusive Agreement.

Despite political processes that seem to be steering the country towards reconciliation and unification, one geographic area remains a stubborn source point for armed conflict and persistent political resistance. Both political and socio-economic roots continue to feed the hostilities in the far-eastern provinces of North and South Kivu that border Rwanda.

The political tinder that seems to have been the most caustic concerns national identity which was denied an important part of the population of Rwandan origin living in the Kivu provinces. Historically, in 1972, a law was adopted that gave Congolese nationality, collectively, to all refugees or transplanted Rwandans. Ten years later, in 1982, this law was rescinded and replaced by another that only recognized citizenship that was acquired on an individual basis by naturalization. Thereby, hundreds of thousands of peasants saw their Congolese nationality withdrawn along with all the associated civil rights included access to land, administrative functions and political posts. In the long term, the question of nationality was a major lever jacking up the tensions of the region (P. Mathieu & A. Mafikiri).

The law concerning nationality has been at the center of debates in the transition Parliament. A proposed draft revision was submitted by the Presidential Cabinet and after extensive debates has just been

adopted by Parliament (September 2004). It recognizes Congolese nationality for all Rwandan refugees and other ethnic groups who were living in Congo as of June 30, 1960. The Congolese nationality is, however, exclusive meaning that no one can be both Congolese and Rwandan.

Socio-economic fuel for the on-going armed conflict is always somehow connected to the flammable issues of natural resources. The north eastern Congo, including more than half a million square km flanking the border of approximately 1000 km with Uganda, Rwanda and Burundi, is rich in fertile land excellent for both farming and pasturing, is rich in little exploited forest land, and is rich in economically important minerals including gold, diamonds, cassiterite (tinstone), Colombo-tantalite (coltan), wolframite and others. By contrast, the neighbour, Rwanda, is overpopulated, mainly denuded of forest, has decimated most of its animal resources, has large areas of infertile soils, and limited mineral resources. In consequence two important Rwandan protected areas became totally or partially declassified (Akagera and Gishwati) after the Popular Army of Rwanda (PAR) took power in Kigali in 1994.

Important to the resource wars in eastern DRC are continuing effects from the mid-70s when a severe economic crisis crippled the country. The crisis continued through the 80s with a unidirectional fall in export products, rampant inflation, progressive decay of all infrastructures, and the dramatic impoverishment of the population. Liberalization of mineral export was a measure taken by a "cornered" government in 1983 to relieve unemployment and boost the national economy. Unfortunately the decision opened wide the opportunities for

generalized black-market dealings across the borders to Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda and Tanzania and contributed to the bankruptcy of national mining companies. Burundi and Rwanda, for instance, became important exporters of diamonds and gold although their own mineral stocks are very minor. Coffee, papain, quinine, and timber found growing black-market routes to neighbouring countries. The mafiose trading networks became firmly engrained and reached well beyond Congo's immediate borders.

With the war, natural resources were exploited more intensively. It was no longer undercover, as the rebellion gained legitimacy through the Lusaka Accords (1999). This legitimized trade directly to the east without taxes to Kinshasa. During the first years of the war, Uganda and Rwanda traded through the DRC rebel movements that they effectively controlled.

Rwanda in certain respects extended its national territory into the Kivus with their forests and mineral resources. The war allowed for open transfer of Rwandan populations into the DRC provincial territories of Masisi and Rutshuru. Continuing instability permitted Rwanda easy access to the DRC forests with their mineral wealth – as these were claimed to be particularly dangerous and source of threat to Rwanda's legitimate frontiers.

The continued lack of clarity regarding the politico-military situation in the Kivus continues to destabilize two of DRCs richest national parks that have the misfortune of lying along the Rwandan border. The forests of Virunga National Park and Kahuzi Biega National Park are home not only to gorillas and elephants but also to gun-

wielding rebels and whole villages of miners exporting their ore to Rwanda. The forests, through their riches in timber, minerals, and ivory easily provide the financial means to continue the war and the wealth to specific individuals to motivate its prolongation. The real inability to build peace, however, comes from a large Rwando-Congolese population. As long as they fear that "peace" might push them from "little" to "nothing" it will be hard to assure a real peace.

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FORESTRY AND CONSERVATION ACTIVITIES DURING A WAR FOUGHT OVER LAND AND RESOURCES IN THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO

By Terese B. Hart and Robert Ducarme

During the recent civil wars in the Democratic Republic of Congo (1996-1997 and 1998-2003) there was a parallel walk out of private companies from forestry, and international organisations from conservation. Furthermore, the semblance of state authority in national level institutions which existed in the eastern tier of the country before 1998, dissolved as militias splintered, terrorized towns and appropriated forest domains. Now, during a period that a beleaguered population hopes is post-conflict, reconstruction is slow, dependent on demilitarization and withdrawal of "personalised" foreign ambitions.

Throughout this entire period, there has been a continuous drain of minerals, logs and ivory from the forests of eastern DR Congo into neighbouring countries. The volume of this exodus of wealth is reaching tsunami proportions without any trickle back to an institution capable of improving the situation of local people or the future prospects of their children. Protected Areas are being stripped and legitimate industry shackled.

Northeastern DR Congo with three entirely forested protected areas (Okapi, Maiko and KahuziBiega) was disconnected from the capital and the western 2/3 of the country

during civil war. This is the area of highest biodiversity in DR Congo and includes the Albertine Rift with its versant towards the central Congo basin. In this whole area there is but a single Forestry enterprise, ENRA, with an operational concession that had legal status prior to the war and has continued to function throughout the war.

Pre-War conservation

During the decade preceding the war, the Government of DR Congo (then-Zaire) had greatly diminished its investment in its parks and reserves. These relied increasingly on international conservation funding; however, about the time the cold war ended and following violent student repression in southern DR Congo, multi-lateral and bi-lateral funding for conservation all but disappeared. International support for a failed regime dwindled: The European Union had made large investments both in Virunga National Park and in Salonga National Park. It withdrew from both. The World Bank was in the final stages of confirming Global Environment Facility funds (GEF) for conservation work in Maiko and Okapi parks. It too terminated project development. Although UNDP stepped in and drafted an alternative GEF document in 1996 at the very beginning of the conflict, this multi-million dollar initiative never became operational throughout the following seven war-pocked years.

The largest international conservation NGOs began to draw back as well, reducing their presence to a "wait and see" mode only in the most "visible" of the protected areas.

Pre-war forestry

In the latter half of the 1980s various forestry companies proposed concessions along

a major road being built by German and Chinese companies linking Kisangani to Bukavu. Construction on the road itself was abandoned when foreign aid withdrew, and the concessions were abandoned before they went beyond the early stages of negotiations.

On the other hand, around the major inland city of Kisangani, the most upstream port on the navigable section of the Congo River, many active forestry enterprises were fully active up to the outbreak of war. This was the source of the profitable Afrormosia, as well as a major area of exploitation of African mahogany and particularly limbali.

War and Conservation

As the first waves of war ran over eastern DR Congo a few international conservation NGOs continued to support the protected areas but their expatriate representatives left the country. Usually the NGOs worked in a single protected area and had trained an important professional Congolese cadre. The first steps, therefore, consisted of re-establishing communication and salaries for national employees. These NGOs were able to respond because their sources of funds, although far more modest than those of the multi-lateral organisations came from less politically sensitive sources (private donors-USA who had tax breaks for charitable gifts, international zoos...) The only bilateral donor that continued to be involved was the German organisation, GTZ.

In all cases the determination to stick with a park through war was dependent on the decision and determination of certain committed individuals who then convinced their organisations.

A coalition of these NGOs, together with the national conservation institute, ICCN, approached UNESCO and the UN Foundation (UNF) for emergency support. A war-time grant for World Heritage Sites in danger was launched. Operational early in 2000, and disbursing funds through the still active NGOs, this was the most visible external donor. In actuality, however, several other non-private sources of funding were critical, also operating through NGOs. These included the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) and U.S. Central African Regional Program for the Environment (CARPE) as well as continuing support from the German government (GTZ).

It was this combination of backing that enabled ICCN with its NGO partners to make any stand at all against militia-facilitated poaching and mining.

War and forest enterprise

On several occasions Kisangani became the arena for prolonged and particularly brutal fighting. Pillaging was general and all enterprises, including forestry operations, were victimized. All foreign-owned and -run forestry enterprises shut their doors and let off their employees. Nor was there any market outlet from Kisangani after 1998 and the division of the country. The Congo River was closed to all traffic towards the Atlantic port and the only overland option to the east (Indian Ocean port) was a single road in such disrepair that, within DR Congo, throughout most of the war the main commerce was carried out by bicycle caravan. This is still the case, post-conflict.

The single legal concession that continued to operate, ENRA is located near the busy border town of Beni, where it also has a factory for conversion to parquet flooring,

crafted doors and carved furniture. The pre-war outlet to markets outside of Africa was the Kenyan port of Mombasa, but ENRA also served domestic markets. Even during the war there was an important local market as the riches of the Albertine Rift created a small but wealthy elite among Congolese and particularly foreign neighbours.

The price of non-worked wood, however, fell precipitously in the east; liboyo planks of 2" at the Ugandan border were sold at 175\$ m³ whereas in the west of the country sale price was more than 300\$ m³. This happened through a flooding of the market. First, local authorities (collectivités), no longer receiving any revenue from the state, distributed forest-cutting rights liberally providing themselves with profit and their local population jobs cutting and carrying. These collectivité revenues were treated as personal, rarely funding such desperately needed public services as schools, hospitals or roads. Second, trucks loaded and accompanied by military exported wood without paying any taxes at all. They thereby profited at a much lower sale-rate. The result is a general unplanned depleting of accessible forest to produce only low-quality planks and unsawn logs.

Despite the anarchy of private forestry in eastern DR Congo, the biggest uncontrolled loss of forest is the result of population explosion and uncontrolled immigration of farmers. In a block of 22,000 ha of the ENRA concession, 13,000 ha were destroyed by illegal agricultural clearcuts leaving only 9000 ha for exploitation. This remaining area was itself invaded by farmers after a first forestry cut, making any attempt at sustainable forestry impossible. Aerial surveys over the region have led to the estimation of agricultural penetration into

the forest of about 1 km a year along a front of several tens of km.

Post-war

Conservation and forestry have the same fundamental needs, unambiguous national laws concerning land tenure and resource rights and a state strong enough to enforce them. The Democratic Republic of Congo is working towards a revision of the pertinent laws; but the transition to a state able to enforce them will be long.

Until the state itself has not only the institutional structures in place but the ability to make them functional, there must be strong political will nationally and responsible international partnerships. For conservation, in the immediate and medium-term, a form of international sponsorship of the parks is essential. For forestry, guarantees to investors will have to be based on confidence in a functional partnership between the state and the international community.

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**IMPACTS OF CONFLICTS ON
FORESTS AND PEOPLE IN D.R.
CONGO**

*By Richard Tshombe, Terese Hart and
Christien Amboya*

During the eight years of civil wars in DR Congo the the Okapi Faunal Reserve (RFO) in the Ituri Forest suffered not only battles and pillaging but also elephant poaching and illegal mining activities. The greatest challenges to the long-term survival and integrity of the Reserve are immigration and exploitation. Ideally, local populations would help protect the Reserve. During the war, however, the authority of the Reserve was put in question and progress towards a system to control the influx of humans and their use of the Reserve was limited.

This paper describes the impact of these challenges on the forest and the local population and the response strategy developed by ICCN (Congolese Conservation Institute, the parastatal in charge of Parks and Reserves) and its partners, working with the local people.

Between 1992, when the Reserve was created, and 1996, when war began, the major threats to its integrity were gold mining, illegal hunting (especially in the north) and the illegal killing of elephants. The ICCN was slowly building up a capacity to deal with encroachments: about 50 guards, only a third of whom had guns, were supposed to protect a Reserve almost half the size of Belgium. With the first wave of war all the guards were disarmed and left

still less equipped to handle the subsequent challenges.

Coltan mining. Over two to three months in 2000, between 2 000 and 3 000 people came into the forest from up to 700 km away to mine a new mineral: coltan (columbite-tantalite, high value to industry). Because of its high grade, the coltan from the Reserve was bought at \$80/kg within the Reserve and sold at \$100–150/kg in Beni and Butembo, or \$150–200/kg in Goma and Bukavu. With the wartime lack of employment, teachers, students, pastors, public servants, soldiers all converged on the Reserve.

By 2001, coltan exploration or mining affected two-thirds of the Reserve. As almost all young people moved from villages to mining camps, gardens were abandoned, creating food shortages in the Reserve. The food available in villages was sold to mining camps. Prices roughly doubled. Some local people, particularly chiefs with land tenure authority and thus some authority over the coltan mining camps, gained important short-term benefits and power, as opening a coltan mine involved buying “authorisation” from territorial authorities and subsequent payment of a certain tariff to the “owners” of the claim by all miners. Even less well-placed local people were able to get temporary jobs digging and sifting gravel, portering or guarding the mine. However, about 90 percent of the profits from coltan were invested outside the Reserve, since most entrepreneurs in the Reserve were immigrants.

Although the impact of coltan mining on the environment has not been studied, it is probably minor and temporary because of the artisanal scale of mining. Although the

flow of small streams is interrupted, their banks are dug up, some trees are cut and bark funnels are used to wash the mineral, these perturbations are primarily temporary as long as the mines themselves remain short-lived. The immigration of farmers associated with the mines may have much more long-term effects than the mines themselves.

Elephant poaching during the war was usually connected to networks reaching top levels of the rebel hierarchies. The networks included soldiers (Congolese and foreigners) or police, traders, professional poachers and a mixed group including public servants, students, and staff of at least one development NGO. Between April and October 2000, at least 60 elephants were killed in the Reserve –almost certainly many more– for both meat and tusks. Elephant meat was openly sold in Mambasa market at 0.6–1.4/kg; ivory, bought at \$3–5/kg in Mambasa, was sold for \$20/kg \$ in Bunia and Beni.

The RFO reacted in a coordinated manner. Through internal CoCoSi (local coordination committee) meetings the international Wildlife Conservation Society (WCS) and Gilman International Conservation (GIC), operating in the RFO, became a strong collaborative force with the ICCN. Mid-2000 the RFO presented the situation to the authorities in Bunia, and received military collaboration for an anti-poaching operation (Tango) as well as the necessary funds.

Tango (T for *Tembo*, elephant in Swahili) ,a joint military and park guard operation, supported by the international conservation NGOs and ICCN, was launched to eliminate elephant poaching and restore ICCN

authority throughout the Reserve (late 2000, ICCN controlled only 10 percent of the Reserve). The troops involved comprised 12 Ugandan UPDF soldiers and 22 Congolese from the Congolese People's Army (APC) that controlled the region as well as guards from the RFO. The operation, planned for three months, continued from October 2000 through February 2001. Twelve poachers and four ivory buyers were arrested, more than 117 kg ivory was confiscated, twelve automatic and four smaller rifles were seized and the coltan mines were closed. However, all the poachers were later released.

The most lasting impact of the Tango operation is the collaborative management that ICCN developed through its CoCoSi. Poaching and coltan mining forced it to become an effective tool for a unified strategy within the Reserve. The CoCoSi was the central organising unit – writing proposals, managing the operation, contacting local and Ugandan authorities, and coordinating the provision of intelligence including maps and intelligence summaries.

Today, more than three years after the end of the Tango operation, the poachers captured in 2000–2001 and later released have been starting a new battle in RFO with the help of soldiers still deployed in the region. The killing of elephants has resumed, with more than 11 000 kg of ivory exported from the Reserve in 2003 alone. Of this more than 7 000 kg was sold at its first market within the Reserve itself. The transport routes are through Beni in the Southeast of the Reserve and through Kasenyi and Mahagi in the Northeast. Uganda is the main transit center (Mapilanga 2003).

The demand for ivory has created a prosperous market for guns. Guns like AK 47 are available in Mambasa for \$70–90; an AK 47 bullet for \$0.25–0.30. The post-conflict “no war, no peace” situation could be worse than the conflict period because of uncertainty among local authorities, hunters, soldiers and politicians. The forest and wildlife suffer as the soldiers that were part of various rebel factions remain in the area.

While poaching of elephants and other wildlife might not have an obvious impact on local people, they are both its victims and essential to its success as guides, scouts and even gun-wielding poachers. But poaching depletes the Ituri forest, on which a large concentration of hunting and gathering Mbuti (Pygmy populations) depends. Data from various sources (carcass observations, documented kills, bush meat data, ivory reports) suggest that in 2002–2003 at least 230–460 elephants were killed, 10 percent of the pre-war population (Hart 2003; Hart and Hall 1997). An incomplete tally showed that the same gun-based poaching network was responsible for the sale of 4075 kg of primate meat between May and November 2003 in the market of Mambasa alone (Mapilanga 2003).

Both coltan mining and elephant poaching are driven by outsiders at the expense of the local population. The marginal benefits gained by some local people are short-term. Until non-forest immigrants moved around the forest village of Oicha in the 1930s, the triangle between Beni, Komanda and Mambasa, south-east of the Okapi Reserve was luxuriant forest. Now only small forest fragments remain within the triangle and forest people are a small

minority in the population. Immigrants are moving steadily into the forest and even the Reserve will not be protected unless strong measures can be taken. During the conflict, the CoCoSi was instrumental in setting up the Tango operation. Now its utility as a management structure must be tested against the long-term challenge of immigration control.

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**CONFLICT IN THE GREAT LAKES
REGION: IMPACT ON
CONSERVATION**

By Annette Lanjouw

The Albertine Rift, or western branch of the Great Rift Valley traversing Africa, comprises in its centre the Great Lakes Region. The region has been characterized by violent conflict since 1990 which has resulted in an excess mortality of 4.5 million people in less than 10 years. Millions of displaced people are still homeless and landless, and the fragile peace process in the region is still characterized by attacks on civilians and a war economy. The Central Albertine Rift includes eastern Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda and Uganda. The programme area in consideration is the border region between the DRC, southwestern Uganda and northwestern Rwanda, including the Virunga massif (Mgahinga Gorilla National Park, Southern Sector of the Virunga National Park and Volcanoes National Park) and the Bwindi Impenetrable Forest. The Virunga Massif is a high altitude forest ecosystem that straddles the borders of the three countries. Both the Virunga and Bwindi forest blocks play a critical watershed function in this primarily agricultural region and as forest refuges they play a significant role in stabilizing the fertile soils and providing reservoirs for natural resources. The Central Albertine Rift is a region of exceptionally high biodiversity and high levels of endemism, including the only natural habitat of the endangered mountain gorilla.

The conflict in the region has historical

precedents which led to civil wars in Rwanda and in the DRC in 1990. The conflicts spilled over the borders and neighbouring countries provided refuge for militia groups and refugees as well as military support for different groups within the conflict. Many of the interests were fuelled by the vast reservoirs of mineral wealth and other natural resources in the DRC. The war in Rwanda ended in 1994, but the civil conflict in the DRC is still unresolved. Although a transitional government is now in place and a peace process has been outlined, violence still erupts regularly in the east of the country, foreign armed groups are present throughout the region and there is extensive abuse of the civilian population.

The fourteen years of violence in the region has led to widespread proliferation of arms, used by military as well as civilians on people as well as wildlife populations. The conflict has exacerbated ethnic and cultural divisions in the region, has greatly exacerbated poverty and pushed many people to the forests in search for food, shelter and other resources. As mentioned previously, the human death toll of the war has exceeded 4.5 million people since 1990. Women and girls have been raped and children have been forced to participate as combatants in the war. Park guards, mandated by the state to protect the wildlife and halt human incursions in parks have been killed: in the Virunga National Park alone more than 100 park staff have been killed in the war since 1994. In addition, the prevalence of arms and armed men in and around protected areas lying along international borders has resulted in extensive destruction of the fauna. Eighteen gorillas were killed between 1996 and 2003 in the Virunga and Bwindi forest blocks. The

population of Hippopotamus in the Virunga National Park dropped from 29,000 in 1996 to 1309 in 2003. The Gishwati Forest Reserve in Rwanda was totally cleared of trees by Internally Displaced People following the genocide of 1994, with loss of all fauna. In the eastern sector of the Kahuzi Biega National Park in the DRC, the population of elephants dropped from 800 in 1996 to 7 in 2003, and Eastern lowland gorilla from 250 to 78. In addition, in March 1999, 8 tourists and the Ugandan park warden were killed by extremist militias in the Bwindi Impenetrable Forest. The consequence of this act on tourism in the region, and revenue generated in these countries, has been enormous.

In summary, it is clear that the conflict has destroyed enormous natural areas, devastated fragile wildlife populations and created conditions of economic decline and insecurity that have greatly exacerbated poverty and the suffering of the civilian populations in the region.

To operate during times of conflict, it is critical to emphasise three levels of action: Monitoring the impact of human activities (including the crisis) on the wildlife/forests, supporting activities that can mitigate the negative impacts of the crisis and assisting groups affected by the crisis. The organisations have focussed their efforts on monitoring conservation impacts and supporting people who are either responsible for protecting and managing wildlife or who can have an impact on wildlife. The latter groups include park staff and local people who live near protected areas and whose livelihood activities depend on the forests and the parks. A significant emphasis has been placed on law enforcement and protection, even if this

is in conflict with the short-term interests of the impoverished local people. Protected areas in this region, however, have enormous capacity to generate revenue through tourism that can assist in post-war reconstruction of the country, as well as directly benefiting individuals at the local level. Mountain Gorilla tourism in the region generates in excess of 20 million US\$ per annum for Rwanda and Uganda (figures from 2001) and a portion of this revenue is shared directly with local people living near the parks. The mountain forests also serve an important watershed function, on which the fresh water supply, rainfall and fisheries industries in the region depend. Without the forests, the livelihoods of the people would be negatively affected in the medium to long term.

People living near protected areas often perceive the park as carrying with it an opportunity cost (not having access to land and resources) and harbouring wildlife that can come out of the forest to destroy crops. For subsistence farmers, the destruction caused by a buffalo or elephant in just a few hours can be devastating. Conservation organisations have worked with local people to develop barriers preventing the access of buffalo and elephant to fields, or to herd gorillas and other wildlife back into the forest. Organisations have also worked to develop conservation-based enterprise activities that depend on the wildlife and forest, but which do not damage the forest, to diversify livelihood activities. This contributes to reducing poverty as well as building a collaborative relationship between local people and the parks. Examples include bee-keeping, tourism-related enterprise, planting of bamboo and other forest plants outside the park, etc.

One of the main areas of success has been regional collaboration to effectively manage an ecosystem that straddles international borders. Given that the three countries sharing the ecosystem have had strained diplomatic relations with each other during this period of conflict, the focus of the regional collaboration has been at the technical, field level. The park staff from the three countries (four parks) have developed a strategy for working together, sharing information, communicating regularly and implementing joint activities, to ensure the effective management of the transboundary forests.

With peace returning to the region, it will become possible to formalize this collaboration and involve the governments at the highest level. The park authorities, however, have formally agreed to work together to ensure the threatened forests will be managed collaboratively. In January 2004, the representatives of Uganda, Rwanda and the DRC signed a Memorandum of Understanding committing them to a strategy of regional collaboration for conservation. This is an important landmark contributing both to conservation and the building of peace in this region.

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FORESTRY AND CONSERVATION ACTIVITIES IN HOSTING REFUGEE AREAS (KENYA – UGANDA)

By Luc Cambrézy

Places and territories are perceived differently at times of peace or during conflict and extreme violence. When security becomes a major issue it is evident that some places are more exposed to risk than others. For everyone involved -protagonists or civilians, oppressors or victims- places like mountains or forests can become refuge areas in times of war. They are especially sought after for protection. This article examines the place and the ambiguous role of forest areas in two distinct refugee hosting situations, in Kenya and Uganda.

1 The example of Kenya

Somalian refugees have been gathering in Dadaab in eastern Kenya since 1991 and 1992. Extensive camps have been set up in this semi-arid region of quite dense bush and bushy savannah. For several years, the refugees were left to their own devices for their supply of wood, fuel, and construction (poles, herbs, etc.). It should be pointed out that this practice -akin to gathering- has had little overall effect on the maintenance of plant cover as long as stocks of dead wood were plentiful. Unfortunately, the proximity of this bush, so vital for the refugees, creates problems. These tracts of vegetation also serve as *refuges* for armed groups, more

or less a product of the Somalian civil war, who gravitate around these camps. These gangs, attracted by the diverse opportunities for thieving and pillaging, are responsible for the proliferation of attacks and frequent rape of women from the camps. The ever-greater distances these women have to go to collect wood have made bush areas increasingly dangerous and inaccessible for them.

The United Nations High Commission on Refugees (UNHCR), seeking to remedy this situation and fulfil its duty to protect refugees, set up a wood collection and distribution programme in 1998. The objective is to minimise the time women and girls have to spend in the bush around their camp. The programme funds local traders and transporters for regular delivery of fuelwood at the refugee camps. This is laudable from a humanitarian point of view. Yet it is highly precarious, both in financial (funding is at risk of suspension at any moment) and environmental terms. In this region, with its pastoral economy, there is a dual risk. On the one hand it is to be feared that insidious privatisation of wood resources will lead to ever increasing prices making the wood too expensive for the poorest and more vulnerable. On the other hand -and this has already been observed- the simple gathering of dead wood is hardly compatible with traders' and transporters' quest for ever higher and more immediate profit. In fact, it is more profitable to clearcut a small patch of living forest than to collect dead wood over an extended area.

This situation prompts fears over the wood distribution programme; however justified it may be in terms of refugee protection. The programme proves to be dangerous in terms of plant cover protection and renewal.

In this region of extensive livestock rearing, the vegetation is the sole important resource. Together with the necessary freedom of access to water points, it is essential that this plant cover remains a protected and shared resource.

2 The example of Uganda

In the North-West of Uganda, refugees from neighbouring Sudan are gathered in the districts of Arua, Moyo and Adjumani, an area of woody savannah and open forest. Unlike in Kenya, they are hosted in rural settlements rather than in camps. The refugees are given land use rights, which encourage them to cultivate the terrain. This policy aims to reduce dependence on food distribution and, to that end, to reduce dependency on the World Food Programme.

These sites are usually located in the periphery of local populations, where clearing of woodlots is considered as an essential first step towards cultivation. Here, deforestation occurs as a consequence of a political and economic decision. Humanitarian aid is used as a driving force for local development. Opening up forest sites for refugees and development of basic infrastructure (roads, schools, clinics, wells) are effectively instruments of agricultural colonisation.

In this example, the forest is perceived primarily as a space to be conquered not so much for timber resources as for the potential expansion of agriculture it represents. The importance of this objective to conquer, develop and control a territory is augmented by the fact that the forests are invariably used as the base for murderous attacks that are launched by the Lord Revolutionary Army guerrilla forces. Mountainous areas are always difficult to

deal with. But a forest judged to be a threat to security is relatively easy to destroy. This is why, from the point of view of the authorities in the region, pushing back the forest represents –at least temporarily– progress towards peace and development.

Conclusion

In times of conflict, forest areas have the particular characteristic of representing a space whose measured value depends on at least two different perceptions: 1) the forest as a place that produces a prized resource, wood; 2) the forest as a particular space whose structure and organisation (mainly tree density) provides better cover than others for hiding places. However, a forest which provides a good hiding place for some represents a threat to others.

In the two examples given above, the insecurity of the wooded areas does not lead to the same effects. In the Kenyan case, insecurity of the bush hinders access to wood resources or makes it problematic. In the Ugandan example, the danger of the forest encourages its programmed destruction. Herein lies the lesson to remember: insecurity does not provide protection against forest destruction, it can accelerate or postpone forest destruction in specific ways.

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NIGERIA: ARMED CONFLICT AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR FOREST MANAGEMENT IN THE NIGER DELTA

By Samuel A. Igbatayo

The Niger Delta is one of the world's largest wetlands, covering an area of 20,000km² in Southern Nigeria with an annual rainfall in the range 3,000mm to 4,500mm. The Niger Delta lies at the heart of the tropical rain forest, with enormous biological diversity, featuring unique plants and animals. Ecologically, the Niger Delta comprises four zones: coastal barrier islands, mangroves, fresh water swamp forests, and lowland rain forests. (Darah, 2001).

Political Economy

The Niger Delta, in recent times, has become a strategic region in Nigeria's social, political and economic framework. Due to the region's huge endowment in hydrocarbons, the Niger Delta now commands a dominant position in Nigeria's political economy, raising the stakes for the region's indigenous peoples, as well as Governments at the Local, State and Federal levels. The Niger Delta has contributed the bulk of revenue that accrues to the Federal Government over the past three decades, through the huge reserves of crude oil and gas discovered in the region. (Van Buren, 2001).

However, the development profile of the Niger Delta presents a paradox: despite the abundant natural resources prevalent in the region, the area is undermined by endemic poverty and its people are ranked among the poorest in the world. The emergence of poverty in the midst of plenty in the Niger

Delta, particularly in the last decade, has unsettled the region, presenting policy makers with challenges that threaten to overwhelm social equity, political stability and sustainable development. This development holds dire consequences for the region's forest, which have provided the poor with the livelihood opportunities.

The emergence of armed conflict

Since the 1990's, the Niger Delta has degenerated into a dangerous theatre of violent conflict, sustained by ethnic militias, tribal warlords and misguided youths. Socio-Political and ethnic strife in the Niger Delta, including violence, kidnapping, sabotage and seizure of oil facilities have become a recurring decimal in the unfolding tragedy of the region. Ethnic groups in the Niger Delta, including the Urhobo, Itsekiri and Ijaw have battled one another over local governance and the control of natural resources, resulting in the maiming and killing of innocent people, including women and children. Often, entire villages were attacked and razed down, with heavy loss of lives and property (DOE, 2002). Nigeria's prolonged military rule (abolished in 1999) has been blamed for the escalation of violent conflict in the Niger Delta. The military's iron-fisted approach to the challenges of the Niger Delta has fuelled the region's instability, particularly in the mid-1990s, when the leaders of the Ogoni ethnic group were executed for protesting the marginalization and oppression of the ethnic group.

Causes of Conflict

The redistribution of Nigeria's wealth lies at the heart of the violent conflict in the Niger Delta. Since most of the revenue accruing to government in recent times is driven by the oil-led economy, many people in the

troubled region hold a strong view that the region has been marginalized in the redistribution of the nation's wealth. Consequently, political and ethnic leaders of the Niger Delta have been clamouring for natural resource control and devolution of power away from the Federal Government in favour of States and Local Governments to spur development at the local level, which has been marginalized in the current scheme of things (Igbatayo, 2001).

Communities in the Niger Delta have also been in conflict with oil producing companies in the region over allegations of widespread oil spillage and gas laring, which have undermined livelihoods and exacerbated their impoverished conditions. This negative trend has angered communities in the Niger Delta, provoking armed conflict, seizure of oil companies' personnel, as well as their facilities.

Impact on Forest Resources

Armed conflict in the Niger Delta has combined with unsustainable human activities to devastate forest resources, with grave implications for the region's fragile environment. The instability posed by armed conflict, particularly in rural areas, has created fertile grounds for some elements to fell wood and set fire to forests for selfish economic gains. Consequently, there has been a rapid decline in the nature and scope of forest cover in the Niger Delta. Also, the quality of the forest resources has been undermined, posing a threat to the region's biological diversity. Already, many plants and animal species have been lost in the region, with serious consequences to the environment and the food chain.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are

proffered to control armed conflict in the Niger Delta and also regenerate the region's dwindling forest resources.

- **Political Dialogue:** The Federal Government should engage the people of the region in a sustained and honest dialogue, and create mutual trust and confidence, which would allow it to address the grievances of the people in the troubled region.
- **Community Development:** Oil producing companies operating in the Niger Delta should accelerate community development by alleviating poverty and promoting social equity. They should also adopt best practices approach to oil exploration and production, minimizing oil spillage and abolishing gas flaring.
- **Reforestation:** Government should initiate re-forestation programmes aimed at restoring the region's forest cover already lost to unsustainable human activities.

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NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND LOCAL INSTITUTIONS IN “POST-CONFLICT” MOZAMBIQUE AND ETHIOPIA

*By Richard Black, Elizabeth Harrison,
Jessica Schafer and Elizabeth Watson*

The Marena¹ project researched the impact of conflict(s) on local resource management practices and national level policies in Mozambique and Ethiopia. Research took place in 1999 and 2000, in numerous case study areas, and was carried out by researchers from Mozambique, Ethiopia, and the UK. Fieldwork methods included household surveys and in-depth interviews, collection of grey literature, participant observation in communities, and exchange of findings with other researchers.

Findings touched on a wide range of issues: the notion of post-conflict; stakeholder relationships; how government policy is influenced by the post-conflict context; examples of land tenure policies for natural resource management; state and community forests; participatory plans

for natural resource management; gender in the policy process; memory and the policy process; institutions and legitimacy at the local level; the concept of 'indigenous' natural resource management institutions; the contested nature of the 'traditional', intra-community differences; the effects of migration and return on knowledge and experience; contested land tenure and return; and the role of demobilized soldiers. The following is a summary of findings in relation to state and community forests in the post-conflict contexts of Mozambique and Ethiopia.

The extent of forests in Ethiopia and Mozambique differs widely. In Mozambique, substantial areas of forest remain, and in some areas actually increased during 30 years of almost continuous fighting, as bush reclaimed abandoned land formerly cultivated for agriculture. In contrast, in Ethiopia, although the past extent of forest cover is debatable, the 1990 Ethiopian Forestry Action Plan (EFAP) estimated forest cover now to be only 2.7%. Extensive forest fires – common in both countries –resulted in further losses in Ethiopia in early 2000. Deforestation in Ethiopia has also been associated with political transitions from the Imperial to Derg regimes and from the latter to the regime of the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF).

In Ethiopia, under the Derg (1974-1991), no real sense of community ownership was fostered in government-sponsored 'community forests'. In the context of large-scale villagization programmes, compulsive collective farming and public works, the 'communities' involved in tree planting projects felt little sense of responsibility for, or likelihood of benefiting from, these resources. Indeed very often

there was outright opposition from these communities, since forestry projects came into conflict with the use of hillsides for grazing, and compensation was not provided for lost land. Given this lack of consent, it is not surprising that 'community forests' were frequently subject to looting.

During the last months of the Derg and in the early transitional period, the levels of forest use and destruction increased. The state institutions that had controlled forest access and use withdrew or became obsolete. Many different groups including Derg soldiers, returnees from resettlement, EPRDF soldiers and poor peasants, took advantage of the resulting institutional vacuum either to cut down trees or to use the resource, in order to be recognised as the legitimate 'customary' users by the new regime. Competition between these different groups may have accelerated deforestation. Increasing urban demand for wood for fuel, construction and furniture was another contributing factor.

The Ethiopian Ministry of Agriculture considers these remaining state forests as their natural heritage and as a valuable source of bio-diversity. Some experiments in participatory community forest management have been attempted and NGOs, such as SIDA, SOS Sahel and GTZ, have sought particularly to promote these, most working in partnership with the government. In practice, the success of these attempts has been limited. Concepts such as 'participation' and 'community' have been defined in many different ways, causing confusion among practitioners on the ground and precluding the development of clear policy objectives. Tenure issues, and any innovations in the delineation of rights to forests, are fraught, sensitive and

political. Finally, the participatory community forest projects are time-consuming, and are often seen as failing to deliver in a country where the problems caused by repeated droughts, and in some cases, new political insecurities are seen by many as too pressing for these approaches.

In Mozambique, community forestry management is the official policy of the government, and several experimental programmes are underway to implement this policy, with considerable help from external donors. There is concern in the conservation camp, however, that forests are now disappearing at such an unsustainable rate that more urgent action is needed. Changing unsustainable agricultural practices and introducing sustainable forest management is a process that will require long term investment, and yet conservationists fear that it will be too late by that stage to recover the lost forests and biodiversity contained within them. Therefore, officials are implementing a combination of interventionist practices with participatory management, which leaves local people in some confusion as to the real intentions of government.

Furthermore, some government actions are contradictory, leaving local people suspicious of the motives of government for forest conservation, given the past history of external exploitation of local forest resources under the guise of conservation. In a similar manner, local people see hunters from outside the community taking away their animals, while they are urged not to hunt and told they will be fined if they do. This situation has created a serious failure of trust and cooperation between local people and government conservation

agents.

A central finding in both contexts is that the notion of 'post conflict' is problematic. A post-conflict period tends to be one of intensification of processes already taking place, including internal population movement, and institutional breakdown and rebuilding. Thus, the gap between conflict and 'post-conflict' can be blurred. The end of war is also often accompanied by the outbreak or continuation of other conflicts. Formal authority may still be contested. Divisions hitherto suppressed may resurface, and communities may become more divided and interest groups more polarised. In Ethiopia, formal (armed) conflict broke out with neighbouring Eritrea. Meanwhile, local-level conflicts have remained in both countries well beyond the cessation of formal hostilities. Rather than being conflicts *over* natural resources, these are often political conflicts in which control of access to natural resources represents a marker of political gains or losses.

Post-conflict situations may also be ones of greater change, opportunities, and state and market interventionism for better or for worse. This occurs as a result of the stability created, the concern to make up for lost time, and to redress the balance of previous detrimental policies and the negative effects of conflict.

All briefings and working papers from this project can be downloaded free of charge at: <http://www.geog.sussex.ac.uk/research/development/marena/>

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¹ The full title of the Marena project was "Reconstruction of natural resource management institutions in post-conflict countries". The project was funded by the UK Department for International Development (DFID).

DEFORESTATION, ENVIRONMENTAL INSECURITY, POVERTY AND CONFLICT IN THE HORN OF AFRICA AND GREAT LAKES

By Mersie Ejigu

There is an emerging consensus that environmental security is a useful concept for understanding armed conflict in Africa and elsewhere. A society becomes insecure in an environmental sense when severe deforestation and biodiversity loss threaten national, community and individual welfare and survival.

Whilst the correlation between environmental insecurity and armed conflict has become widely accepted, scholars caution that the link between environment and conflict is never direct. A wide range of factors including governance, socio-economic variables, culture, level of technology and property rights influence how the environment affects conflict.

To contribute to the understanding of these links and their implications for policy development and peace building, the Partnership for African Environmental Sustainability (PAES) launched a study of Burundi, Ethiopia, Rwanda and Uganda funded by the European Union.

Study approach

This four-country study pursued a multidisciplinary and multilevel approach to understanding the role of environmental insecurity in causing and amplifying armed conflict. Household surveys and community focused group discussions were organised to capture communities' perceptions.

Burundi, Ethiopia, Rwanda and Uganda share important processes common to all. Degradation of natural resources, particularly renewable resources, is widespread as evident from loss of forest, soil and water resources. These resources are increasingly scarce because of diminished supplies, increased population-induced demands, and inequality in distribution. The economic returns to these resources are low and falling as evident from diminishing productivity, declining livelihood and impoverishment. Population mobility in response to scarcity and impoverishment is common. Policy, institutional and technological deficiencies are also prevalent.

Findings of the study

In all the four countries, the study established that:

- i There is strong evidence of environmental insecurity that manifested itself in the form of: small and declining farm size; greater incidence of land fragmentation; increased cultivation intensity; growing landlessness; grazing land is in short supply, emerging tenure arrangements with rising informal land transactions.
 - ii There is also strong evidence from the case countries that environment and poverty are closely linked. First, the majority of the population is dependent on natural resources for their livelihoods, particularly on agriculture. Second, the natural resource base is shrinking (i.e., forest cover, grazing land, arable agricultural land, and water resources). Third, incidence of poverty tends to be greater in ecologically fragile marginal agricultural areas with few routes to escape poverty.
 - iii Households have developed multiple coping strategies, which they typically fully exhaust before they decide to migrate. These include: sell small livestock; sell large animals; casual wage; reducing food consumption; relief dependency; and migration. In all cases, migration is a coping strategy of the last resort.
- iv There are several types of environment-induced conflicts:
- a *Cultivator-Cultivator Conflicts*. These are associated with pressure on farmland and commonly owned resources (grazing land, community forests and water points). Reported cases of disputes over agricultural land were over inter-generational transfer, division of common pool resources, settlement of non-indigenous population, and claims to original land by returnee migrants constitute the primary were reported
 - b *Herder-Cultivator Conflicts*. Conflicts between pastoralists and cultivators over access to pasture and water resources are common in the “cattle corridor” of Uganda, which extends from southwest to Karamoja in northeast including Mabwara, Rakai and Katakwi districts. The historical and contemporary conflicts between agriculturalist Hutus and pastoral Tutsis in Rwanda and Burundi are classic examples of cultivator-herder conflict, too. Tutsi is not exactly the name of an ethnic group.
 - c *Herder-Herder Conflicts*. There are numerous cases of conflicts between different pastoralist societies who live next to each other. The most significant conflicts in Ethiopia occur in the Awash River basin, which cuts across different ethnic groups. Each and every herder community experiences conflicts over access to resources, especially to grazing land and water.
 - d *State-Cultivator/Herder Conflicts*. Conflicts between state and farmers

including both cultivators and herders are pervasive in the study countries. In Uganda, conflicts arise from encroachment of government controlled protected areas. For example, there was a mass eviction of Bakiga who had settled in Mpokya/Kibale Forest areas in 1993, in Mt. Elgon National Park in 2000, and in other protected areas, including Mgahinga, Mt. Rwenziri, and Queen Elizabeth National Parks. The Karamojong are against the gazetting of most of their fertile land and, in response, they encroach on pasture and water in Teso and Lango. In Ethiopia, state-cultivator and state herder conflicts existed since the 1960's. Prior to the 1975 Land Reform, such conflicts were triggered by Government's decision to individualize the commons. In the post Land Reform years, state-cultivator conflicts became more prevalent reform that prohibited land transfer other than through the state functionaries. Land is state owned and qualified farmers have access through local state functionaries. Hence conflicts arise between these functionaries and farmers over access, use and transfer of government owned land.

Conclusion

The study confirms the widely held view that environmental insecurity plays a significant role in causing, triggering and aggravating armed conflicts. The likelihood of conflict increases where environmental insecurity induces migration, in particular for heterogeneous communities (e.g., ethnic, culture, etc.). Where migrants dominate economic and political spheres, recipient communities become aggravated and the propensity to conflict mounts. Conflicts are almost certain to arise where a weak state

fails to deliver law and order, provide transparent and accountable administration, implement unbiased and fair policy, or effective mechanisms to address and resolve grievances and disputes. On the other hand, nurturing of social ties, sound natural resource use and economic integration neutralize forces that tend towards armed conflict.

The study further concluded that conflict prevention and resolution could result in lasting peace if anchored in combating environmental degradation, forest recovery, sound tenure policy and sustainable land management practices.

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Partnership for African Environmental Sustainability (PAES) is a non-governmental organisation established by a group of experienced and concerned Africans to promote environmentally and socially sustainable development in Africa based on best practices. Headquartered in Kampala, Uganda, PAES has offices in Washington, DC and Lusaka, Zambia.

REDUCING CONFLICTS THROUGH COLLABORATIVE FOREST MANAGEMENT IN THE BORANA LOWLANDS, SOUTH ETHIOPIA

By Ben Irwin, Gavin Jordan and Zelalem Temesgn

Setting the Scene

The Borana lowlands are located in the Southern part of Ethiopia and in Northern Kenya. They are largely managed as a common property resource by pastoral groups: the Boran, Guji, Burji, Arsii and Gabra Oromo clans, and by the Garri and Merihan Somali clans. These pastoral groups have diverse ethnic backgrounds but are predominantly Oromo. Lack of clear land tenure rights and arrangements cause conflicts about perceived ownership and rights of use over the Borana forests¹. Land use conflicts and competition stem from conflicts of interest between different land users (Niamir-Fuller, 2000).

Conflicts in Borana: Competing livelihoods, land tenure, land use and land management

The lowlands are predominantly semi-arid grazing areas, with isolated montane forest fragments on elevated areas. These fragile forests are subject to an increased use that leads to conflicting claims over the use of the resource. This often results in violent, armed conflict. Borana's forests play an important role in a number of livelihood options. Conflict and competition over forest resources exists on different levels, locally between Oromo and Somali clans and ethnic lines and, non-locally, with outsiders. Guiding competition over forest management boundaries and use of the

resource is key to development of forest management systems that work. Rural, urban, settled and mobile groups have different needs in terms of timber, dry season grazing and fuel wood. In addition, there are conflicts between forest user groups and the Government, represented by the Forest Department. The Forest Department still has a largely policing role, and views most forest utilisation activities as illegal.

Forest areas in the Borana lowlands represent a cause of conflict and yet they also provide a mechanism to reduce conflict and build long-lasting stability in the region by reaching agreed management practices and secured user rights between the various stakeholders.

Learning approaches to setting up new² forest resource management systems

The corner stone of the project's approach has been to develop appropriate working relationships with communities. The idea was to restore traditional institutions and management systems and help these to regain the capacity to function within today's context (Tache and Irwin, 2003). This has particular relevance to conflicts over natural resources and to newly emerging forest management systems.

A learning-based approach has been adopted to open up a dialogue over new resource management systems. This approach has three distinct stages; investigation, negotiation and implementation (Dubois and Lowore, 2000). The approach initiates a participatory process that is self-informing (investigation), provides space for key actors to discuss and decide on the structures and direction of management

(negotiation), and recognises that real learning takes place once new decisions are put in to practice (implementation).

Investigation: Addressing conflict - Relationship Mapping

Boran pastoralists perceive violent conflict over natural resources as one of the most important livelihood issues (Weiser, 1998 and SOS Sahel, 2000). To address the issue, existing conflicts were analysed first. This helps to develop an understanding of the conflict, its causes, impacts and inter-relationships, and helps determine where intervention is appropriate.

Conflict analysis was the starting point of the forest user stakeholder analysis. The purpose was to break down the complexity of existing conflicts and to initiate a dialogue from which to develop a strategic plan of action. The work involved group exercises and discussions with all stakeholders in order to understand and map their respective ideas and perceptions. Work was initially done with small groups and then with larger groups, by bringing the initial small groups together as opportunities arose, and through the identification of common interests and common ground.

The key tool used in this process was relationship mapping, adapted with Responding To Conflict (RTC, 2000) as part of a conflict training exercise. Participants were asked first to list all the different local groups using forest resources. All groups were marked on a large circle on the ground, and the participants placed themselves within the circle. Participants were encouraged to discuss and depict³ their relationships with all the other local groups. Once the exercise had been completed, the information was reviewed

and detailed explanations sought concerning relationships between different local groups.

In this way the project built up a clear understanding of relationship issues, both positive and negative, between the forest users. Dialogue over sustainable resource use, the potential for shared management and the need for conflict resolution, were embraced by community groups and institutions as opportunities to re-assume their management roles and responsibilities.

Negotiating new forest management systems and reducing conflict

These roles and responsibilities are being formalised through legally recognised community forest management plans. This is an important mechanism for clarifying user rights, responsibilities and for protecting the rights of previously marginalised groups, helping to secure livelihoods (see Longley and Maxwell, 2003). Development of the management plan includes a participatory forest resource assessment, where Government staff and forest users jointly assess the resource, define management prescriptions and establish monitoring criteria (Jordan, 2003). This helps build trust and understanding and reduces conflict between Government officials and users.

Bringing all local groups together into one management body, and into negotiations over resource management, has enabled the resolution of a number of key conflicts between different clans and different ethnic groups. The on-going dialogue has created the medium to resolve differences. For example, in and around Arero forest tensions between forest settled Borana and

Guji groups and nomadic Garri camel pastoralists that often resulted in violent conflict, have now been resolved. Since the new forest management system is in place, agreement has been reached over the need to negotiate access to the forest, rather than to follow the previous assumed open access.

Inter-*Madda*⁴ and *Madda* forest management groups include representatives from different clans and ethnic groups. These are set up as ground level forest management bodies. They deal with local problems and conflicts, e.g., they stop illegal harvesters from within the community. More serious problems or potential conflicts, e.g., new farmland clearances, are passed on to the District level PFM working group, for higher level negotiation and support. PFM working groups are set-up with the aim of conflict resolution and embody representatives of local communities and Government officials.

Potential disputes and conflicts of interest between different groups involved in the new management will continue to arise. In shifting from an open access system to a managed access system, a number of forest users must work under restrictions, with inherent problems. However, armed and violent conflict appears to have been largely eliminated as negotiation processes take place.

Note: This paper presents activities conducted in Ethiopia as part of the SoS Sahel Borana Collaborative Forest Management Project & the subsequent FARM Africa/SoS Sahel Participatory Forest Management Programme. Key funders have been EU, Comic Relief and Dfid.

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- ¹ This situation is relevant for the entire Borana Lowlands.
- ² The word new should be interpreted as an integration of tradition and modern management systems.
- ³ In order to depict relationships the participants used different lines (straight, double, broken etc) to indicate their relationship (strong, weak, conflict, etc.) with a specific group.
- ⁴ Madda is a Borana traditional territorial unit of area. It is roughly equivalent to the Government peasant association (PA) land division.

3. LATIN AMERICA

COLOMBIA: THE MANY FACES OF THE WAR

By María D. Álvarez

Many hypotheses have been put forward to explain the protracted, unresolved violent conflict that has engulfed Colombia's forests for more than two decades. Two are critical to understanding the conflict: 1) the inexistence or decline of justice adjudication and state legitimacy, particularly acute in rural and forested areas, and 2) a stunning abundance of natural resources. This does not detract from the many studies that have sought to document the effects of state-sponsored development policies, multilateral trade agreements, or the political economy of

illegal crops and subsequent militarization of parts of the legal system. Rather, all these elements arise and operate in a socioeconomic environment shaped by the volatile combination of the first two conditions. The foci of violence were, until recently, restricted to sparsely populated regions that are rich in energy sources, fresh water, biodiversity, timber, and minerals. What these regions lacked, and continue to lack, can be broadly defined as social capital; political clout, infrastructure, and local systems capable of mediating and resolving disputes. There is no dearth of local organisations throughout rural and forested Colombia, but even the most determined and organized community cannot overcome the systematic marginalization and lawlessness of the frontier.

The direct social and environmental effects of armed conflict throughout rural and forested areas of Colombia range from abandoning forest exploitation, associated with armed stalemates, to the mass displacement of frontier *campesinos* (smallholders) and replacement of their agroforestry systems by cattle ranching. Most of the evidence for the former is anecdotal, while the decline of smallholders and subsequent consolidation of estates growing pasture (and other perennials) purchased with laundered currency is well documented by social scientists. The latter process is key to understanding the forced displacement of several million *campesinos*, the decline of agricultural productivity, food insecurity and, ultimately, urban unemployment. Deforestation associated with illegal crops, a frequent correlate of armed conflict, is estimated to encompass more than half the total annual forest clearing. This unsustainable fragmentation is most

damaging to the Andean habitats that support many endemic species, provide ecosystem services to several major cities, and have already lost most forest cover in the last 200 years.

It is more difficult to assess the indirect effects of the conflict: the changes in the relationship between costs and benefits that arise from the uncertainty of economic outcomes where violence is chronic. Given the natural wealth of Colombian forests, the most long-lasting effects of conflict are the marginalization and eventual displacement of the local communities. Without these, the interests of commercial exploitation are not brought to the national attention, and go completely unfettered. Large-scale mining of oil and minerals in vast regions of the Chocó, Magdalena Medio, and Putumayo takes place in the midst of acute armed conflict, with minimal environmental oversight. The corporations that profit from these resources are often party to the conflict through paramilitaries and other private contractors.

With the exception of industries that can afford private armies, such as oil exploitation and the processing of illicit crops, most markets suffer in the midst of conflict. This restricts the range of economic activities available to communities struggling to survive. Conservation and management take a back seat when survival is at stake. Armed conflict hampers the kind of intervention (logging bans, education programs, etc.) necessary to reduce deforestation and prevent the loss of endangered species. A few critical areas are off-limits to both government and private conservation efforts. At the same time, the public and private protected-area system has been growing despite the war. Whether

or not this has had an effect on conservation on the ground is debatable.

The last decade has seen the creation and growth of semi-governmental institutions designed to study, catalogue and design plans for the sustainable use of biodiversity. These institutions have succeeded in making biodiversity, among other natural resources, visible in the context of peace negotiations (timber, oil, and illegal crops figure prominently in their own right). They have also established community networks for conservation and disseminating the data they have collected. The decentralization of plans for natural resource use through *corporaciones autónomas*, regional planning and resource management authorities, is another relatively recent process. Because the conservation programmes affiliated to these new institutions are often linked to the political involvement of an informed and organised citizenry and technical knowledge of the local resource base, areas where armed conflict prevails are neglected, or receive plans that were developed without local consultation. Decentralization has resulted in greater political participation, but the environmental benefits of this policy (if any) are not fully documented. Conservation professionals have become the target of violence in recent years; several biologists are currently hostage, activists, birdwatchers, park-keepers, and even hikers have been kidnapped and/or murdered. These incidents have made Colombian forests the least desirable of tourist destinations. Domestic tourism, never too focused on forests, has grown in relatively safe rural areas where income from agro-tourism has partly replaced falling coffee revenues. The opportunity costs of insecurity for both international and domestic ecotourism are unknown.

Recent studies on decision-making among Colombian *campesinos* in areas where illicit crops are prevalent (all in the forested frontiers) suggest that the switch to legal crops is more closely related to the improvement of the institutional environment than to price signals. The credible threat of justice adjudication coupled with government services is more effective than declines in local illicit crop prices, or increases in alternative crop prices. Cross-country studies on illicit crops noted that violent conflict is a strong predictor of increase in illicit crop production between 1986-2001. International trade in agricultural commodities, often blamed for replacing legal smallholder crops in Colombia, shows no clear pattern of correlation with illicit crop production across the 10 largest producers. The results of these studies are complementary and point to possible solutions to the conflict.

The favoured policy to eradicate illicit crops in Colombia, aerial spraying of the herbicide Round Up, had no effect on overall production of illicit crops over the period studied, does not involve local actors, and does not improve the institutional environment of smallholders. The development of infrastructure aimed to integrate local economies may be more effective, provided it is accompanied by similar investment in government services ranging from schools to justice adjudication. At present, infrastructure development in conflict areas seems focused on opening roads to facilitate development (e.g., Putumayo), with little regard for local community needs, or environmental protection. The current government, headed by president Alvaro Uribe, is generally perceived to be credible in its threats to bring illicit growers, traffickers, and insurgents to justice. This has helped reduce illicit crop

production after decades of ineffectual air fumigation. The long-term results of this current trend will depend on the capacity of the government to deliver on both threats and promises. Peace negotiations with guerrillas came to a halt almost three years ago, but an amnesty (thought to favour paramilitaries) has recently been proposed. These efforts to persuade low-rank armed actors require credible measures of justice for all sides to stop the cycle of retribution that dates back more than 50 years.

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COLOMBIA: WAR AND FORESTS

By Manuel Rodríguez Becerra

To what extent have environmental factors caused the war in Colombia or have they favoured or hindered that war? What consequences does the ongoing conflict have for the environment? How have illegal crops, a business closely linked to armed insurgency, affected our environment? Can conservation and sustainable use of the environment become assets to attain social stability and peace? These are but some of the questions raised in "War, Society and the Environment" (*Guerra, Sociedad y*

Medio Ambiente)¹, published by the National Environmental Forum (*Foro Nacional Ambiental*) This book looks at critical issues that are tackled by a group of ten experts in social and environmental fields: German Andrade, Alfonso Avellaneda, Carlos Castaño Uribe, Hernán Dario Correa, Dario Fajardo, Guillaume Fontaine, Cesar Ortiz, Alfredo Rangel, Manuel Rodriguez and Ricardo Vargas.

The different book chapters show how environmental issues are deep-rooted in the Colombian armed conflict and how land has not been the only resource under dispute. The armed conflict involves environmental resources in general: water, timber and non timber forest products. Most studies have concentrated on forest ecosystems, where insurgent guerrillas settled since they were created more than forty years ago. In the opening chapter of the book, Alfredo Rangel analyzes how guerrilla groups have used these ecosystems as part of their military strategy. Today, guerrillas use forests in various Colombian regions to assemble their fronts; it is a safe haven from which to plan and unleash rapid attacks against towns and military and police garrisons or in which to plant illegal crops. Moreover, the hard to access Amazon jungle region served as the nest in which *Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia* FARC, the largest guerrilla group in the country was incubated and nourished, and from which it began expanding towards the rest of the country during the 80s.

The book stresses how many studies undertaken by numerous experts on the ongoing armed conflict in Colombia concentrate on social and political issues, while failing to acknowledge human

ecology factors that explain how the conflict is rooted and fueled. There is overwhelming evidence on this matter: how and where major human displacements occur. According to Dario Fajardo's survey, displacement is closely linked to how land is hoarded and how control of territories strategically important for their richness in renewable and non-renewable resources is being sought; to forecasting eventual benefits resulting from installing mayor development projects; or to the military and political importance of certain territories *vis a vis* the armed conflict. Information currently available indicates that 78.4% of displaced people come from areas of the country in which the Gini coefficient for land ownership is above 0.73%. Nonetheless, the book stresses that the environmental factors at the core of the conflict, which have been historically active in fueling violence, are not themselves the cause. Environmental factors may fuel violence, but fueling always springs from interaction between environmental and other economic, political and social factors.

The war has several consequences for the environment, including those related to illegal crops. German Andrade argues that it is very likely that certain fauna populations are over exploited today as a source of protein for the large human settlements in jungle areas, which include illegal armed groups and State armed forces. Loss of fauna also leads to degradation of many forest ecosystems in the country, due mainly to a reduction or the disappearance of essential seed dispersers that are vital for certain flora to survive. The effects of this phenomenon are as serious as deforestation caused by illegal crops which, notwithstanding the variation in estimates, some observers believe affects more than

1,000,000 hectares.

German Andrade, Ricardo Vargas and Cesar Ortiz point out that the most serious environmental effect of illegal crops results mainly from eradication policies and how these policies drive illegal crop production from one place to the next. Vargas' conclusions include the fact that eradication policies undertaken under the last two governments, have changed a situation in which illegal crops were grown in a few of the country's departments to spreading these crops into departments where they were not previously grown or where they played but a minor role. Illegal crops are undergoing a metastasis that is fragmenting or destroying some of the last Andean remaining natural forests. Eradication policies also deepen social exclusion and environmental marginalization of a large number of small farmers.

More relevant issues are discussed in other chapters. Carlos Castaño indicates how the conflict has led to new road construction, which in turned has fired disorderly colonization and destroyed precious forests. The Government has also undertaken the task of building new roads to increase State presence and to improve ways in which the armed forces can access jungle areas used as strategic safe havens by illegal armed groups. Guerrillas have also built new roads that cut across natural reserves, creating pathways to bring weapons into the country and to transport drugs towards the Pacific coast in order to ship them towards the United States and Europe. Chapters by Alfonso Avellaneda and Guilliame Fontaine discuss the relationship between oil, the environment and armed conflict in Colombia.

Finally, two of the chapters explain how environmental policies implemented during 1994-2002 were enforced in a relatively successful manner amidst the conflict: Manuel Rodríguez focuses on "Plan Verde", a community reforestation plan covering 150,000 hectares in areas under severe armed conflict; and Hernán Darío Correa focuses on the policy "parks and people together" (*parques con la gente*) which has included and involved several communities in managing and conserving protected areas. Both of these case studies illustrate how the environment has enormous potential towards building peace. It is a light at the end of a sober and complex tunnel built by the relationship between the armed conflict, society and the environment.

Note: ordering information for the book Guerra, Sociedad y Medio Ambiente may be found on page 126)

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**CONFLICT, SPIRITUAL MEANING
AND ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS .
Offerings made by the Indigenous
Peoples of the Sierra Nevada of
Santa Marta**

By Guillermo E. Rodríguez-Navarro

The native population of the Sierra Nevada of Santa Marta in Colombia consists of about 32,000 members of the indigenous groups Kogi, Arhuaco, Arsario and Kankuamo; descendants of the Tayronas and guardians of their ancient traditions. There are also approximately 150,000 peasants and one and a half million urban dwellers in the lowlands. The four indigenous groups are the only native, established people. Despite speaking different languages, these groups share a single belief system. From before the arrival of the Spanish, the indigenous people of the Sierra Nevada have had a world view, social organisation and a settlement pattern that revolve around management and conservation of a unique ecosystem that they call the 'Heart of the World'.

According to indigenous accounts of the earth's creation, the area around the Sierra was a circular territory with high mountains at its center and a border, called the 'black line', extending to the ocean where the water cycle ends. This territory is the center of the world and home to the Mother's children who live off her and care for her water sources, lands and sacred sites. Few people appreciate the philosophical depth of the indigenous understanding of the natural world, but negative attitudes towards indigenous knowledge are changing.

Currently there is better appreciation for the effectiveness of indigenous resource management systems. Sustainable management of mountain resources is a vital way to prevent and manage conflict.

Many violent conflicts are about disputes over resources between the mountain and lowland communities. Mountain communities have limited resources and their relations with the lowlands can change and rapidly deteriorate. From the time of their first contact with the western world, indigenous peoples have suffered from plunder and destruction of their territories, sacred sites, cemeteries and ancestral customs. The case of the Kogi people is described here in some detail to illustrate the general situation of indigenous peoples in the Sierra. They have been forcibly displaced several times, even as recently as the 1960's, and now live in the Don Diego river basin.

Lineage plays an important role in the complex, hierarchical Kogi society. The real decision making power over personal and community affairs lies in the hands of priests, or Mamas, who plan the farming calendar and distribute lands and crops according to lineage. They are responsible for the delicate balance between man and nature. This balance does not only encompass basic resources such as water, forests or crops but extends to the moral and spiritual balance of individual community members. Kogi society, for example, is strictly hierarchical. At the top we find the Mamas, or priests, whose education is one of the most striking features of their society.

Ideally, the future priests are chosen by divination and trained from birth. The training lasts 18 years and takes place in special

temples in the Sierra. When they return to society as Mamas at around the age of twenty they may be trained to lead the community in moral and spiritual ways, but they lack all practical knowledge. Their simple but profound training prepares them for their task of preserving the universe. Practical matters are left to the Comisario or the Mayor, who works together with the Mama. Cabos are assistants to the Mamas and the Comisarios and have less authority. Mayores is a term given to elder men of good reputation whose status gives them authority over their peers and the younger generation.

Mamas, Mayores, Cabos and Comisarios are in close contact with nature and have a clear sense of how to maintain the cycles that rule the ecosystems. Their unique belief system provides the base for the indigenous biodiversity management practice. It stems from a complex offering system in which each individual holds custody of a sacred territory. An over-simplified classification of the offering system is provided here to help understand the highly complex nature of indigenous land management in the Sierra Nevada. There appear to be three distinct types of offering. The first comprises a set of rituals that maintain natural cycles. These are performed by offering stone beads, which are buried, thrown into the sea or hidden in small caves or cracks in fields or snowy peaks. The second type of offering is made to atone for personal faults. The third type acts as payment for the use of natural resources with unpredictable yield. One example dealt with the use of trees for the construction of a bridge. In a complex ceremony, tree seedlings were cleaned, scattered in the forest, and then given spiritual nourishment. (Pedro Sundenkama, Kogi community, personal

communication).

While the scientific perspective differs from the traditional, both have much to offer each other. Combining the two is the best way to achieve a better understanding of nature. However, it is still difficult to establish an atmosphere of trust with the indigenous people of the Sierra Nevada of Santa Marta and to take part in their knowledge and belief systems. This can only be attained through longstanding cooperation.

The situation of the indigenous people is critical, more so now than ever before. The intense territorial dispute between guerrillas and paramilitary groups has a disruptive impact on ancestral culture. Traditionally, communities had access to a variety of ecosystems of different temperature and altitude. This enabled them to build a self-sufficient economy that supplied products ranging from salt and fish from the lowlands, to potatoes and medicinal plants from the cold highlands. Today the mobility of communities is severely restricted by paramilitary groups in the lowlands and foothills and by guerrillas in the mid- and highlands of the Sierra.

The conflict has intensified over the last five years and this has worsened the situation for the communities. This has not only caused a fracture in their production system, it has also restricted or even totally precluded access to vital cultural places including sacred sites. Communities have had to abandon their lowland territories and retreat to higher grounds. These displacements are ever more frequent and the obstruction of access to the lowlands has affected the capacity to build up stocks. The most isolated communities now run the risk of starvation.

Wherever the ecology is fragile, peace is fragile too. Resources must be shared to prevent conflicts. Time has arrived for our industrialized society to learn from the indigenous one, to incorporate moral values and develop an ecological understanding that is reflected in its social and economic measures. Knowledge should become a part of our way of life and post-modern man needs a new approach to development in which basic resources are protected and the survival of our planet is assured. Participatory management, adaptive mechanisms and regulations for accessing resources and attainment of a new set of conditions are the most sustainable and realistic ways of reaching solutions.

The spiritual significance of our territories is being lost. Only by better understanding natural phenomena and the effects of our 'toys', as the indigenous people call our technological developments, will we be able to gain a more respectful view of nature and, perhaps, recover the real meaning of our territories and lives.

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NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF THE PEACE PROCESS IN COLOMBIA (1999-2002)

By Cristina Hoyos

This article summarizes a case study about natural resource management in Colombia. The country has been in a civil war for more than 40 years. Conflicts relating to the management of natural resources are rooted in economic, territorial, social and political problems. Economic problems include population growth, poverty, distribution of land, and state politics. Difficult social conditions are the result of migration, poverty, environmental degradation and violence, such as armed conflicts between left-wing guerrillas and right-wing paramilitary groups. To escape conflict, the population migrates into regions where land property rights are not defined or they settle in national parks. In these isolated regions the state is generally weak while other actors, such as illegal drug-traffickers, are strong.

The research was conducted in the *Parque Nacional Natural Tinigua*, or PNNT, over the years 2001 to 2004. This national park is located in the *Departamento Meta* in Colombia and is the only biological corridor that connects the Andes with the Amazon-Orinoco region. The World Bank classified it as an ecological region of strategic importance and accorded it the highest priority for protection because of the outstanding biological diversity. The park is threatened by misleading settlement policies, violent conflicts, cattle-ranching and illicit crop production.

PNNT is situated in the formerly demilitarized zone that was established as a result of the 1999–2002 peace process between FARC-EP (*Fuerzas Armadas de Colombia- Ejército Popular*) and the Colombian Government. After three years of negotiations, the peace process broke down on February 20th, 2002, and part of the research area was hit during the ensuing bombardment of the demilitarized zone.

The objective of the research was to analyse the use of natural resources in the conflict area of the PNNT in the context of the peace process (1999-2002), in economical, political and social aspects. An extended study of the literature on environmental conflict research failed to identify an adequate, single methodology that could help analyse the conflict in the PNNT. It was thus necessary to look into other disciplines that deal with conflict analysis. The field of international cooperation offered a range of methodologies and the following tools were selected as the most promising: Timeline, Conflict Mapping (both adapted by Fisher, *et al.*, 2000), and Conflict Tree. These research tools were applied at three different stages: before, during and after the peace process. The analysis, conducted by two different groups of the national park administration, the *Unidad Administrativa Especial del Sistema de Parques Nacionales*, was realised during a two-day workshop in the capital Bogotá because implementation in the field was deemed too risky for the researchers.

Results

With a few adaptations, all three tools offered complementary perspectives on the PNNT conflict. With the adaptation to this specific set of problems, however, some shortcomings emerged. Therefore, two new

tools were introduced:

- 1 Timeline Impact Assessment, or TIA, helped to analyze the chronology of the conflict, the multitude of the parties involved, the development of the relevant activities, the impact of the use of natural resources and identify the conflicts that rose as a result.
- 2 Conflict Mapping and Conflict Relation Intensity Mapping Evaluation, or CRIME, helped to describe the parties involved in the conflict, their relationships, and the intensity of these relationships in the different stages of the conflict. In turn, this helped to comprehend the quantitative, and to some degree the qualitative, characteristics of the conflict.
- 3 The Conflict Tree helped to unravel the cause of the conflict over the management of natural resources, which helped to define the core problem, and its effects. This instrument is used internationally in different research areas.

The resulting conflict analysis methodology and the selected tools combined can help local, national, and international institutions to better understand the parties involved in conflicts over the use of natural resources and the nature of their problems. In view of the threat that natural resources and biodiversity are exposed to as a result of violent conflict or war, it is necessary to develop close cooperation between local scientific institutions and international organisations and, together, develop efficient and long-lasting conflict resolution strategies.

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CONSERVATION AS COUNTER INSURGENCY IN THE CHIAPAS RAINFOREST?

By Bill Weinberg

The bush plane takes off from Ocosingo, where the Chiapas highlands slope down to the tropical rainforest known as the Lacandon Selva—stronghold of Mexico's rebel Zapatista National Liberation Army (EZLN). We leave behind paved roads and the electricity grid, heading into the verdant canyonlands of what remains a wild frontier, a stretch of jungle along the Guatemalan border only partly under government control. And we are flying into the deepest and most hotly contested part of it—the Montes Azules Biosphere Reserve, recognized by the UN Environment Program for its global biological and cultural significance.

The land below is a patchwork of forest and areas cleared for cattle ranches and peasant communities. But as we head south into Montes Azules, the forested areas grow. We land at Nuevo San Gregorio, a Maya Indian settlement on the edge of the reserve—a cluster of huts in a green valley, the forest a short walk in any direction, and

a day's walk from the nearest road. The church is brightly painted with a mural depicting village life and jungle animals as well as the obligatory Virgin of Guadalupe. Bright green guacamayas soar overhead and howler monkeys cry from the trees. The church and schoolhouse have solar panels; there is no other electricity.

Nicolas Morales Palé, one of the community leaders, brings us out to the cornfield and boasts of the settlement's ecological program. He says they gave up slash-and-burn agriculture ten years ago and have learned a method of rotation that allows them to survive without eating into the forest. Then he passionately grabs a piece of soil and holds it out to us, so we can see its richness for ourselves. "We will die here if we have to," he says. "The women, the children, everybody. We're not leaving alive. We will shed our own blood on this land. We are going to stay here because this land is for the campesinos."

Although there is no government presence whatsoever in this remote settlement, army troops are now stationed in a ring around the biosphere reserve, awaiting orders to eject the "illegal" Indian communities. Since they emerged in the 1994 Zapatista rebellion, the jungle "autonomous municipalities" loyal to the rebels have been protected by the cease-fire. Now President Vicente Fox is preparing to move against the settlements—in the name of ecology.

Ecology groups working in the reserve like Conservation International say "illegal" jungle settlements like Nuevo San Gregorio are destroying the forest. But in the New Years communique commemorating their 1994 uprising, the EZLN's Subcomandante Marcos pledged that the rebels will resist

the government's planned evictions from Montes Azules. "There will not be a peaceful expulsion," wrote Marcos.

Of the 32 communities threatened with eviction, most are EZLN support bases. Others, like Nuevo San Gregorio, are unarmed and not formally part of the rebel movement, but have fraternal relations with the Zapatistas. Everyone in Nuevo San Gregorio supported the Zapatistas' long-stalled peace plan which would give Indian communities—even small jungle settlements like this one—constitutionally-guaranteed autonomy.

Hubliano Lopez-Sanchez, a peasant leader who works with Nuevo San Gregorio in their agro-ecology program, tells me: "We are campesinos and we know how to use the land. We are self-governing indigenous communities. So we have the right to autonomy, as the EZLN is fighting for."

Ironically, these settlers are in the forest because the government encouraged them to clear it for farmland thirty years ago, in order to relieve the land pressures in the highlands. Then, when the biosphere reserve was declared in 1978, they instantly became squatters. The EZLN charges that the government is using this as an excuse to move against their support communities, despite the official truce.

In the evening, the Nuevo San Gregorio village band—a guitar-fiddle-bass trio—put on a concert for us in front of the church, performing valiantly on beat-up old instruments with missing strings. In the morning, after tortillas and eggs, we fly out—continuing south into the heart of the reserve. We fly over the shrinking heart of intact jungle, leaving settlements behind. A

dense, unblemished canopy covers the low mountains for as far as the eye can see in any direction. But it doesn't last long. Just beyond the clear turquoise of Laguna Miramar, which marks the southern border of the reserve, lies a brown plain of exposed, completely deforested earth. This is the drill grounds surrounding San Quentin, the main military base for the Lacandon Selva.

We land in Comitan, the major town on the other side of the forest. Here we meet a family displaced by the first evictions from the reserve, and still living in the compound of a government agency. They are from the settlement of Rio San Pablo, which agreed to leave Montes Azules in December. A detachment of federal police backed up by a helicopter showed up to enforce the eviction. But now the families are still negotiating with federal authorities to be compensated with new lands elsewhere in Chiapas. Says family elder Domingo Perez Gomez: "If it isn't resolved soon, we will go to a ranch to work, because we are not used to living dependent on the government." His advice to those still in the jungle: "Don't leave the Selva, because the government is not to be trusted!"

Reached in Tuxtla, the state capital, Ignacio March, Conservation International's pointman for Montes Azules, told me: "Some people seem to think that poverty is a good excuse to destroy the reserve. But the Lacandon Selva has been half destroyed over the last 20 years and poverty has only increased. The government cannot give land to every invader because that only provides an incentive to invade. It is a difficult problem. We still haven't found a solution, and unfortunately the Zapatista conflict is an obstacle to finding one. Many people exploit that and are going into the jungle".

Back in the highland city of San Cristobal de Las Casas, as I prepared to fly home to New York, the skies, which had been crystalline nearly throughout the trip, became soupy with haze. TV reported that a massive forest fire had broken out in Montes Azules. The government blamed slash-and-burn agriculture by the illegal Indian communities. But residents of one such community, Ocho de Febrero, a Zapatista "autonomous municipality," reported to local human rights groups that the fires had been intentionally set by unknown men. They had destroyed homes, cornfields and animals, forcing residents to flee to neighboring communities.

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<http://www.nativeamericas.com>*

**FOREST USE AND CONSERVATION
IMPLICATIONS OF THE ZAPATISTA
REBELLION IN CHIAPAS, MEXICO**

By Mario González-Espinosa

The Zapatista rebellion

On New Year's Day of 1994, Mexican society and the world were shocked by news coming from San Cristóbal de Las Casas, an old city in central Chiapas, Mexico. A well-organised, clandestine army of Maya peasants had taken the city without violence and, in the main square, proclaimed a declaration of war against the neo-liberal Mexican Government. As representatives of the Indian peoples of Mexico, the *Zapatista Army for National Liberation (Ejército Zapatista de Liberación Nacional, or EZLN)* protested against more than five centuries of extreme poverty, the lack of development opportunities, and the age-old social mistreatment and abuse by the rest of society. Unprecedented violent clashes took place in central Chiapas during the following days, until an agreement was reached on a cease-fire and the start of peace talks. Finally, in February 1996, a first important joint announcement was signed among the parties, the *Acuerdos de San Andrés*. Yet, after ten years, the conflict remains at a standstill because of the unwillingness of the Mexican Federal Government to fulfill these *Acuerdos*. Efforts to resume negotiations remain unsuccessful and, for a decade, the *Zapatistas* have kept themselves completely outside of any official programs and promote their own government structures (*Juntas de Buen Gobierno, JBG*).

Forest abuse and the rebellion

Much has been written on the complex causes of the *Zapatista* rebellion. Yet there is not a single, thorough analysis on how the lack of development of sustainable forestry has contributed to social unrest, particularly in the highlands. The *EZLN* was organised in Tojolabal, Tzotzil, Tzeltal, and Chol communities who live in the steep mountains of the central and eastern highlands of Chiapas. The region is known for its vast biological and cultural richness. However, Chiapas is also known as the region with the lowest social and economic development in the country. A struggle to open up more land for cultivation has been identified among the causes of the conflict, in combination with an explosive population growth. Yet most of the territory occupied by the *EZLN* forces is not suitable for agricultural development. The shallow and calcareous soils on steep slopes support degraded forests and produce meager harvests from eroded and infertile fields. The communities have used forest products and services for centuries, through their traditional land-use practices that include slash-and-burn-agriculture. I argue that the interaction between the people and their forests, heavily affected by past forestry, agricultural, and conservation policies, has played an important role in the origin of the conflict.

Over the three decades that preceded the *Zapatista* rebellion, forest resources in Chiapas were generally exploited by timber-oriented concessionaries that did not invest in long-term forestry. The plunder of prime timber motivated an extreme and influential conservation movement that eventually led to the establishment of a series of important federal and state natural protected areas (NPAs), frequently with the support of

international organisations. While efforts to conserve the forest were necessary, it must be said that in most cases the basic needs of local people were not considered. Population growth and the need for additional agricultural land thus led to invasions and settlement along the margins of the NPAs. The protected areas thus form a root cause of conflict, both among communities themselves and with authorities that attempt to forcibly relocate the settlers.

A few years before the *Zapatista* revolt erupted, the state government decreed a controversial halt on permits for the use of forests. As a result, sawmills were dismantled and timber sales to local markets came to a halt. In mountainous areas, where forest management is the prime option for sustainable land-use, people were put in jail or heavily fined if they were caught logging for firewood or other non-commercial timber. This was particularly pressing because it coincided with low market prices for major agricultural products such as maize and coffee. The inadequate, political decree has led to an escalation of the conflicts of interests between forest use and conservation and it has contributed to social resentment and the need for additional land.

Consequences of forest abuse

From 1960 onwards, the overall rate of deforestation in Chiapas has been higher than in the rest of the country; it is one of the highest in the world. Following the rebellion, lack of governance allowed rampant illegal clearing for agriculture, livestock ranching, and human settlement. In the central highlands of Chiapas, selective logging of *Quercus* and other broadleaved species for firewood has impoverished forest stands.

This has substantially decreased the potential yields from traditional agriculture-forest rotations. In addition, conflicts among communities have not made it any easier to reach agreements on the use of remaining forests or on the restoration of degraded and cleared areas. These inter-community conflicts can be extremely violent, sometimes involving religious parties. Only a handful of communities have been able to organise themselves to manage their forest stands and secure financial support for certified forestry or carbon sequestration.

Outlook

When will the *Zapatista* conflict end? Not soon, apparently. Crucial legal, political and planning issues related to forest use are still waiting for solutions or show only sluggish progress. An increasing number of groups ask for technical advice on forest restoration, not an easy question in view of the complex, biological richness of their resource base. There may be some 1,300 native tree species in Chiapas, which makes the urgent ecological restoration of diversity a most challenging task, even if the aim is to use only 100-200 species. On the side of the *Zapatistas*, the emphasis on community-agreed forest use in the context of the *JBG* is encouraging. No single research institute is able to provide the required expertise to guide such initiatives on its own. Restoration projects can successfully request widespread involvement of local people, particularly from women and teenagers, in collecting, producing, and maintaining the required planting materials, provided the projects are scientifically and technically sound, and are based on confidence and respect. When academic institutions can organise themselves and make sincere progress in

this direction, they will probably be better prepared to support social organisations, community assemblies, and Governments with sustainable forestry projects and peace can be finally achieved.

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WHY IS THERE VIOLENCE IN SOME FOREST AREAS OF MEXICO?

By Salvador Anta Fonseca

Mexico has achieved important economic and social goals in the last few years; still, it lags behind in political, social and economic terms that manifest themselves principally in rural areas. In the Mexican countryside and especially in the forest areas there are still high levels of poverty, marginalization, and ungovernable places.

The Mexican Government's efforts to strengthen the forestry sector remain limited and insufficient; 8.6 million hectares are managed under commercial forest management permits and another 8.2

million hectares of forested areas lie within Natural Protection Reserves. This totals 16.8 million hectares, only. In contrast, the remaining 110 million hectares of forested areas in our country lack forest management programs, incentives, and local governance, which would promote the protection and the sustainable use of natural resources. It is precisely in these forest areas where violence and ungovernableness are most frequent. In many cases there are organised, armed groups that carry out illegal activities, such as illegal timber extraction, drug cultivation, and the occupation of forest lands. The violence causes a serious deterioration of the forests and disrupts the quality of life of the population.

Mexico does have successful examples of good forest management, where community forest enterprises operate under the administration of communities and *ejidos*. In places where 'community forestry' is practiced and in places where the forest is managed, landholders tend to protect the natural resources with the support of local government. This local support is complemented by the federal government's system of forest management permits. For this reason deforestation, forest fires, illegal logging and the cultivation of illegal drugs have had a low incidence rate in lands covered by these permits.

On the other hand, the main causes of violence and ungovernableness in Mexico's forest regions are related to agrarian conflicts between neighboring villages, impacts of a number of public policies, general weakening of local government structures, drug trafficking, and the lack of law enforcement. The Mexican federal

government has identified 100 critical regions and nine ungovernable regions where illegal forest activities take place. The nine ungovernable regions are: The Tarahumara Range, the Tepehuana Range, the Monarch Butterfly Reserve, the Lacandona Forest, the Zoque Forest, the Petatan and Coyuca Ranges, the Zempoala Range and the Izta-Popo National Parks. In the Monarch Butterfly region, as in other regions within Michoacan and Estado de Mexico, illegal logging has become a serious problem, as heavily-armed groups have raided community and ejido forests at night. These groups have illegally extracted timber without the consent of the landowners, who, fearing reprisals, have avoided confronting them or bringing them before the authorities.

Illegal logging finds its origin in weakening local governance caused by loss of social capital through migration, parceling-out land and by corrupted government officials. The Forest Law of 1992 has also had an influence, through its attempts at deregulation and at increasing forest management efficiency. In pursuing these policies, the law has weakened government mechanisms for controlling and monitoring forest products. Although the present situation has partially improved thanks to new legislation, the illegal practices in these regions are difficult to eradicate.

In forests in the states of Guerrero, Sinaloa, Durango and Chihuahua, drug cultivation has weakened governance and increased violence, with serious social repercussions for local inhabitants. For lack of economic alternatives in their region, inhabitants have become involved in this type of cultivation, leading to increasing problems with the law.

Violence in the forest areas stems from agrarian problems and legalistic disputes over boundaries that have remained unresolved over many decades. This is the result of a lack in law enforcement and government responsibility. In turn, communities have taken justice into their own hands, causing a series of armed clashes between communities, ejidos, and small landholders. Some of the most recurrent conflicts have taken place in the indigenous communities of Oaxaca, the Chimalapas, and in the Huichola and Tepehuana regions.

Agrarian conflicts have caused very violent incidents, such as the one that occurred in the South Range of Oaxaca in 2002, when an armed group killed more than twenty members of a neighboring community because of a boundary dispute. This problem arose because the government failed to address the agrarian and social problems of the region. Rather than to take-up its responsibility, the state government chose to transfer it and blamed the federal forest sector authorities.

Due to the lack of response from the federal government, it was not possible to determine the true responsibility of the institutions, and the forest communities and ejidos remained discredited as a result. Instead of inquiring into, and clearing up these events, the federal government preferred to establish new measures that over-regulated forest activities. These measures proved most harmful for those who had made the best attempts towards the management and sustainable use of forest resources: the forest communities and ejidos of Oaxaca and Mexico.

As one can see, the violence that thrives in

the various forest regions of Mexico can only be solved with public policies that strengthen the governance of forest communities and ejidos, and their technical and organisational skills. Paternalistic channeling of resources does not help. Rather, through the investment of economic funds in these areas, good forest management practices can be promoted, and in turn, generate profits. The federal government has begun to take important steps in the resolution of the agrarian conflicts, however, on a sectoral level, the Government should also take up a leading role in the national forest policies. This would prevent the impunity and injustice that frequently arise from powerful political and economic groups at state and regional levels.

Only by addressing the problem in a comprehensive manner, can Mexico avert more casualties and violence in its forests, and continue to advance its democratic transition and social justice processes.

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EL BALCÓN, MEXICO. BUILDING PEACE AND GOVERNABILITY AROUND COMMUNAL FORESTS

By Leticia Merino

The Ejido¹ el Balcón is located in the highlands of the sierra, close to the Pacific Ocean in the region called Costa Grande in the Mexican state of Guerrero. "It has an average elevation of 7,200 feet, with a very rugged topography that leaves parts of the area isolated during the rainy season when some fifty-five inches of rain fall" (D. Bray and L. Merino, 2003, p.65). Guerrero means warrior in Spanish and the region has honored that name; a climate of constant violence has marked life in this sierra for many decades.

During the 1960s and 70s, the region was fought over by guerrillas and the government. In order to eradicate the guerrillas, the army subjected the region to a regime of fierce repression and thousands lost their lives. Today, thirty years later, people still demand that those who are responsible for Mexico's 'dirty war' be brought to justice. Fights over land between 'campesino' groups have made violence a permanent feature of life in Costa Grande. Production of illicit crops thrives in the region, under the ideal conditions of weak or nonexistent local institutions and isolated forests. Drug cultivation and trafficking have introduced new, powerful players to the regional stage of violence and ungovernableness.

The coastal sierra in Guerrero is covered with large forests that have been exploited

for decades. According to the majority of the people in the region, this activity represents an abuse of the forest to the benefit of outsiders. Foreign and Mexican companies alike logged the forests of the sierra during the first half of the 20th century. During the 1970s, the federal government created the state-owned company FOVIGRO (Forestal Vicente Guerrero), which received an exclusive concession to log the sierra. Often, the army was called in to guard the installations of FOVIGRO. Apart from some unskilled employment, people of the region hardly received benefits, in spite of the fact that many privately owned forests were being logged. The concession ended only by the end of the 1980s.

The Ejido el Balcón was formed in 1966 when the Mexican government granted collective property rights to 136 *family heads* over 2,400 hectares. In 1974, another 19,150 hectares of forestlands were given to the ejido (Bray D. and L. Merino, 2003). This was a time of permanent confrontations over the land. In the initial days of the ejido, nearly 20% of El Balcón's community members were widows of under 30.

Within the context of Guerrero, and of rural Mexico, the case of el Balcón is remarkable for several reasons:

The ejido has built a forest enterprise that uses modern technology to produce certified timber for the export market. The ejido enterprise employs all ejido members who want to work for it. Profits have largely been invested in the social welfare of the nearly 600 people living in the ejido (health care, education, public infrastructure).

From satellite images or by simply traveling through high parts of the sierra, one can

readily observe the deterioration of the forests, which constantly suffer from fires and illegal logging. El Balcón is the exception: its lands are covered with well-preserved forests and its forest management has been certified under the Forest Stewardship Council in 2003.

Nevertheless, the most important achievement of el Balcón is the climate of agreement, governability and peace that it has built amidst a region that has fallen victim to illegal logging and drug trafficking. These activities may have brought relative wealth to some in the sierra, but they have also ruptured the social fabric by strengthening deeply authoritarian *cacicazgos*, violence and corruption, and social mistrust. On top of that, conditions have aggravated in recent years by increasing drug consumption among youngsters in the region. These conditions are not favorable to the development of local institutions that are required for collective management of a communal resource and for investment in communal entrepreneurship. During the final years of the 1990s, the Costa Grande acquired international notoriety due to the movement of the so-called 'campesino ecologists'. These are inhabitants of the lowland sierra who opposed forest extraction in the highlands that affects water resources. Rodolfo Montiel and others blocked logging trucks. They were arrested by state police, later tortured and accused of drug trafficking.

Within this volatile context, collective action in el Balcón revolved around management of the forest, its most important asset. The forest has been the axis for the development of social capital and local institutions. Looking back in local history, key factors that may help explain the extraordinary

institutional development of el Balcón have been the quality of the leaders, their preference for negotiation over confrontation in dealing with internal problems as well as with neighboring ejidos, their insistence on the importance of issues such as regulated forest management, transparency of the ejido's business and association with other forest ejidos of the region. Also of help were the presence of agencies that monitored and assessed the ejido enterprise, and the high level of community participation in these agencies, in the forest management and in the enterprise.

The ejido assembly has even been able to take measures to control the cultivation of illicit crops. Those who are found-out planting illegal crops are expelled from participation in collective property rights. Lands that were cleared years ago to produce such crops have been reforested.

The social capital produced by collective action has enabled el Balcón to develop economic and natural assets and, most important, it has enabled its members to maintain a climate of peaceful local governance.

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¹ The ejido is a form of collective tenure in México. The formal owner is the group of ejidatarios, but inside the group private rights are recognized, especially over agricultural and urban land. Forest areas tend to be collective property.

Most of these continue to function at a basic level, even though they are hampered by the conflict. Today, CFUGs are the only remaining democratic institutions that operate in conflict-ridden areas. Where support institutions fail to deliver technical assistance to the CFUGs, opportunities for forest management and production are lost. Therefore, the authors propose to initiate discourses on the issue and to train local resource persons who can fill the knowledge gap and deliver the necessary technical input to community forests (CFs).

4. ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

IMPACT OF ARMED CONFLICT IN COMMUNITY FORESTRY OF NEPAL

By Mani Ram Banjade and Netra Prasad Timsina

Since 1996 Nepal has suffered from an ongoing, armed conflict between the state and Maoist insurgents. The root of the conflict is believed to be in the stratification of economic classes, ethnic tensions and regional imbalance in development. The armed conflict has led to a decline of state services in rural areas, including forestry services. Development has come to a standstill and economic growth is negative. Management of natural resources receives less attention, due to security related issues. Government staff cannot access remote areas and the presence there of bilateral organisations and NGOs is limited.

There are around 13,300 Community Forest User Groups, or CFUGs, in Nepal.

Impact of Armed Conflict

Limited mobility

Because of the armed conflict in Nepal, community forestry has been affected in many ways. As a rule, community members require a permit from the conflicting parties, government as well as Maoist rebels, for each and every activity they wish to conduct in the forest. This restricts mobility and reduces the level of forest management. The insecurity discourages CFUGs from taking development initiatives and obstructs the organisation of group meetings and assemblies on forest management.

Support organisations have seen their mobility restricted in almost all rural districts of Nepal. They either need to get formal approval from the insurgents and/or in some specific cases government has not allowed them to move freely in the areas. Many bilateral organisations, INGOs and NGOs have to limit their outreach to areas close to the district headquarters because of continuous threats from rebels and for the fear of becoming entangled between the two rivals. The limited mobility of support institutions has impaired the supply of technical services and constrained the

potential contribution of community forestry to human well-being and environmental sustainability.

Training and camps inside CFs

Insurgents train and take refuge in forested areas, including community forests. When they are present, access to the forest is restricted and those who do enter run the risk of being labelled a 'spy'. In other cases, e.g., in part of the Khorthali CFUG of the Dolakha district of Nepal, the government has established military camps inside community forests and users are not allowed to enter the periphery of the forest at all.

Levied taxes on forest products sales and restrictions on trade

The government levies tax on certain forest products, e.g. 15% on sales of Sal and Khair timber. Now, Maoists demand the same amount of tax, too. This double tax has made it difficult for CFUGs to trade these products since they can no longer cover the cost of production. In this way, many CFUGs are forced to give up on forest management or the collection of forest products. In some cases, Maoists have banned extraction of certain forest products from specific districts. Recently, for example, the Maoists banned all collection and sale of Khair (*Acacia catechu*) from the Dhankuta district where this species is abundant and provides the only source of income to a number of CFUGs.

Different regulatory frameworks

In many hill districts of Nepal CFUGs are faced by two parallel regulatory frameworks. One is by the government where they have to register as CFUG and get approval for their five-year plan of forest operations. Another is by Maoists who implement their own rules and, in addition, forcibly dissolve existing CFUGs in order to form new forest

protection committees. Meanwhile, CFUGs have to abide by both regulatory directives. This has discouraged community members away from becoming involved in forest management and forced them to seek alternative ways of making a living.

Income tax for development workers

In remote areas, a few development workers from (I)NGOs still operate, but most of them have to pay the monthly levy (or tax) to the Maoists, too. Usually they are paying it informally but the organisations they represent are against it. If these organisations or their staff is found out paying taxes to the Maoists, the government would penalize them or they would be subjected to torture. This very difficult position of the development workers explains their limited presence in the field.

New Initiatives

In response to an increased demand and decreased level of technical inputs in areas of armed conflict, organisations that working in the field of community forestry have realized that skilled manpower at local level, other than forestry staff, is required. In addition, they propose that local institutions including local NGOs and other community-based organisations (CBOs) be trained to deliver these technical services. As a result, most of these organisations, in different forms and intensities, are engaged in the training of local resource persons. However, due to the ongoing-armed conflict, these initiatives cannot fully address the need for technical assistance.

If local resource persons are capacitated with the technical skills of forest management as well as handling the issues of CF at times of violent conflict, they could better manage their resources than technicians from outside.

Local resource persons can also sense the security situation, negotiate with conflicting parties and help prepare a conducive environment for active forest management. In addition, they can minimize the divide between the government initiated CF programme and the different modality of forest management induced by the Maoists. This can help ensure harmonious and sustainable forest management.

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**ARMED CONFLICTS AND
COMMUNITY FOREST USER
GROUPS IN NEPAL: Can community
forestry survive and contribute to
peace building at local level?**

By Dr Bharat K. Pokharel and Dinesh Paudel

Armed conflict in Nepal started in 1950 when the leadership of the Nepali Congress Party (NC) attempted to restore democracy and write a new constitution through a constitutional assembly. NC abandoned its policy of armed fight and gained power in 1960 by peaceful means. However, the late King Mahendra regained power in 1962, imposed a non-party Panchayat system and ruled for 30 years. Some 20 years after

the original armed conflict, the Marxist-Leninist Nepal communist party (ML) started armed fights. ML put forward almost the same demands of constitutional assembly and establishment of a republican nation, but it abandoned the fights. A democratic student movement backed by NC and student unions backed by ML forced the late King to announce a referendum in 1980 that resulted in a reformed Panchayat system. In 1990 the Panchayat system was abolished and a multi-party system was established through a people's movement, led jointly by NC and ML. The resulting power-sharing arrangement among NC, the ML-led Left front and the King failed to meet the people's expectations; Maoists took advantage of this and started a 'people's war' in 1996 with virtually identical demands as the earlier ones by the NC and ML.

The current Maoist insurgency is the continuation of the conflicts since the 1950s. The major demands by the people or the key political players then have not yet been met. Unlike in the past, all the people and sections of society are now affected by the conflict. Since 1996, more than a thousand people were killed per year and hundreds of thousands have been displaced and intimidated. At present, there is no parliament. Local governments of people's representatives do not exist. The state has no presence in rural areas. Government officials are confined in district headquarters. The only functional institutions in the villages of rural Nepal are user groups, predominantly the Forest User Groups, which have become the means to keep democracy alive in the villages.

Forests, agriculture and livestock are integral parts of Nepal's hill farming system, but the long-established community-based, collective forest management systems

were disrupted by the expansion of forest bureaucracy in the 1950s and the Forest Nationalization Act of 1957. Under enormous local and international pressure in the 1970s, community forestry was reintroduced in 1978; initially, only up to Panchayat (municipal) level. Inhabitants of the respective Panchayat and the forest location did not match, however, which rendered attempts towards forest protection and management ineffective. A Forestry Sector Master Plan was prepared and the concept of user groups was re-introduced in 1988. Under multi-party democracy, restored in 1990, the concept of user groups was endorsed and backed. There are now 13 000 Forest User Groups, involving about 35 percent of the population, who manage 1.1 million hectares of forested land, a quarter of the national total.

Despite the rapid increase of forest user groups, the present armed conflict in Nepal has several negative effects on the community forests and their management. Personal insecurity and war-related disharmony and threats are causing reduced frequency of visits to the forests and average time spent there, and hence, a reduction in silvicultural operations and the amount of forests products harvested. One woman in the Dolakha district: "I am afraid to go high into the forest these days because I might be killed by security forces if I encounter them in the jungle. Or Maoists might suspect me of spying and might kill me if they are chased by security forces".

Both sides in the armed conflict also threaten people against organising or attending general assemblies and gatherings where collective decisions about harvesting and forest management are made. Some leaders of forest users groups have been

displaced from their home. Rebel groups have asked group leaders to abandon their positions. The practice of exacting forced donations from group funds is also increasing. A group member: "Our forest user groups would be more active in forest management if there would have been peace".

In many places local elites have created alliances with smugglers and contractors to supply forest products illegally. Some contractors have been able to influence rebels by regular donations and thus managed to extract products in remote areas. Government security forces have in many cases clear-felled forests in river and road corridors, on hilltops and around security posts to protect themselves from rebel attacks.

The conflict has some positive impacts, including increased transparency and reduced misuse of group funds. Local elites are challenged and they are afraid of abusing community funds. Their attitude towards poor and marginalized people has started to change and they are increasingly sensitive to issues of equity and transparency in decision-making processes. The participation of marginalized and lower-caste people in leadership positions has notably increased.

The achievements of community forestry are universally acknowledged and admired because of positive effects on the state of the forests and increased group funds. However, policies and practices of key players, such as government, the Maoists, local governments and indigenous rural elites, pose an increasing threat to community forestry through imposition of multiple taxes, extortion of donations and

capturing positions and resources. For example, both government and Maoists have started to impose forced taxes and donations to be raised from FUG funds. Similarly, the Self-Governance Act of 1999 places Forest User Groups among the local bodies under local government authority. This is a direct threat to their autonomy. Local elites intending to control leadership, funds and timber management using forest users group Committees as a platform also pose a threat to community forestry. Despite threats from the key actors

building, local democracy, good forest governance, financial capital formation and mobilization at grassroots level. While community forests constitute only a quarter of the national total, the annual income generated from them is about NRs 747 million, 200 million more than the income from national forests generated by the Department of Forests. More importantly, the pro-poor orientation of community forestry is found to have a positive impact on the most vulnerable people in remote areas (Box 1). This is why community forestry can survive against big actors that represent the legacy of a feudal state, a centralized economy and control from above.

Box 1 Effects of community forestry

- Increased participation and representation of women and socially marginalized groups in leadership positions
- Increased availability of forest products to the villagers
- Increasing trend of poor peoples' access to forest-based enterprises
- Access of socially deprived people to education through user groups' fund
- More self-employment and income generation opportunities through forest products and increased livestock
- Increased availability of community forest land as a means for additional income
- Greater opportunities for capacity building from trainings and tours
- Access to group fund at times of crisis and natural disaster

Despite difficulties and armed conflicts, Nepal's community forestry is advancing towards good forest governance and increasingly achieves its dual goals of sustainable forest management and improved people's livelihoods. Community forestry clearly contributes to the reduction of poverty, inequality, injustice, social discrimination and environmental degradation – the main causes of conflict in Nepal. Community forestry can be a strong foundation of democracy and a vehicle for peace building, at least locally.

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mentioned above, Nepal's community forestry is found to be one of the most successful programmes in terms of improved forest condition, institution

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Note: The Nepal–Swiss Community Forestry Project is a SDC-funded bilateral project managed by Intercooperation.

LIVELIHOODS, ENVIRONMENT AND CONFLICT IN FORESTED AREAS IN DIR-KOHISTAN, PAKISTAN AND KORAPUT, INDIA

By Shaheen Khan, Kundan Kumar and Richard Matthew

In 1999, after an examination of the environmental security literature of the 1980s and 1990s, the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) undertook a case study of environmental change, conservation and conflict in Pakistan's North West Frontier Province (NWFP). The 2002 report of the first major project of its Commission on Environmental, Economic and Social Policy (CEESP) highlighted the importance of resource rights –or the lack thereof– in shaping the societal effects of environmental change and conservation efforts.

In 2003 the CEESP Working Group, the IUCN Regional Environmental Law Programme, Asia, and the International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD), jointly examined the linkages among livelihoods, resource rights and violent conflict in wetlands and forests in South Asia; interdisciplinary teams of local experts

undertook case studies through archives, site visits, interviews, community meetings and workshops. The findings were presented at the World Conservation Congress in Bangkok, November 2004. Two cases are summarized below.

Dir-Kohistan, in northern Pakistan, 12 000 sq.km, with 36 percent coniferous or oak scrub forest, has about 113 000 residents (1998 census) of three ethnic groups: Pukhtoon, Kohistani and Gujar. One of the least developed areas of Pakistan, Dir-Kohistan has an agrarian subsistence economy, extremely low literacy rates (women less than 1 percent), and little infrastructure. Traditionally, forest resources were allocated by the leaders through a system of customary rights and principles that clearly favoured the Kohistani. Disputes were settled through jirga, ad-hoc community councils.

The 1927 Colonial Forest Act, passed by the British, was focused on extraction rather than conservation, and designed to exclude local communities from access to and management of the forests, while partly recognizing customary law by granting some concessions to the Kohistani. After independence in 1947 this legislation was retained, and the forests were regarded as state lands that could be protected or leased to timber contractors. At first, as Pakistan sought to gain control over its northern regions, the forests were largely ignored, but in the 1960s, as their commercial value increased, they were leased to private contractors. The revenue from timber sales was distributed to the government forest department, the contractors (operating costs and a mark-up) and the local community, whose share was based on a calculation of its customary rights. When

local people protested the terms of these agreements, the government agreed to raise the community share from 12 to 60 percent of the royalties. Unfortunately, due to widespread official corruption and the strong-arm tactics of the timber mafia that emerged in the 1970s, local communities received very little as the forests were rapidly cleared.

In recent years, in the valleys in which the Gujars and Pathans are in a minority, they have invoked the hereditary provisions of Islamic law to claim a share in the royalties, regarding it as less biased than customary or statutory law. It is also more generous towards women, and thus has an appeal to the half of the local population that has been denied any legal standing for centuries.

This complex background of diverse legal systems, official corruption and criminal activity (including trade in opium derivatives) helps to explain why competing claims over forest resources have rarely been resolved. Moreover, population growth has sharply increased the gap between livelihood options and community needs.

Dir-Kohistan is today one of the most conflict-prone regions of Pakistan, a situation inviting, and reinforced by religious extremism and transnational drug-related criminal activity. Under these turbulent conditions it is very difficult to balance livelihood and conservation needs, even though sound management programmes have been devised based on extensive stakeholder consultation. While there are some positive signs, such as the recent establishment of the first girls' school in Dir, the future of the forests and the people appears quite alarming. It is essential that land disputes be settled in ways beneficial

to the local communities; this requires a legal system that is affordable, compatible with elements of customary and Sharia law, and trusted.

The project site in **Koraput district, India**, is part of the Eastern Ghats, a hilly region of almost 50 000 sq.km in southern Orissa, where tribal communities constitute over 60 percent of the population. The people have been impoverished, unlike elsewhere in Orissa and India: from 73 percent living below \$1/day in 1983 to 85 percent in 2000. The limited employment options and severe and rapid environmental degradation in Koraput district make the people's livelihood very insecure. This exacerbated by a legal system that is poorly understood locally, rife with contradictions, frequently ignored, and often in support of land use and tenure claims clearly at odds with the actual situation and the interests of the local communities.

The project team prepared a land use map of the study site and found major discrepancies between de facto land use and de jure land tenure. In particular, large areas traditionally under shifting cultivation by the tribal communities have been officially categorized as State-owned Forest Land and Revenue Wastelands, without resource rights to the cultivators. Many people are not even aware that they have no legal claim to the land they are cultivating. Government does not even acknowledge shifting cultivation as a legitimate land use, even though it is estimated to be practised over between 5 and 20 percent of Orissa. The legal instruments governing land in the area allow only land that has been in possession for 12 years to be settled on behalf of the cultivators, thus dispossessing historically embedded tribal communities

of their shifting cultivation land.

The current large investments for bauxite mining, hydroelectric and irrigation projects, the influx of outsiders, existing and potential displacement through development projects, and the complete lack of accountability of the State to the local people are already creating tensions and conflicts. The high stakes in commercial exploitation of these areas have led to State repression and several incidents in which people have been killed by police.

Exclusion-based environmental conservation legislation such as the 1980 Forest Conservation Act and the 1972 Wildlife Protection Act is another major cause of displacement, as Forest Land and Wildlife Protected Areas cover over half of the region. These statutes do not allow settlements and cultivation in land categorized as forest, in spite of widespread shifting and settled cultivation. Effectively outlawing the customary use of over half the land resources of the tribal communities, the formal land tenure system has thus created conditions under which people can be displaced and uprooted without any compensation, and an explosive mix of disempowerment and resentment. For example, almost 70 percent of the case study area was under shifting cultivation on land categorized as Reserve Forest and Government land. Recent efforts to enforce the law have already led to conflicts.

It is desperately necessary to grant legal recognition and land tenure to the people who have been eking out a subsistence living in the region for generations, but who are without any legal protection today, in order to avoid a potential sharp increase in violent conflict.

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FORESTS AND ARMED CONFLICTS IN JAMMU AND KASHMIR IN INDIA: PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

By Chetan Kumar

In the Indian forestry sector, forestry and conservation practitioners, development cooperation professionals and researchers have paid little attention to the impacts of armed conflicts on forests and people living in these regions. This can be explained by the diversity of forests and of associated socio-political reasons for conflict, which obscures the relationship between the two. The key problems are hardly understood due to the anecdotal nature of evidence and lack of empirical research. This restricts the prospects of drawing the attention of decision-makers and development cooperation agencies to the issue.

The forested regions of India cover almost one-third of the total land area of the country. However, forest cover varies a lot between states. For instance, while some states in the northeastern part of India have over 50% geographic area under forests, other states in the north have only 5 to 8% forest cover.

Armed conflicts occur in both areas with high and low forest cover. These conflicts are manifested in different ways and have different ideological or political purposes. In India, forest and armed conflicts can be broadly related in two ways. First, armed conflicts can be a result of problems in the control of forest resources, for example problems of/ in land alienation, misappropriation of forest resources by contractors, and smugglers mainly in tribal regions. Secondly, violent conflicts may affect forest management and forest based livelihoods, and forest resources may be used for financing these conflicts. This article particularly deals with the latter case i.e. impacts of conflicts on forests in the northern state of Jammu and Kashmir in India.

The state of Jammu and Kashmir is located in the far north of the Indian Republic in a mountainous area in the north-west Himalayas, and shares international boundaries with Pakistan and China. Kashmir is a green, saucer-shaped valley with many fruit orchards surrounded by snowy mountain ranges. Forests cover about 10% of the state's land. The region has a long history of violent conflicts; since the late sixteenth century there have been various periods of occupation and military confrontations. Since 1947, India and Pakistan, both claiming the whole of Kashmir, have fought two wars over the territory. From 1989 onwards, a number of militant separatists groups have been engaged in armed conflicts with Indian security forces, resulting in massive use of violence by both parties. In Kashmir thousands of people have been killed in reprisals, mass and selective killings, assassinations, sabotage, or hijacking of aircrafts. The massive deployments of

armies on the borders of Kashmir, movements and activities of various militant groups and the conflicts between them have affected the state of the forests and forest based livelihoods in the area.

One of the major results of the armed conflicts was that the forests and conservation activities have suffered continuously. Valuable trees have become a source of easy money to finance weapons, for example, an old mature deodar tree could buy three AK-56 assault rifles. Hence many militant organisations have resorted to indiscriminate cutting of trees. As weapons are easily available in Kashmir, timber smugglers and poachers thrive and threaten wildlife. Throughout the valley, the wildlife population is declining rapidly due to loss of natural habitat caused by extensive deforestation. The widespread use of heavy weapons by both security forces and militants has further threatened wildlife. Rare species like the snow leopard, the Kashmiri otter, the flying squirrel, the long-tailed Himalayan marmot and the Kashmiri stag have almost become extinct. In addition, the forests have suffered from frequent fires due to the armed conflicts. The largest zone where these forest fires occur is located directly along the militarized line-of-control which divides the state of Jammu and Kashmir. Since this is a military zone, it is not possible to fight or control these fires.

Another major impact of the ongoing conflict in the region has been the loss of livelihoods for a large percentage of the population, which was dependent on income from forest-related products. The state's famed woodcraft trade, employing close to a hundred thousand people has been severely affected. Also, lack of other sources

of income due to the conflicts forced families to clear trees for farmland and increase grazing for supplemental income. Overall, in the last two decades, there has been a significant decline in the forest cover as well as in agricultural productivity. The deforestation and mismanagement of water resources have created environmental problems such as soil erosion and frequent the flash floods. The violent nature of conflicts and the political instability have also constrained the enforcement of forest and environmental legislation or regulations. Several forest officers have lost their lives in these conflicts along with scores of innocent local villagers.

In the last couple of years, the government, NGOs and other agencies have shown a growing concern for the loss of forests and associated environmental problems. Various prospects have emerged. An important aspect of this has been the focus on strengthening the institutional set up at various levels. However, this seems to be a difficult task as it is not only dependent on the efforts of local villagers and forest department staff but it also requires greater involvement of other agencies such as the military, or the police. The prospects involve creating awareness of all the stakeholders as well as strengthening the confidence of local people to participate in such processes. As there is very little experience of dealing with such a situation in the state, national and international development organisations could play a role by sharing their expertise and resources to restore Kashmir, once known as the 'Paradise on Earth'.

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EFFECTS OF WARFARE ON NATURAL ECOSYSTEMS AND BIODIVERSITY IN VIETNAM

By Dang Huy Huynh and Ho Thanh Hai

Destructiveness of warfare to humans and their civilization is well appreciated. Warfare can cause not only a tremendous loss of human life but also damage to ecosystems and biodiversity, and long-term effects on the natural environment. Thirty years after the end of the war in Vietnam there are still major hazards and long-term effects of the conventional munitions, and especially of the military use of herbicides.

Explosives. During the second Indochina war of 1961-1975, the total quantity of munitions used by United States forces alone was more than 14.3 million metric tons, about twice the amount used by United States during World War II. About half of the explosive tonnage was delivered from the air, half by artillery: about 20 million bombs of various sizes, 230 million artillery shells and more than 100 million grenades, plus additional millions of rockets and mortar

shells. This caused great damage to the landscape of Indochina. For example, in 1967-1968 the explosion of 225-and 340-kg bombs dropped in a saturation pattern by B-52 bombers formed an estimated 2.5 million craters in about 4.5 million ha, 26 percent of South Vietnam. An important long-term effect has been the presence a vast number of unexploded devices, which cause a lingering hazard in the landscape. An estimated 10 percent of US munitions did not explode, causing an explosive legacy of about 2 million bombs, 23 million artillery shells and tens of millions of other high-explosive items.

Bomb explosions often started forest fires. It was estimated that more than 40 percent of South Vietnam's pine plantations was burned during the war, with most fires being ignited by exploding bombs.

Herbicides. Approximately 76 million litres of herbicides were sprayed over 10-14 percent of South Vietnam. The most frequently used formulation was a 50/50 mixture of 2,4,5-T plus 2,4-D, known as Agent Orange. About 86 percent of the spray missions were targeted on forest, the remainder on cropland. The Aluoi Valley in central Viet Nam, near the Laos border, was one of the heavily sprayed areas.

The most extensively sprayed type of vegetation was forest, which covered more than 10 million ha, about 60 percent of South Vietnam. Mangrove forest is particularly sensitive to herbicide. About 110,000 ha of coastal mangrove were sprayed at least once, about 36 percent of the total. The spraying devastated the mangrove ecosystem and created a large area of poorly vegetated or unvegetated coastal barrens.

The Society for Social Responsibility in Science funded a March 1969 trip of biologists to learn about the effects of defoliants. One of their field trips, for example, was to Rung Sat near Ho Chi Minh City. They concluded that the Rung Sat mangroves were extremely susceptible to defoliants. Only one application was apparently necessary to kill most trees. Most of the areas they visited remained completely barren although they had been sprayed several years earlier. They speculated that "*The unusual soil conditions of mangrove forests may result in a failure of the herbicides to be decomposed. If the molecules remain bound to the soil particles, they might influence seed germination for a long time*".

Effects were also severe in the much more species-rich inland forests, including rain forest with a total area of 10.5 million ha. Mature forest of this type has many angiosperm species, especially of the families Dipterocarpaceae and Fagaceae. The tree height is up to 40m or taller, and diameter at breast height is up to 2m. Studies in Aluoi valley show that herbicide spraying changed a continuous upland tropical forest to an 80% cover of grassland with only 24 bird and 5 mammal species, compared with 145-170 bird and 30-55 mammal species in two unsprayed reference areas.

Reports from freshwater ecosystems in the Aluoi Valley show a correlation between spraying and decreased overall species diversity and morphological abnormalities in freshwater algae. However, it is not possible to attribute these effects with certainty to persisting toxicity of herbicides or their residues because of the variety and magnitude of other environmental abuses

during the war such as bombing and of the post-war agricultural practices and population growth.

A study on the impact of orange/dioxin on mammal diversity in Ma Da forest (Dong Nai province) found a clear decrease, only 29 genera and 38 species, compared with 39 genera and 52 species recorded before spraying. Orange/dioxin destroyed forest ecosystems and mammals lost their habitats and food sources. Many species had fled to other areas.

A study in 2000-2002 on the long-term effects of orange/dioxin on biodiversity in Aluoi district found that these compounds, used in the war by the American army, destroyed natural ecosystems by breaking the fragile ecological structure and nutrient web, resulting in pollution and deterioration of habitats and a strong decline of biodiversity. More than 30 years after the end of the war, the long-term impacts are still clear: in Dong Son commune, for example, there are only grasses and bushes where there was multi-storey primary forest before herbicide spraying. Species composition and quantity of mammals, birds, reptiles, amphibians, soil macrofauna and soil microorganisms is lower than in an unsprayed area with the same landscape. There are morphological abnormalities in some species of fish, earthworms and springtails. The specific causes of these abnormalities still need to be studied. However, some aquatic ecosystems have been gradually rehabilitated. Communities of algae, macrophytes, zooplankton and benthos recovered in species composition and in quantity.

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List of references and background documents are available on request to the author.

LOGGING IN THE SOLOMON ISLANDS – THE LOST LEGACY

By Jim Sandoms

In 1893, in response to pleas of missionaries to put an end to inter-tribal warfare and headhunting, the British Government declared the Solomon Islands a Protectorate. Exactly 110 years later, and after 4 years of violence and ethnic tension, the Solomon Islands turned to its neighbours and begged them to send help to re-establish peace.

The reasons behind the country's political, social, and economic disintegration are largely cultural and historical – but the management, or mismanagement, of the

nation's forest resources has been a critical contributory factor.

Land in the Solomon Islands

Though the declaration of a Protectorate eliminated headhunting and established order the subsequent Colonial Government failed to provide a solution for the principal source of the disputes, the problems of land tenure and resource use.

Disputes over land are a common feature of life in the Solomon Islands. Traditional land ownership is communal and based on 'possession' by tribes or families. Life has traditionally depended on agriculture and fishing. Land was the root of a community's existence and had crucial and deep ancestral and spiritual roots. Ancestors were venerated in special sites and these were cardinal reference points of ownership. Private land or 'ownership' was an alien concept. Before the protectorate was established land was sold, but is uncertain if the custodians knew what they signed away. In 1896 a regulation was issued requiring that the resident commissioner to oversee and validate all land sales. This regulation was based on the flawed assumption that there was '...plenty of spare land available after ample provision for the natives...'

The islands lacked the capital, population, skills, and institutions required for a stand-alone economy and the colonial administration was not in a position to provide them. It identified many areas as unoccupied but suited to agricultural or commercial development. These 'wastelands' were declared Government property and the administration enticed entrepreneurs to kick-start development by allocating land to companies or individuals.

The plan ignored the traditional rights of 'ownership' and was fiercely resisted. This necessitated a major revision under a Land Commission started in 1919 where land settlements and alienations over the previous 20 years were reviewed.

Large tracts of land were returned to customary owners. However, areas that remained appropriated provided a source of continued resentment to those who claimed the rights of original ownership. In the 1950s another commission attempted to develop an equitable approach by establishing three categories of land ownership: land with written title (held almost exclusively by Government or expatriates); land owned customarily; and land that was neither but which could become the basis of a 'national resource' managed for public good. The third category was never identified.

Forestry in the Solomon Islands

A colonial Forest Department was established in 1952, but issues of land ownership and the absence of any forest legislation constrained its activities. The Government approved a Forest Act in 1960 to promote the export of logs and serious commercial logging began in 1963. Between 1961 and 1968, a 'production forest estate' was established on Government Land. After several failures, efforts to include customary land within the forest estate were abandoned.

Commercial forestry thus developed almost exclusively on the Government-owned national forest estate of around 120,000 hectares: but land whose ownership was still disputed. Until the late 1970s, three companies dominated logging of natural forests though one accounted for 70% of timber exports. From the 1960s onward,

forest revenues became increasingly important. Harvests rose steadily from an estimated 200,000 m³ in 1977 to 230,000 m³ per year in 1985. Sustainable harvest was probably in the order of 300,000 – 350,000 m³. A Timber Control Unit was established in the early 1980s to monitor logging on Government and customary land.

After exhausting the forest estate, the Government and logging companies were obliged to explore logging on customary land. Earlier attempts to do this had failed. It proved impossible to negotiate agreements under the existing Land and Titles Ordinance, but a Forest Policy Review Committee in 1976 proposed a mechanism that permitted landowners to negotiate timber harvest rights directly with companies.

Post independence

The Solomon Islands gained independence in 1978. Many believed the country was ill-prepared and the departing colonial power had not done enough to ensure an educated and appropriately trained society or a viable economy. A significant problem was the over-reliance on Government. The colonial Government had engaged in many activities commonly fulfilled by commercial companies: agriculture (such as oil palm, rice and cattle), fishing, mining, and service industries such as shipping and sea and air transport.

In forestry the most immediate effect was to confirm the rights of landowners to negotiate the rights to the timber on their land, though this required new legislation. The first beneficiaries of independence were the people of North New Georgia and the country's largest logging company.

Opening areas under customary landownership to logging provided new opportunities, but the changes were slow at first. Substantial volumes of timber were still available from Malaysia, Indonesia and the Philippines and The Solomon Islands had lower quality timber, higher transport costs and higher wages. Additionally the four resident logging companies had already monopolized the most accessible forest resources.

Lacking any experience of independent Government, Solomon Islands politics rapidly became volatile and unstable. Party and political leadership changed frequently and personal friendships and enmities were often played out on the floor of the house. Alliances formed, broke and reformed, and members frequently crossed the floor to side with the opposition. Government and party leadership were increasingly challenged with votes of no confidence. Resource issues concerning land, agriculture, forestry, mining and fishing dominated the political agendas.

Between 1981 and 1983 the number of logging licences quadrupled. By the late 1980s the international timber market changed. Traditional timber sources such as Thailand and the Philippines were disappearing. Malaysian and Indonesian companies sought to expand their forest resource towards started to the Solomons Islands, where there were few limitations to exploitation.

Some companies had already become established in the Solomons under the successive Governments of Prime Minister Solomon Mamaloni in 1981-3 and 1989-93. During the late 1980s, permitted harvest

levels increased dramatically and exceeded the most optimistic estimates of sustainability. The character of logging changed accordingly. A new generation of Malaysian, Indonesian, and Korean companies set up operations. It was often difficult to establish who owned these companies with partnerships and local front companies obscuring the ultimate owners. Politicians became involved in attracting companies and some were accused of being directors of logging companies or their subsidiaries. In 1989, 311,000 m³ was reported as harvested (though 924,000 m³, had been licenced). One year later, despite a licence reduction of 30%, production rose by 40% to 436,000 m³.

The early 1990s provided an opportunity to reverse this trend. Parliament approved a new Forest Policy in 1989 and donor agencies were again prepared to support the sector. The policy called for the re-establishment of the Timber Inspectorate to oversee logging. But Prime Minister Mamaloni favoured expansion of foreign investment in forestry and harvesting expanded rapidly during his second and third terms (1989-93 and 1994-97). The Forest Policy was stillborn and the Timber Control Unit powerless. In 1994 harvesting increased to 659,000 m³ and in 1995 to 748,500m³.

Forestry provided 56% of export revenues and totalled over 30% of Government revenue in 1994. While log exports rose by SI\$ 16.7 million in 1995, export duties fell by SI\$ 12.6 million, in part because of Government issued tax exemptions. The period 1990-1996 saw increased levels of conflict and controversy related to the logging. Evidence of dubious practises mounted, including transfer pricing, failure

to declare accurate information, and frequent exemptions from taxes and duties.

In 1994, Billy Hilly replaced Solomon Mamaloni and promised a ban on logging. His Presidency ended prematurely when politicians sided with the opposition. It was alleged that logging companies helped bring this about by paying politicians to change sides. A Malaysian company director was deported in relation to these allegations.

In 1995, members of the Pavuvu Community objected to logging by Maving Brothers of Malaysia. Police were sent to enable the logging to continue. Community members responded by seizing chainsaws and burning company bulldozers. Later that year, a community leader opposed to logging was murdered. Government halted an inventory on a plantation it planned to sell, and subsequently sold, to a Korean company that harvested the timber and moved into the adjacent natural forests. But the Solomon Islands were to endure yet more conflict, fueled by chronic misuse of the country's resources, corruption and maladministration.

The breakdown of law and order

In 1997, the Solomon Islands Alliance for Change (SIAC), led by Bartholomew Ulafa'alu, replaced the 3rd Mamaloni Government. Reforming the forest sector was key to Ulafa'alu's Government. But the SIAC Government was overwhelmed by problems and reliance on unsustainable levels of logging had unbalanced the economy. In 1997, the Asian financial crisis resulted in the collapse of timber prices. Revenues slumped and the government experienced a crisis.

Independence had not resolved land issues or inter-island rivalry. These continued to provide a long term, if sporadic, threat to harmonious relationships between Solomon Islanders. One particular issue concerned people from Malaita who dominated the employment market. Malaitan communities occurred on many islands including Guadalcanal where the capital and much of the local industry are located. This sparked resentment and, in 1999, violent conflict.

Solomon Mamaloni and Ezekiel Alebua, two politicians who had lost power to the SIAC Government in 1997, were widely implicated in raising the tension. Matters escalated rapidly after militias were formed to support the natives of Guadalcanal islands and the Malaitans respectively. The latter dominated the police and had access to arms. A state of emergency was declared in June 1999 but the situation continued to deteriorate. Pitched fighting broke out between the two militias and a small but vicious civil war ensued.

A cease-fire and peace accord were ineffective. In June 2000, Malaitan militants seized key-institutions and took the Prime Minister hostage, demanding his resignation. On 13 June the Prime Minister resigned. In this chaos, a new Prime Minister was elected in a process flawed by intimidation and pressure from militants. The new Prime Minister could not rule effectively amidst a sea of intimidation, coercion, extortion and threats of violence and law and order broke down.

However peace talks continued and the Townsville Peace Agreement was signed in October 2000. Armed gangs and remnants of the militia continued to

dominate the political and social arena; business and government remained under constant threats of violence. Armed gangs regularly raided the treasury, politicians were coerced at gunpoint and a series of dubious 'compensation claims' were paid.

General elections of December 2001 were considered to be free and fair and over 60% of the sitting members from 2000 were not re-elected. A new Government headed by Sir Allan Kemakeza attempted to restore law and order but failed. In 2002, extortion and intimidation by criminal gangs and ex-militia members severely compromised the Government's ability to bring reform and fiscal discipline.

Following a series of high profile murders, the Prime Minister pleaded with the Australian Government for assistance. In July 2003 the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI), was despatched to the Solomon Islands. RAMSI included troops, police and administrators from many Pacific nations, to assist the financial, justice and prison systems in particular. This stabilised the situation, at least outwardly, though RAMSI is not designed to resolve many of underlying problems.

Postscript

During 1999-2003, the economy contracted substantially. Many firms left and most will probably never return. Attracting new business will prove difficult given the recent history of the Solomons and its practical and geographical disadvantages.

Current exports remain below the level of 1999, logs and timber still account for a large proportion of exports. The Solomon Islands have no alternative to unsustainable

logging; not an enviable position. In the mid-1990s, the World Bank estimated that at the existing rate of exploitation, the country had eight years of harvesting left. The government is now forced to rely on this meagre remaining resource to climb out of its crisis.

The contribution of logging to the disaster that overtook the Solomons cannot be over-emphasised. It is a clear example of the pernicious effects of bad management and corruption related to of a key national resource. The failures are not of Governments or politicians alone. They are failures of the whole of civil society: the failure to insist on the responsible use of forest resources and the failure to adhere to common rules of good practice and law and order.

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Research Cooperation Sought

GLOBAL CHANGE, TROPICAL FOREST DYNAMICS, AND LAND SUBSIDENCE

Francis Okeke is a researcher at the University of Nigeria, Enugu Campus, and a specialist in Geoinformatics and Remote Sensing. He is interested in collaborative research with any EU organisation or Institution in the area of Global Change and Ecosystems, Tropical Forest Dynamics, and Land Subsidence.

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DEMANDE DE COENCADREMENT

J'ai l'honneur de vous écrire pour vous demander si vous avez un professeur peut encadrer mon travail dans votre laboratoire de recherche, car je suis intéressé par une bourse qui mise en charge par AUF (agence universitaire de la francophonie) et j'ai besoin d'un laboratoire d'accueil.

Je vous informe que je suis étudiante marocaine en première année de doctorat et mon sujet de recherche concerne: la culture in vitro du cèdre de l'Atlas réparti en différentes sous axes de recherche.

Dans l'attente d'une réponse que j'espère favorable veuillez accepter Monsieur mes meilleures salutations.

Touria Hsina
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DRYLANDSCOPE ELIBRARY PRACTICAL SOLUTIONS TO LAND DEGRADATION IN DRYLANDS WORLDWIDE

A new initiative aimed at facilitating greater communication among researchers and practitioners working in the drylands of the world (arid, semi-arid, and dry sub-humid regions) will be launched. This web-based resource to foster greater discussion on the ecological dimensions of drylands systems, unifying such technical fields as agroecology and ecological restoration with traditional practical management concerns will focus on the following general subject areas:

- Soils
- Natural Systems
- Managed Systems
- Tools & Equipment
- Hydrology
- Landscape Level Considerations
- Livestock

Individuals interested are invited to explore the pre-release version of our web resource, to solicit constructive feedback in order to expand our existing content, and to better serve the needs of the concerned

Research Cooperation Sought

community at large. In an effort to better support the existing network in the field of drylands study and management, publicly-accessible content will be linked from the participants' website, becoming available through our eLibrary. All hyperlinks open in a separate browser window, allowing Users to freely navigate through the hyperlinked website. We invite submissions of relevant reference material which you believe would be supportive of our work. Please visit our website and contact us directly with any ideas you may have.

Drylandscope is an emerging organisation dedicated to the belief that the problems associated with land degradation can be remedied through a practical, ecologically based strategy. The goal of sustainable drylands management is achieved, among others, through providing a useful platform for open information access and dialogue on all subjects pertinent to this process. Individuals who have not previously been in communication with one another due to either geography or subject area specialisation may therefore derive benefit from a platform for active sharing of information.

A centralized web library of techniques and technologies for prevention and rehabilitation of degraded drylands, and for the sustainable use of natural resources in these affected areas will be developed. This resource will highlight open content which allows Users to download and post articles, management notes, diagrams, and video and audio files to and from the website. Web forums will also be linked to the categories associated with the above eLibrary, to maintain a practical technology focus, with a priority on encouraging allied organisations to collaborate with one

another through discussion groups and the like.

The initial content emphasises full-text technical references, however, it will expand our resources responding to the information needs expressed by our website Users. At present, submissions can only be received via email, however formal submissions transfer technology will soon be available. Coming services are "chat room", "news feeds" and personalised "portal" networking technology for our Users.

Registration through the website is free and open to all. Interested individuals and organisations are encouraged to actively participate in our programming, as we grow to address your needs: <http://www.drylandscope.org>

Many thanks again to everyone who has so generously supported Drylandscope's activities to date.

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Research Cooperation Sought

COMPARING ALLANBLACKIA AGROFORESTRY WITH OTHER LAND-USE OPTIONS

Unilever, in collaboration with other organisations such as IUCN, ICRAF, SNV, GTZ, and Oxfam Netherlands, is in the process of developing a supply chain for Allanblackia seeds. Allanblackia trees grow in the wet tropical forests of West Africa, Central Africa and the mountain hills of Tanzania.

The domestication work has made good progress. Now, we would like to recommend farmers to plant this new tree-crop. But before we can do so, we have to make sure that this tree crop fits into their landuse system and can become more profitable than many current options, such as Eucalyptus, teak, cocoa, oilpalm, coconut, cassava, yam, plantain, maize, and pineapple.

Therefore, we would like to compare the economics of growing Allanblackia with other crops of the indicated region. To get this result quickly and efficiently, we would prefer to integrate Allanblackia data into an existing study to compare Allanblackia with other crops in this region. We are looking for data on investment, input, output, and revenue for other profitable crops. Who has these data available and would like to contribute to this work?

Kind regards,

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BIODIVERSITY FACTS AND FIGURES

The new SciDev.net biodiversity 'facts and figures' section provides crucial data about the current state of the world's biodiversity. It includes recent estimates of extinction threats, detailed assessments on the economic and ecological value of biodiversity and provides the latest information on conservation efforts. Go to <http://www.scidev.net/biofacts> to find out more.

The data is based mostly on the best available sources including Conservation International, the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the UN, the World Conservation Union's 2004 *Red List of Threatened Species*, the World Wildlife Fund *Living Planet Report*, and the Earth Trends database of the World Resources Institute.

Inevitably, there will be gaps and errors that need correcting. The editors welcome comments and feedback from readers, which can be emailed to:
biodiversity@scidev.net

Readers will not have failed to notice that while the majority of the world's biodiversity is found in the developing world, most of the data has been collected and analysed in institutions that are based in richer countries.

Thankfully, several international initiatives are now underway to build the biodiversity data-gathering capacity of research institutions in developing countries and to connect these to efforts in the developed world. These include the "Global Biodiversity Information Facility" and the Proteus project

Research Cooperation Sought

of the UNEP-World Conservation Monitoring Centre in the UK.

The editors, Mike Shanahan and Ehsan Masood welcome comments and feedback from readers.

Please write to: biodiversity@scidev.net

(text based on SCIDEV.net website)

GROWING STRUCTURES OF FICUS

José Rojas is a student at the Design Academy in Eindhoven, currently researching growing structures. He is specifically interested in the ficus family, and would like to receive information about wood resistance, growth times, height, width, molecular integration etc. Please contact José if you have any information or suggestions.

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By Paul Romeijn

The subject of 'Forests and Violent Conflict' seems here to stay. It is all too easy to underestimate the number of people affected. Areas may be remote and communications poor. Increasingly, the theme draws attention and research. Some of which may be found through the following websites.

The Biodiversity Support Program (BSP) operated from 1989-2001 as a consortium of World Wildlife Fund, The Nature Conservancy and World Resources Institute and was funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). BSP's documentation includes full text articles on forests and conflicts. These can be searched at: <http://www.worldwildlife.org/bsp/publications/index.html>.

The East Asia and Pacific Environmental Initiative (EAPEI) aims to improve environmental conditions and quality of life by increasing environmental capacity and knowledge in the East Asia and Pacific region. The EAPEI works to complement US government investment in the region by supporting transboundary, cross-border and regional activities and institutions and by supporting activities in USAID non-presence countries. EAPEI provides a useful links page about conflict and the environment on <http://eapei.home.att.net/Links/conflictlinks.htm>.

The U.S. Committee for Refugees and Immigrants, USCRI, maintains and updates the World Refugee Survey reports on conditions for refugees and internally displaced persons in 120 countries, see: <http://www.refugees.org/worldmap.aspx?subm=19&area=Investigate>.

Global Witness work highlights the link

between exploitation of natural resources and human rights abuses, particularly for timber, diamonds and oil. Full text reports are available at <http://www.globalwitness.org/reports/>.

ARD and USAID/ANE/TS distribute a number of reports and summary papers on the subject of conflict over forest resources, particularly in Asia. A list-serve notifies of upcoming documents, see: <http://www.ard-biofor.com/conflicttimber.html>.

FAO's forestry department and FFTP developed training materials, methods and tools to improve the management of the conflicts that arise over the use of natural resources. They include stakeholder and conflict analysis, negotiation and mediation exercises, field interventions and case studies. See: <http://www.fao.org/forestry/foris/webview/forestry2/index.jsp?siteId=1760&siteTreeId=8307&langId=1&geoid=0>.

The Environmental Security Database contains information on books, journal articles, papers, and newspaper clippings relating to links between environmental stress and violent conflict in developing countries. You can access the database at <http://www.library.utoronto.ca/pcs/database/libintro.htm>. Also see the Peace & Conflict Studies Program at the University of Toronto at: www.library.utoronto.ca/pcs/catalog.htm.

The Marena project, "Reconstruction of natural resource management institutions in post-conflict countries", was funded by the UK Department for International Development (DFID). All briefings and working papers from this project can be downloaded free of charge at: <http://www.geog.sussex.ac.uk/research/development/marena/>

ASIA PRO ECO II

The Asia Pro Eco programme has now been merged with Asia Urbs to create the Asia Pro Eco II, a new programme for the urban environment in 2005. Asia Pro Eco II is designed to specifically fund EU-Asia partnership projects in the field of the Urban Environment. The Call for Proposals for 2005 has been published, with a single deadline of 5 April 2005. More details about the Guidelines for Applicants can be found on the 'How to Apply' section of the Asia Pro Eco II website.

The objective of the Asia Pro Eco II is to draw the EU and Asia closer together through institutional and operational partnerships and networks to tackle major issues on the protection and remediation of the urban environment. The programme aims to promote the sharing of innovative technologies, best practices, policies, measures, and capacity-building which can improve the quality of life and environmental conditions of urban populations in Asia.

Public and non-profit organisations in Asia and EU can submit project proposals for funding. Activities such as the organisation of working conferences, diagnostic studies, policy advice, feasibility studies, technology partnership and demonstration activities in the field of environment can be considered for funding under the Programme.

For further information, please contact the staff of the Asia Pro Eco Programme.

E-mail:
europeaid-asia-pro-eco@cec.eu.int
Fax: + 32 2 2984863

Website:

http://europa.eu.int/comm/europeaid/projects/asia-pro-eco2/index_en.htm

EU SMALL GRANTS FOR COMMUNITY FORESTRY IN SOUTH AND SOUTHEAST ASIA

The EU-funded, UNDP-managed small grants programme for activities which promote tropical forests in South and Southeast Asia (SGP PTF) has recently expanded since the first call for proposals was announced in January 2003. The SGP PTF provides small grants (between € 20000 and € 150000) to community led initiatives that promote sustainable management of tropical forests.

Since January 2003 the SGP PTF has received 724 formal proposals from community groups in Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam, of which 69 have received funding. The SGP PTF now also covers Indonesia, Malaysia and Sri Lanka, and efforts are underway to further expand into Cambodia and Lao PDR. The SGP PTF mandate is to carry out grant making activities until December 2007 and has a total budget of 15 million Euro.

The SGP PTF focusses on the rural poor living in and from forests in the region. The practice and principle of the SGP PTF is that individual country programmes are country-led both in terms of their overall strategy and project selection. The National Steering Committees (NSC) are entirely responsible for the selection and approval of grants. The NSCs consist mainly of senior experts but the National Government, EC and UNDP

are also represented. Application procedures take into account the generally low capacity of community groups and therefore short concept papers in local languages are encouraged. Despite the low capacity of many of the applicants and the enormous demand for small grants, processing from receipt of application, further development of a concept to full proposal and final approval can take as little as three to six months.

The SGP PTF fits well into the current opportunities provided by the general drive towards decentralisation by national governments of the management of natural resources. Increased awareness of the failures of centralised State control to manage natural resources has led to a plethora of initiatives, policies and laws that increasingly recognise the rights, roles and obligations of communities in the sustainable management of their natural resources. Implementation of these community centred policies and laws is however nascent as is the awareness or ability of rural communities to engage local government in these new found rights and responsibilities. Forest dependent communities in the region, who form the central focus of SGP PTF funding, are often the most marginalized and have hardly any access to either state or donor resources.

Focussing on forest dependent communities the SGP PTF has actively engaged with indigenous peoples and rural poor in developing alternative sustainable livelihoods and to bring back to the fore indigenous forest management practices to ensure the sustainable use of their forest resources. The SGP PTF recognises the need for active coalitions of a broad range of local stakeholders to ensure project

sustainability post grant funding. Furthermore the SGP PTF has sought to increase the immediate impact of country programmes through joint funding initiatives with other small grant donors, local government funding and the private sector. The most important co-financing initiatives to date have been established with the GEF funded small grants programme and a total of 9 joint projects with the GEF SGP have been approved to date.

For further information on this unique funding facility please refer to the SGP PTF website at <http://www.sgpptf.org>

or make direct contact with:

Mark Sandiford
Regional Programme Coordinator
E-mail: mark.sandiford@undp.org

RAMSAR SMALL GRANTS FUND

The Ramsar Small Grants Fund was established by Ramsar COP4 in 1990 as a mechanism to assist developing countries and those with economies in transition in implementing the Convention and to enable the conservation and wise use of wetland resources. Since that time, it has provided funding and co-funding, up to 40,000 Swiss francs (about US\$ 34,000) per project, for something like 175 projects totaling about 7 million francs.

Suitable project proposals are those that contribute to the implementation of the Convention's Strategic Plan 2003-2008 for

Funding/Opportunities

the conservation and wise use of wetlands; provide emergency assistance for Ramsar sites; or provide 'preparatory assistance' to allow non-Contracting Parties to progress toward accession. Eligibility is restricted to countries on the List of Aid Recipients established by the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), effectively meaning developing countries and countries with economies in transition. Projects may be proposed and implemented by any agency, NGO, or individual, but proposals MUST be endorsed and monitored by the Administrative Authority (the Ramsar implementing agency) in the Party's government, and seldom is more than one proposal approved from the same Party in any year. Successful proposals receive 80% of the allocated funds upon signature of the contract and the remainder upon submission of an adequate final report, but countries from which adequate final project reports have not been received may be denied further consideration for funding until those outstanding project dossiers have been closed.

Projects for the 2004 cycle will be selected by the Standing Committee's Subgroup on Finance in March 2005. The call for proposals is now being made for the 2005 cycle, with a deadline of 30 June 2005 for application and with a decision by the Standing Committee around the end of the year. The current edition of the "SGF Operational Guidelines", which include complete information and the required forms, are now available on the Ramsar Web site, as well as directly from the Secretariat. The Secretariat's regional teams also offer an advisory service to help with the preparation of suitable proposals,

for which drafts should be submitted to the Senior Regional Advisors by 15 April 2005.

Readers can also find lists of successful project proposals and news reports of successfully completed projects, which may provide useful tips as to the kinds of projects and approaches most often selected for assistance, on the Ramsar website at: http://ramsar.org/key_sgf_index.htm

For further information about the Ramsar Convention or the Small Grants Fund, please contact:

The Ramsar Convention Bureau
Rue Mauverney 28
CH-1196 Gland
Switzerland

Phone: +41 22 9990170

Fax +41 22 9990169

E-mail: ramsar@ramsar.org

THE EUROPEAN FOREST INSTITUTE WELCOMES APPLICATIONS FOR THE POST OF THE DIRECTOR

The Institute

The European Forest Institute (EFI) is an independent non-governmental organisation with headquarters in Joensuu, Finland. EFI has currently 137 member organisations from 38 European countries, thus providing an extensive research network throughout Europe.

EFI conducts problem-oriented and multi-disciplinary forest research at the Pan-European level in order to serve the needs of policy-making and decision-making bodies in Europe, as well as those of its members. EFI has also developed research networks and cooperative research projects, called Project Centres, with its members.

Core funding for the Institute is provided by the Finnish Government. Further funding is sought from other sources, in general through research contracts. The staff of the Institute comprises 40 persons.

EFI is undergoing a process to become an international organisation established by an international convention. This process is expected to be completed during the year 2005. The new status will create new possibilities for EFI to develop, and requires high quality management.

Further information on the Institute can be found on the web site <http://www.efi.fi>

The Director of EFI will be a person:

- possessing leadership abilities and a proven capacity for the management of scientific research in a complex international and intercultural environment,
- holding a PhD-title or equivalent,
- having wide international experience and a sound background in the forest sector and in forest research,
- having a good command of English as it is the working language of the Institute. Knowledge of other major European languages is an asset,
- being an excellent communicator with fundraising capabilities, ideally also in terms of working with EU authorities.

The nationality of the candidate is not restricted to European countries, provided he/she has a good knowledge of the European forest sector and forest research context. Applications from qualified women candidates are encouraged.

As Chief Executive Officer, the Director is responsible to the Board of the European Forest Institute for the scientific, organisational and financial management of the Institute, including the formulation and implementation of research programmes.

The Director is expected to develop and sustain a stimulating international working atmosphere at the Institute and likewise with the member institutions. He/she also supervises the harmonious development of Project Centres. As well as reporting to the Board which usually meets twice a year, the Director reports to the Annual Conference of the Institute.

Job /Opportunities

Appointment and Salary

Since EFI is in the process of becoming an international organisation that involves changes in the legal structure of EFI, the selection process and final appointment decision will be made by the legal entities that will be in force at that moment. The appointee is expected to take up the post as of January 1st, 2006. A fixed term appointment for five years is envisaged. The appointment can be renewed.

Salary and benefits are commensurate with European standards for a senior position of this nature.

Further information

Further information is available from:

Prof. Dr. François Houllier
Chairman of the Board
E-mail: houllier@cirad.fr

Dr. Zoltan Somogyi
Vice Chairman
E-mail: zoltan.somogyi@jrc.it

Dr. Jan Ilavsky
Board member
E-mail: jan.ilavsky@metla.fi

Prof. Konstantin von Teuffel
Board member
E-mail: Konstantin.Teuffel@forst.bwl.de

Applications

Written applications should include a CV, salary expectation and the names and addresses (including e-mail) of three referees.

Send applications to:

Prof. Konstantin von Teuffel
Forstliche Versuchs- und
Forschungsanstalt Baden-Wuerttemberg
Wonnhaldestrasse 4
D-79100 Freiburg
Germany

Applications are requested by 15th April 2005. All applications will be treated confidentially.

For the Board of the European Forest
Institute
Prof. Dr. François Houllier, Chairman

*Source <forest@listserv.funet.fi>.
List archives at <http://listserv.funet.fi/archives/forest.html>*

ARD AND USAID EXAMINE LINKS BETWEEN FORESTS AND CONFLICT

ARD has been working with USAID's Asia and Near East Bureau on examining the links between forests and conflict. ARD and USAID/ANE's Technical Support Office have developed a list-serve to distribute documents on this subject from their own projects and others. These documents can be found online at <http://www.ard-biofor.com/asiacombat.htm>. If you would like to join this list-serve, please notify Tracy Simmons (tsimmons@ardinc.com). A brief description of the issue and the project's background follows.

Forest Conflict: A Critical Development Issue

Conflict that is financed or sustained through the harvest and sale of timber, or that emerges as a result of competition over timber or other forest resources hinders equitable development, impoverishes local communities and contributes to instability in many countries in Asia. Strong links exist between conflict over timber and poor, inequitable systems of governance. The situation is further exacerbated by ambiguous resource tenure and loose financial oversight, which can generate incentives for powerful individual actors to engage in conflict timber activities.

USAID/ANE/TS developed two projects, "Conflict Timber: Dimensions of the Problem in Asia and Africa," and "Managing Conflict in Asian Forest Communities" examining causes and effects of forest-related conflict. ARD, Inc. was contracted to develop country case studies and analytical overviews.

CEESP WORKING GROUP ON ENVIRONMENT AND SECURITY

The **CEESP** Working Group on Environment and Security was established in 2000 as a voluntary network of experts on the links between conflict, disaster and environmental management. With the International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD) acting as secretariat to the Working Group, CEESP is seeking knowledge in four key areas:

Natural Resources, Livelihoods and Security

<http://www.iisd.org/natres/security/nrls.asp>
What are the links between natural resources, peoples' livelihoods and conflicts? An IUCN/IISD book, with a broad sweep of case studies from around the globe, was published in 2002.

Trade, Aid and Security – The Role of Natural Resources

<http://www.iisd.org/natres/security/esdc.asp>
Launched in the wake of the international campaign against 'blood diamonds' fuelling conflict in West Africa, this initiative seeks to identify how aid should be targeted and trade rules structured to ensure that international commerce in valuable natural resources leads to peace and not to conflict.

Climate Change, Vulnerable Communities and Adaptation

<http://www.iisd.org/natres/security/ccvca.asp>
Given the links between resource degradation and vulnerability to disaster, can conservation of natural buffer systems reinforce livelihoods and shield communities from extreme climatic events? An international task force led by IUCN, IISD

and the Stockholm Environment Institute (SEI) is seeking the answers through research.

Environment, Business and Conflict

<http://www.iisd.org/natres/security/ebc.asp>
What role do companies – particularly in the extractive sectors – play in exacerbating livelihood insecurities and creating or fuelling conflict? Linking with partners in Finance, Mining and Oil & Gas, this emerging initiative seeks to develop tools for risk management that also benefit social stability.

We invite your participation as an associate member in the challenging endeavor of turning an emerging knowledge base into tools for decision making, conservation practice and conflict prevention. Participation is on an individual basis and does not require organisational affiliation.

Associate members may also be invited to join a Working Group engaged on a particular issue, or to contribute articles or reflections on key issues as part of a larger project. They may be invited to submit articles for publication by IUCN, and will receive the CEESP semi-annual magazine 'Policy Matters'. Associate members will periodically be asked to comment on a particular project concept or document, posted on the IISD Environment & Security website in draft form. They may also be asked to recommend others for particular projects, or to identify new members to fill gaps in representation or expertise.

To join, please include a form with a copy of your CV or details of relevant work experience.

For requesting application form and more

information, contact:

Jason Switzer,
E-mail: jswitzer@iisd.ca
Fax: +41 22 9799093

The new CAASP mandate is now available at the IUCN website (<http://www.iucn.org/themes/ceesp>).

We would appreciate comments of members of CEESP and IUCN as well as any other interested parties. Let us know if you are interested in working with us to achieve this ambitious programme! Please send all comments to ceesp@iucn.org

KEEP UP TO DATE WITH POLICY DEVELOPMENTS ON ILLEGAL LOGGING AND THE TRADE IN ILLEGAL TIMBER

The website <http://www.illegal-logging.info> was established to act as a central point of information on all aspects of the international debate on illegal logging and the trade in illegal timber. The site is maintained by the Royal Institute of International Affairs at Chatham House, an independent research institute based in London.

The site includes latest news stories, documents from and links to research institutes, governments, international institutions and NGOs working on the topic, and a series of concise briefings on all aspects of national and international efforts to stem illegal forest practices and the associated trade in forest products.

The site also allows you to sign up to an email mailing list, which we use to inform you about the latest reports from Chatham House, and the regular meetings we hold as updates on the latest policy developments on illegal logging and the trade in illegal timber.

Four new reports on aspects of the EU's Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT) Action Plan have just been released by Chatham House (Royal Institute of International Affairs). All these papers are available free for download from <http://www.illegal-logging.info>:

- A Licensing System for Legal Timber: Options and considerations for a legality licensing system under the EU FLEGT Action Plan.
- FLEGT and Trade: What Will the Impacts Be?
- Public Procurement of Timber: EU member state initiatives for sourcing legal and sustainable timber
- Illegal Logging and Money Laundering: Analysis of the questionnaire to EU member states

Click on <http://www.illegal-logging.info> to see more.

Duncan Brack
Associate Fellow, Chatham House
Sustainable Development Programme,
Royal Institute of International Affairs

E-mail: illegal-logging@chathamhouse.org.uk

Website:
<http://www.riia.org/sustainabledevelopment>

PANEL DISCUSSION ON ILLEGAL LOGGING

In conjunction with the 3rd IUCN World Conservation Congress, the International Tropical Timber Organization (ITTO) and IUCN recently convened a panel discussion on combating illegal logging. For a summary of the discussion, and to download the presentations of speakers from government, the private sector and civil society, go to <http://www.itto.or.jp>.

Contact:
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mirai Nishi-ku Yokohama 220-0012,
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Website: <http://www.itto.or.jp>

FOREST CONFLICTS STUDIES AT WAGENINGEN UNIVERSITY

Within the framework of the research programme on 'Forest and nature conservation in a governance perspective' of the Forest and Nature Conservation Policy group, Wageningen University, the following two PhD studies on forest conflicts are in progress:

- 1 "Managing forest conflicts – rationalities, power and institutions, a case study in Ghana" by Emmanuel Marfo
- 2 "Institutionalization of conflict capabilities in the co-management of natural resources in Indonesia" by Yurdi Yasmi.

The studies are carried out in cooperation with the Tropenbos Ghana programme and CIFOR respectively. For more information see: <http://www.dow.wur.nl/fnp>

Wageningen University
Forest and Nature Conservation Policy Group
P.O.Box 47
6700 AA Wageningen
The Netherlands

CLIMATE NETWORK AFRICA APRIL 2004

The proceedings "Climate Network Africa April 2004" (97 pages) covering the workshop/dialogue with East African legislators on climate change and sustainable development issues are now available. With WSSD +2 coming up shortly the proceedings of this workshop with East Africa parliamentarians assumes special significance.

Africa, which contains many of the poorest and least developed countries in the world, has been responsible for releasing a relatively minor proportion of the green house gases, like CO₂ and methane, that contribute to global warming. However, climate change projections suggest that it will be one of the areas worst affected by global warming, which is likely to pose

significant threats to sustainable development on the continent. These are likely to include increased rainfall variability contributing to more severe droughts, and more severe flooding, land degradation, threats to food security, health problems and shortages of hydro electric power.

The goal of the workshop was to enhance effective implementation of the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) by informing the legislators about ways to integrate climate change considerations into social, economic and environmental policy, legislation and action. Specific objectives included defining East African priorities, establishing a parliamentary committee on environment for the three East African countries, harmonising policies across the countries and promoting ratification of the Kyoto Protocol and the establishment of Designated National Authorities to oversee its implementation.

To access the proceedings, in pdf format, go to: <http://www.sarpn.org.za/documents/d0000889/index.php>

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HUMAN DIMENSIONS OF GLOBAL ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGE: CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS, BERLIN 2002

The Proceedings of the 2002 Berlin Conference on the Human Dimensions of Global Environmental Change “Knowledge for the Sustainability Transition. The Challenge for Social Science” are now available online. The Proceedings, edited by Frank Biermann, Sabine Campe and Klaus Jacob, comprise a peer-reviewed selection of the 30 best papers presented at the 2002 Berlin Conference, which was attended by 220 participants from 29 countries. The conference was endorsed by two IHDP core projects, Institutional Dimensions of Global Environmental Change (IDGEC) and Industrial Transformation (IT).

Core themes of the conference include:

- Generating Sustainability Knowledge
- Sustainability Knowledge in Political Decision-making
- New Conceptual Frontiers: Sustainability Science, Earth System
- Analysis and the Challenge for the Social Sciences

The complete table of contents and all individual contributions are now available at http://www.glogov.org/front_content.php?idcat=92

Also, an excellent sample of the many interesting papers of the 2001 Berlin Conference “Global Environmental Change and the Nation State” has now appeared as a special issue of the journal *Global*

Environmental Politics, vol. 4, no. 1 (2004).

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UNDP'S BIODIVERSITY CONSERVATION ACTIVITIES IN TANZANIAN MOUNTAIN AREAS

United Nations Development Programme's (UNDP) support to the environment sector in Tanzania is about 2 million Euros per year and includes nine projects. Many of the projects are funded in partnership with the Global Environment Facility (GEF) while some are supported in partnership with other development partners such as France, Denmark, DFID, Norad etc. All these projects are implemented with national partners – either the Government of Tanzania or civil society organisations.

The UNDP supports, among others, biodiversity conservation projects at Mt. Kilimanjaro and in the Eastern Arc Mountains forests in Tanzania. The Eastern Arc Mountains Forest Conservation and Management Project (EAMFCMP) is currently in the process of formulating a

conservation strategy for the Eastern Arc Mountains of Tanzania. The Mountains are globally recognized as being of exceptional importance for the conservation of biological diversity. In addition, the Mountains are of national importance as they are the sources of major rivers in eastern Tanzania, providing up to 60% of the country's urban drinking water, associated hydroelectric supplies, and water for irrigation.

The UNDP Small Grants Programme supports the Amani Butterfly Project and biodiversity conservation of Mt. Kilimanjaro. The Amani project has been training men and women living near to the Amani Nature Reserve in the East Usambaras to farm butterflies for sale. The project managed by the Tanzania Forest Conservation Group, aims to encourage people to promote the conservation of the East Usambara forests as they depend on the forests as a source of food plants for the butterflies (more information at: <http://www.amanibutterflyproject.org>). An aerial survey of the threats to Mt. Kilimanjaro's forests showed that continued degradation of the natural resources will lead to loss of critical products and services (hydropower, tourism etc.) provided by the mountain.

For more information please contact:
Dr. Tapani Tyynela
E-mail: tapani.tyynela@undp.org

Mr. Nehemiah Murusuri
E-mail: nehemiah.murusuri@undp.org

Dr. Felician Kilahama
tfcmp@intafrica.com

Website: <http://www.tz.undp.org>

WORKSHOP ON HARMONIZATION OF NATIONAL REPORTING TO BIODIVERSITY-RELATED CONVENTIONS

In September 2004, the UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC), in cooperation with the governments of Belgium and the United Kingdom, convened a workshop in Haasrode, Belgium, on harmonization of national reporting to biodiversity-related conventions. The workshop followed up on UNEP-convened pilot projects in four countries, which examined different approaches to harmonization of national information management and reporting to conventions:

- Linking national reporting to the State of the Environment reporting process (Ghana)
- Identifying common information modules and using this as a basis for developing a coordinated modular approach to reporting (Indonesia)
- Regional support mechanisms for national information management and reporting (Panama)
- Producing a consolidated national report responding to the needs of several conventions

At the workshop, representatives of the five global biodiversity-related conventions (CBD, CITES, CMS, Ramsar Convention, World Heritage Convention), two agreement secretariats, eight countries, the European Commission and several international organisations discussed the obstacles to harmonization as well as the opportunities

that the pilot projects had identified. The workshop resulted in a number of recommendations to national governments, the conventions and organisations, including the following:

- coordination on the management of information at the national level is crucial;
- the focus needs to shift to outcome-oriented reporting.

Multilateral Environment Agreements (MEAs) should consider developing thematic clusters, relevant to more than one MEA, on which countries could report on (e.g. inland waters, invasive species, and protected areas) . The capacity of developing countries needs to be strengthened to implement a harmonized approach to information management and reporting in order to reduce the reporting burden. Regional organisations could play a crucial role in supporting harmonization on the national level.

The workshop report, with the workshop documentation and presentations, is available at <http://www.unep-wcmc.org/conventions/harmonization/workshop.htm> or from Peter Herkenrath at UNEP-WCMC.

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Website: <http://www.unep-wcmc.org>

METAfro – INFOSYS: AN AFRICAN INFORMATION SYSTEM

Metafro – Infosys stands for Metadata African Organisation - Information System. Originally conceived in 1998 as a research project, today Metafro's objective is to gather and give access to a variety of information related to Africa in general and Central Africa in particular.

Metafro Information system already contains a lot of valuable information on Central Africa covering topics such as economics, politics, geology, agriculture, botany and much more. 1500 downloadable documents, information on research projects and institutions, library catalogues (containing more than 20.000 references) and several collections can be consulted on the <http://www.metafro.be> website.

Among our catalogues, the Prelude and Tervuren Xylarium databases are related to the study and use of tropical woods and plants. The Prelude database (<http://www.metafro.be/prelude>) gathers information on the use of traditional veterinary and human medicinal plants in Sub-Saharan Africa. Initially created at the Catholic University of Louvain (Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium) by Martine Baerts-Lehmann and Jean Lehmann, it has been transferred to the Metafro Information System at the Royal Museum for Central Africa to ensure better conservation and technical management.

The Tervuren Xylarium (<http://www.metafro.be/xylarium>) has been established to serve the different disciplines interested in wood research: technology, ecology, palaeontology, art history,

archaeology. With more than 55.000 specimens catalogued, it is the largest of its kind in the world.

KNOWLEDGE REFERENCE ON NATIONAL FOREST ASSESSMENT

An on-line Knowledge Reference on National Forest Assessment has been developed by FAO Forestry Department and IUFRO Division IV. The reference is intended to serve as a world-wide knowledge resource for national forest assessments among foresters, scientists, teachers and other stakeholders, in particular aiming at needs of developing countries. Since informed decisions about forest resources on national level have to be based on systematic inventory and monitoring, the reference can also be seen as a useful tool to support sustainable management of forest resources. The Knowledge Reference contents will continue to be developed. It is currently published in English, but will in the near future be translated into Spanish and French. The reference is coordinated by the Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences.

Knowledge Reference homepage:
<http://www.fao.org/forestry/fra-knowledgeref>

ECOSYSTEM MARKETPLACE

The Katoomba's Group's Ecosystem Marketplace is the leading provider of information on emerging markets in ecosystem services. It covers markets in carbon, water quality and quantity mitigation banking, and biodiversity conservation. The

marketplace delivers high quality up-to-the-minute news and analyses from around the globe on market transactions and business opportunities, as well as the latest information on policy, regulation, and science for all environmental markets.

The Marketplace brings you services designed to inform buyers, sellers, and intermediaries of all scales of involvement and market experience:

- **News and Features:** Breaking news, in-depth features, profiles and editorials on the emerging markets in ecosystem services.
- **Resources:** An ever-expanding collection of resources related to ecosystem service markets: stakeholder directories, event calendars, and tools designed to assist market participants.
- **Reference Materials:** Here you will find a robust collection of information on the laws, regulations, and science that drive and inform these markets.
- **MarketWatch (Coming Soon!):** A tool for tracking and understanding trading and transactions in the world's top ecosystem service markets: including carbon, water, biodiversity, mitigation banking, conservation banking, and others.

The website and eNewsletter allow you to easily follow the latest market developments and read analyses on how your sector may be impacted. The biweekly eNewsletter is the first step to staying on top of these rapidly developing markets.

To visit the Ecosystem Marketplace and sign up for the eNewsletter click here:
<http://www.ecosystemmarketplace.com/>

E-mail:
newsletter@ecosystemmarketplace.com
The Katoomba Group
1050 Potomac Street, NW
Washington, DC 20007
USA

Phone: +1 202 2983003
Fax: +1 202 2983014

FORESTLEADERSHIP CONFERENCE

Toronto, Canada, 1-3 March 2005

Titled "Partnerships towards Sustainability," the inaugural ForestLeadership Conference will provide opportunities for discussing exciting trends in sustainable forestry and responsible procurement with special emphasis on the development of multi-stakeholder partnerships towards forest sustainability.

The Conference is geared towards a diverse audience of forest sector decision-makers: corporate social responsibility officers, sustainable forestry experts, governmental officials, professional foresters, industry representatives, procurement specialists, First Nations and tribes, community representatives, conservation and other organisations.

The Conference will feature leading North American and international speakers, including at ministerial and CEO level, and will include strategic and field-oriented sessions examining the practical implementation of partnerships on the ground.

Conference Chair is Jean-Pierre Kiekens,

Initiator of ForestLeadership, former lecturer at the University of Brussels and former editor of the Forest Certification Watch newsletter.

The key topics to be discussed at the conference are:

- Corporate sustainable forestry and social responsibility strategies and the increasing role of multi-stakeholder partnerships
- Partnerships work carried out by conservation organisations such as The Conservation Fund and Wildlife Habitat Canada
- Lessons from corporate / conservation partnerships towards forest conservation, such as the MeadWestvaco / Nature conservancy partnership
- Detailed report on the Forest & Biodiversity Conservation Alliance geared towards responsible paper purchasing, involving Office Depot, Conservation International, NatureServe and The Nature Conservancy
- The role of partnerships in forest certification, with an update on the progress of the leading North American forest certification programs
- The role of partnerships in governmental and intergovernmental processes, including an update on the United Nations Forum on Forests

Announced in April 2004, ForestLeadership is a non-profit initiative providing forest sector professionals and stakeholders with opportunities to enhance their leadership skills. The ForestLeadership Conference builds on the successful series of Certification Watch Conferences that have attracted prominent leaders in sustainable forestry since 2001.

For more details, including the final program, conference speakers and information on registration, please visit: http://forestleadership.com/rubrique.php?id_rubrique=8. Subscribe at: http://www.forestleadership.com/article.php?id_article=4 to ForestLeadership's electronic updates to be notified of the details of the conference, as they are announced.

For further information, contact:
The ForestLeadership Conference Team
353 St Nicolas - Suite 101
Montreal, QC, H2Y 2P1
Canada

Phone: +1 514 2744344
Fax +1 514 2776663
E-mail: conference@forestleadership.com

SONGS INSPIRED BY THE TROPICAL RAINFOREST!

Dutch jazz singer and social forester Heleen van den Hombergh melded her passions for forests and music in her project called Rush in the Woods!

She performs her music - a mixture of pop, soul and jazz- on a variety of stages and released a CD under the same title. Pieces of her songs -about monkeys, the jaguar, the sloth, the intriguing life in the upper layers of the forests and what happens when a giant tree falls down- can be heard on her website: <http://www.heleenvandenhombergh.com>. The press reacted very enthusiastically: "she seems a secret treasure that has come down from the highest rainforest tree"..."resembles the best of Joni Mitchell"...

VOLUNTEERS NEEDED FOR FOREST CONSERVATION

Coral Cay Conservation (CCC) believes that conservation should not cost the earth! Therefore, to mark the 20th anniversary of CCC, we are proud to be able to offer a 30% discount on expeditions to one of our tropical forest conservation projects starting January – May 2005. If you are a returning volunteer you'll get 50% off all expedition costs.

CCC is a not-for-profit, international community-based tropical forest and coral reef conservation group. We send teams of volunteers to survey some of the world's most endangered coral reefs and tropical forests. Our mission is to protect these crucial environments by working closely with the local communities who depend on them for food and livelihood.

CCC has a new and exciting tropical forest conservation project in Malaysia and an ongoing, award winning project in the Philippines in which volunteers can take part. CCC also offers full fundraising support since many volunteers pay for their participation through sponsorship and grants.

More information can be found at <http://www.coralcay.org/index.php>.

To reserve your place on a CCC Expedition, contact the Volunteer Recruitment Coordinator: by email (lb@coralcay.org) or phone (+44 208 5457717)

Coral Cay Conservation,
The Tower, 125 High Street

Colliers Wood, London SW19 2JG
UK

Phone: +44 870 7500668
Fax: + 44 - 870 7500667

FOREST POLICY TRAINING FOR PRACTITIONERS AND FOREST SCIENTISTS

The International Union of Forest Research Organizations - Special Programme for Developing Countries (IUFRO-SPDC) has recently developed a new and interesting training programme about linking research with practice.

Informed debate and decision-making in international and national forest policy processes requires input from science and technology. Effective participation of scientists is necessary to adequately integrate scientific knowledge and research results into these processes. In recent years, national forest programmes have emerged as a comprehensive policy and planning framework for the forest sector. National forest programmes (nfp) provide an appropriate platform for continuous dialogue and mutual learning among various forest stakeholders including forest scientists. However, experiences so far have shown that there is still a lack of scientific involvement in policy processes. Capacity building for forest scientists can contribute to enhance such involvement and to mobilise and motivate scientists to play a more active role in nfp processes.

In its effort to contribute to strengthening of the interface between science and policy,

IUFRO-SPDC in co-operation with international forestry agencies has developed a new policy training programme for forest scientists from developing and economically disadvantaged countries. The training programme encourages participation of practitioners and forest scientists. It aims to promote multi-stakeholder learning through joint recognition of and debate on complex forest-related policy issues. Particular emphasis is given to effective interaction between science and policy as an integral component of the learning process. The first training workshop was held in Jakarta, Indonesia, in September 2004.

Depending on interest and demand, it is intended to implement training workshops of this kind on regular basis in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Scientists and practitioners from these regions who wish to further develop their competence in forest policy and national forest programmes are encouraged to express their interest by writing to IUFRO-SPDC at kleine@iufro.org or schimpf@iufro.org.

The next training workshop on **“International Forest Related Initiatives and their Implementation in the Context of National Forest Programmes – Linking Research and Science with Practice”** will be convened in Brisbane, Australia (2- 5 August 2005). Mid-career scientists and senior managers from institutions in developing and economically disadvantaged countries are encouraged to attend. Please consult the website for more information, or write to Michael Kleine.

Michael Kleine
IUFRO-SPDC Coordinator
IUFRO Headquarters

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Website:
<http://www.iufro.org/science/special/spdc/>

**IMA INTERNATIONAL COURSE
“RESEARCH PROMOTION FOR
DEVELOPMENT”**

This innovative one week course explores the links between scientific research, policy formulation, institutional development and action/ implementation for poverty alleviation. The course guides participants through the nature of scientific communication and learning, the process by which research results find a pathway to policy makers and end users and assists participants in developing and implementing strategies to promote the results of their own research projects. Improved advocacy and communication methodologies for uptake are discussed and explored. The combination of the above together with self-managed assessment methodologies to determine impact is innovative and adds value from the early stages of project development. Researchers during this course develop a working promotion strategy that will ensure better uptake for their project findings, building on skills learned and experience gained as the course progresses.

The course is suitable for either project groups, in which case studies can be very

specific and promotion strategies developed accordingly, or to individuals where there are opportunities to analyse, develop and exchange ideas with like-minded researchers.

Key areas of study:

- Latest communication methods and techniques
- Links between communication and science
- Stakeholder analysis and engagement
- Uptake pathways: making the links between research, policy and development
- Up to date advocacy methodology and techniques
- Practical tools and skills in communication including presentations, using the mass media, participatory facilitation, effective messages, negotiation, meetings and interviews.
- Promotion strategy matrix and personal action plans to improve performance in the implementation of participants' promotion strategies
- Project monitoring and evaluation as part of the promotion strategy
- Provide a forum for networking and exchange to share experience and encourage the diffusion of innovative approaches for valuable research results

Course dates and fees:

25 – 29 April 2005 in Brighton, United Kingdom. The fees are £1,500 per participant, inclusive of bed and breakfast accommodation. Fees also include airport transfers, course materials and a cultural programme.

For more information about this course and other IMA courses, please see the IMA website at <http://www.imainternational.com>.

IMA International
Randolphs Farm, Brighton Road,
Hurstpierpoint,
West Sussex, BN6 9EL
UK

Phone: +44 1273 833030
Fax: +44 1273 833230
E-mail : post@imainternational.com

FIELD FACILITATORS GUIDELINES FOR SMALL-SCALE FOREST ENTERPRISES

The FAO website now contains Field Facilitators Guidelines for community-based tree and forest product enterprises. These small-scale forest enterprises are designed with the help of participatory methodologies such as Market Analysis and Development (MA&D) and operate within the framework of Participatory forestry mechanisms that enable those people with a direct stake in forest resources, to be part of decision-making in all aspects of forest management. For more information, see the Webpage of small-scale forest enterprises at <http://www.fao.org/forestry/site/10173/en>

Are these guidelines for you?

Do you want to help small entrepreneurs in the field to identify and develop natural resource products-based small-scale enterprises? Then these guidelines are just what you are looking for. Whether you work for governmental or non-government development agencies, the guidelines

provide you with easy-to-follow descriptions of practical methods and well-tested field tools which you can use to turn villagers into successful small-scale entrepreneurs. Don't worry. You don't need to be an expert in business management in order to facilitate this process!

The Field Facilitators Guidelines are published in English, French and Spanish. They can be accessed and downloaded from the FAO website.

English: FIELD FACILITATORS GUIDELINES (2004)

http://www.fao.org/documents/show_cdr.asp?url_file=/docrep/007/ae419e/ae419e00.htm

PDF: <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/007/ae419e/ae419e00.pdf>

French: FICHES CONSEIL AU FACILITATEUR DE TERRAIN (2004)

http://www.fao.org/documents/show_cdr.asp?url_file=/docrep/007/ae419f/ae419f00.htm

PDF file: <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/007/ae419f/ae419f00.pdf>

Spanish: DIRECTRICES PARA FACILITADORES DE CAMPO (2004)

http://www.fao.org/documents/show_cdr.asp?url_file=/docrep/007/ae419s/ae419s00.htm

PDF: <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/007/ae419s/ae419s00.pdf>

Contact:
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Other News

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Website: <http://www.fao.org>

Webpage small-scale enterprises:
<http://www.fao.org/forestry/site/10173/en>

MA&D Brochure-link: http://www.fao.org/documents/show_cdr.asp?url_file=/DOCREP/005/X4808E/X4808E00.HTM

THE VERIFOR PROJECT (ODI AND PARTNERS)

VERIFOR was one of the successful proposals under the last round of bids to the EC's 'Tropical Forestry' budget line. The project is to be implemented by ODI in association with three international partners: CIFOR (Africa), RECOFTC (Asia) and CATIE (Central and South America), and has a value of €2.4 million over four years (2005-9), 80% funded by the EC.

VERIFOR is concerned with the policy, institutional and legal challenges around the issue of illegal logging. It seeks to help tropical producer countries verify that their timber has been legally harvested. In line with the EC's FLEGT Action Plan, the focus is on the provision of equitable solutions that do not have adverse effects on the poor, and which support the principles of good governance. It addresses the institutional dimensions, and the ways in which national ownership can be built up in a manner compatible with international credibility and legitimacy (rather than, say, technical aids such as methods of log tracking). A central preoccupation is the policy arena and policy

challenges. Thus, it goes beyond the issue of criminality and will make a contribution to poverty reduction through national-led processes.

VERIFOR is in two phases. The first leads to a major international conference to review existing verification systems, both within the sector and beyond. The second phase of the Project will build a dialogue with interested parties to design verification systems that are well attuned to country realities and enjoy broad national ownership. The project will end with a second conference to take stock of what has been learned, and to maintain the momentum for range-state options and solutions.

Contact information:

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Website: <http://www.fao.org/FORESTRY/FON/fonp/cfu/MADoENG.pdf>

INTERACTIVE FOREST AND NATURE POLICY IN PRACTICE

International Course, IAC Wageningen, The Netherlands, 12 - 30 September 2005

One of the most significant developments in environmental and natural resource policy making over the last decade has been the focus on finding effective alternatives to command and control regulation. The trend towards using less intrusive means to achieve policy goals is a response to policy failures, such as implementation gaps and lack of legitimation, and to a changed understanding of the complexity of societal and environmental problems. As a result, the relationship between the regulators and the regulated has shifted. Governmental actors become facilitators, moderators and partners in participatory processes among a diverse set of non-governmental actors.

This development challenges forest and nature management professionals to take a wider perspective: to look beyond the forest boundaries, taking into account cross-sectoral concerns and using multi-disciplinary approaches. Professionals accepting this challenge will need to clarify the relevance of forest policy to poverty reduction strategies. They will require experience in using participatory approaches to ensure the involvement of stakeholders in policy development and implementation. If you would like to develop your skills as a 'new' professional, this course will interest you.

From 12-30 September 2005 the IAC will organise a three week international course on **"Interactive Forest and Nature Policy**

in Practice: managing multi-stakeholder learning in sector wide approaches and national forest programmes."

This course adopts a learning perspective to policy development and implementation for sustainable natural resource management. Processes of collaborative learning look beyond stakeholder participation, focussing on the social processes and dynamics that make stakeholder participation effective for managing natural resources. Using the Multi-Stakeholder Processes conceptual framework and reflecting on participants' own experiences, an active learning environment is created that is fun, stimulating and challenging.

Are you curious about this course or other IAC courses? Please contact us through:

Fax +31 317 495395

E-mail: wouter.hijweege@wur.nl .

You can also visit us at <http://www.iac.wur.nl>

We appreciate your assistance in communicating this course to colleagues within your organisation and network.

Please contact us if you have any questions or suggestions.

Wouter Hijweege
Course coordinator
IAC

CONSERVING THE PEACE: RESOURCES, LIVELIHOODS AND SECURITY

Richard Matthew, Mark Halle and Jason Switzer (eds.) (2002)

In 2000, the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and the International Institute for Sustainable Development convened an international Task Force of leading experts to assess the linkages between environment and security, and to begin converting what has largely been an academic debate into tools for conservation planning. The Task Force subsequently commissioned a number of case studies from around the world, which illustrate the linkages between environment and security. Cases by leading authors explored the complex roots of conflict in Rwanda, Indonesia, Nicaragua and Pakistan. They tackled the ecological sources of vulnerability to Hurricane Mitch and the strange conflict between Canada and Spain over the Atlantic turbot fishery. Based on its research, the Task Force concluded that resource degradation and disaster largely affect the lives and livelihoods of the millions of poor around the world, especially those in indigenous and traditional communities. Loss of livelihoods, in turn, leads to social tension, migration and settlement in inappropriate areas, and often to conflict. It follows then that targeted investments in environmental conservation and the promotion of sustainable and equitable use of natural resources may be significant factors in mitigating disaster risk, reducing social tensions and avoiding costly conflicts. The Task Force presented its results to the World Conservation Congress

in 2000 to wide acclaim. The cases and their recommendations were published in 2002 as a book, *Conserving the Peace*, launched at the World Summit for Sustainable Development in Johannesburg.

Winnipeg: IISD and IUCN.
ISBN: 1-895536-62-6

Source: IISD website at: <http://www.iisd.org/natres/security/nrls.asp>

Download at: http://www.iisd.org/pdf/2002/envsec_conserving_peace.pdf

BREAKING THE CONFLICT TRAP

Paul Collier, Lani Elliot, Håvard Hegre, Anke Hoeffler, Marta Reynal-Querol and Nicholas Sambanis (2003)

This policy research report prepared for the World Bank has among its main objectives to alert the international community about the negative consequences that civil wars have on development. Authors point out the efficacy of development as an instrument for prevention and mitigation of conflict. This relation also works in the opposite direction since the combination of violent conflicts and failure of development usually leads to a vicious circle in which war retards development and, in its turn, development retards war. Civil wars have frequently adverse ripple effects that not only affect combatants and have an impact far beyond national frontiers, thus making them an issue that concerns both national

governments and international community.

The first part of the book addresses such effects, at the national scale, on the neighboring countries, and at the global scale. The second part focuses more closely on the factors determining the incidence of violent conflicts, the links between conflicts and development –or the lack of it-, and circumstances making countries prone to fall into “conflict traps”. The third and last part calls for national and international intervention and suggests some policies that might be effective in reducing conflict incidence worldwide.

Many of the articles referred to in this report can be found on the project’s website <http://econ.worldbank.org/programs/conflict>.

The electronic version of this book can be downloaded from the World Bank website: <http://econ.worldbank.org/prr/CivilWarPRR/text-26671>

You can also purchase the hard copy at World Bank’s website: http://publications.worldbank.org/ecommerce/catalog/product?item_id=1896154

Price: \$24
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ISBN: 0-8213-5481-7
SKU: 15481

To order by mail:
The World Bank
P.O. Box 960
Herndon, VA 20172-0960
U.S.A.

WAR AND TROPICAL FORESTS

Steven V. Price (ed.) (2003)

This volume is a collection of essays that first emerged as papers and presentations prepared for the international conference War and Tropical Forests: New Perspectives in Conservation in Areas of Armed Conflict. The conference called the attention to the conflicts at that time affecting conservation, as well as to the challenges that conservationists and conservation-related activities faced during conflict and post-conflict periods. Preparing conservationist staff and communities for times of crises, maintaining conservation program capacities during conflict, addressing the causes of conflict and directing conservation efforts toward the reduction and prevention of conflicts are examples of such challenges. The main topics addressed in War and Tropical forests include the destructive impact of violent conflicts on forests and conservation capacities, which not only occur during wartime but can also be severe in the post-conflict period; the determining role that local communities can play in conservation during violent conflicts; the role of international market forces and economic agendas in generating and fuelling conflict; and the negative effects of corruption and weak governance in conservation activities and conflict management. The eight chapters of the book include case studies from Colombia, Nicaragua, Democratic Republic of Congo, Indonesia and Rwanda.

Published by Food Products Press (The Haworth Press), Inc. and co-published simultaneously as Journal of Sustainable

Publications

Forestry, Volume 16, number 3/4, 2003.
ISBN 1-56022-09-6; 219pp.
Price: \$ 24.95 paperback

This book can be purchased at Haworth
Publisher's website:

[http://www.haworthpress.com/store/
product.asp?sid=5VDG2APP6UDQ9HKVFBF
P2W0A6J4E3J9E&sku=4803&AuthType=4](http://www.haworthpress.com/store/product.asp?sid=5VDG2APP6UDQ9HKVFBF P2W0A6J4E3J9E&sku=4803&AuthType=4)

It can also be ordered at the following
mailing address:

The Haworth Press Inc.
10 Alice St.
Binghamton, NY 13904
USA

**NATURE IN WAR; BIODIVERSITY
CONSERVATION DURING
CONFLICTS**

*Esther Blom, Wim Bergmans, Irene
Dankelman, Pita Verweij, Margje Voeten en
Piet Wit (2000)*

The book, published by the Working Group Ecology and Development, a Dutch group of independent nature conservationists, is based on an international seminar on that same subject. During the seminar, it became clear that nature can often be spared during conflicts, and this contributes significantly to the opportunities of people to rebuild their society after the conflict ends. The publication sheds light on the subject from many different angles. For example, a number of cases by local NGOs from conflict areas (a.o. DRC, Burma, Colombia) illustrate the enormous and long-term damage to nature that has been caused by conflicts, now and in the past. Furthermore, these cases illustrate the admirable NGO

commitment to protect the environment of the local people as much as possible. It appears that nature conservation activities neutralise conflicts because it brings together parties that would normally not cooperate.

In the publication, the Netherlands Ministry of Defence emphasises the importance of nature conservation during conflicts. The UNHCR already works on environmental projects in and around refugee camps to prevent environmental destruction a result of the crowds of people who are temporarily dependent on the natural resources of the area.

The book includes very personal experiences of people directly affected by conflicts and still fight for the conservation of biodiversity. Additionally, it gives an overview of the growing realization on the part of Dutch and international agencies that nature could and should be spared during conflicts. Concrete recommendations for the various stakeholders during conflicts are presented also.

International Seminar of the Working Group Ecology and Development
Mededelingen Nederlandse Commissie voor Internationale Natuurbescherming nr. 37
Werkgroep Ecologie en Ontwikkeling
ISSN 0923-5981

Currently the publication is out of print. Please contact the secretariat of the Working Group Ecology and Development for more information or photocopies of the publication:

E-mail: WEO@nciucn.nl
Phone: +31 20 6261732

GUERRA, SOCIEDAD Y MEDIO AMBIENTE (WAR, SOCIETY AND ENVIRONMENT)

M. Cárdenas and M. Rodríguez B. (eds.) 2004

The book, also discussed in the article by Rodríguez (page 65) tries to clarify the complex relations between environment, social conflicts, war and peace in Colombia. It presents different aspects of the nature of armed conflict and its effects on land and forests in Colombia. Environmental policies during the war are discussed, specifically communal reforestation, policies on parks with the people, the ban of illicit cultivations and anti-drugs policy, and the road policy and its relations with forest in the context of the country's social conflict. It also includes an analysis of the oil sector and its relationship with environment and conflict, and a methodological and conceptual essay on "sociology of environmental conflicts", built from analysing issues on oil and ethnic groups in the Amazon region.

This book is currently available in Spanish only.

Foro Nacional Ambiental – Colombia.
ISBN: 958-8101-17-4
Bogotá, Prisma Asociados Ltda.

EXTREME CONFLICTS AND TROPICAL FORESTS

Deanna Donovan, Wil de Jong and Kenichi Abe (eds.) (forthcoming)

In nine chapters this book brings together various aspects of extreme conflicts in tropical forests. Seven chapters were presented as papers at the Symposium on Extreme Conflicts and Tropical Forests organized by the Japan Center for Area Studies in Osaka, Japan, in November 2001.

Many tropical forests are located in recently formed, volatile states. Institutional instability and rapid changes of resource ownership and user rights have helped the spread of conflicts into forested regions. Forests provide basic needs to those who flee from conflict and, often at the same time, financial input to warring parties. Tropical forests remain out of reach of most government and law enforcement agencies and readily become subject of overexploitation, poaching and conversion for the production of illegal crops. In addition, extreme conflicts severely hamper conservation of endangered species and their habitats.

Extreme conflicts in tropical forests are part and parcel of the wider subject of environmental decline. The link between extreme conflicts and tropical forests is central to a number of recent Forest Law Enforcement and Governance initiatives and has become a prominent theme on the agenda at high level international meetings. For instance, the issue of 'conflict timber', i.e. timber that is used to fund wars, has been debated at the United Nations Security

Publications

Council. As a result, Liberian timber has been banned from the international market.

The book contains case studies from tropical Asia, Africa and America. The analysis includes causes and consequences of extreme conflicts in social, economic, and environmental terms, illicit crop production, post-conflict challenges of forest management, conflict timber, patronage, conservation and the potential of peace parks.

Please contact Wil de Jong (wdejong@idc.minpaku.ac.jp) for information on ordering the book.

NATURAL RESOURCES AND VIOLENT CONFLICTS: OPTIONS AND ACTIONS

Ian Bannon and Paul Collier (eds.) (2003)

Natural Resources and Violent Conflicts is the product of the research on the links between natural resources and conflict undertaken by the World Bank's Conflict Prevention and Reconstruction Unit and the Development Research Group. This collection of articles holds that even though natural resources are never the only cause of conflict, natural resource exploitation has historically played an important role in triggering, prolonging or fueling conflict. Countries with low income and strong dependence on primary commodities face higher risks of conflict incidence, and once civil war breaks out it acts as development in reverse, having devastating consequences largely over civilians and usually affecting more than one country. The

book discusses practical approaches and policies that can be adopted by international community to assist developing countries in better managing their resources. Authors focus mainly on the mechanisms for making sure that revenues from natural resource exploitation do not start or sustain any violent conflict. Regulations, schemes and instruments for monitoring and regulating conflict trade revenues at the national, regional and global scale are documented and discussed, and areas for effective international action are identified.

Published by the World Bank. 2003: 409 pp. ISBN 0-8213-5503-1; Price \$30

Introduction and table of contents can be downloaded free of charge at the same electronic address. This book can be purchased on-line at the World Bank website: http://publications.worldbank.org/ecommerce/catalog/product?item_id=2350727

Orders via post:
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Herndon, VA 20172-0960
U.S.A.

VIOLENT ENVIRONMENTS

Michael Watts and Nancy Lee Peluso (2001)

Cornell University Press
Publishing date: August 2001
ISBN 0801487110
Price \$ 29.95
453 pages

Publications

GREED AND GRIEVANCE: ECONOMIC AGENDAS IN CIVIL WARS

Mats Berdal and David M. Malone (eds.) (2000)

First conceived in the conference “Economic Agendas in Civil Wars” held in London in 1999, this book explores the ways in which economic factors frequently shape the behavior of the parties to a violent conflict. Authors suggest looking at war not merely as a disruption of the ruling social, political and economic order but as the emergence of a system that benefits certain groups – government officials, traders, combatants and some international actors- while impoverishing others. This perspective can provide a more comprehensive understanding of the complex circumstances that generate and keep conflicts going for years sometimes even decades. Though varying largely from case to case, profits from violent conflicts are often intimately linked to access and power over natural resources in the conflict area, of which evidence is provided through several chapters of the book.

The first section of this volume addresses the economy of civil wars through analysing the economic agendas of the partakers as well as the means by which globalisation creates new opportunities for the partaker's elites to engage in their economic agendas. The second section focuses on the possible participation of external actors, including governments, international organisations, NGO's and private companies in shifting such economic agendas toward peace.

Price: \$ 22.50, Lynne Rienner Publishers:
251 pp.
ISBN 1555878687

Order from: Lynne Rienner Publishers
1800 30th Street, Suite 314
Boulder, CO 80301
USA

Orders by phone: +1 303 4446684
Fax: +1 303 4440824.
E-mail: questions@rienner.com
<http://www.amazon.com>

THE TRAMPLED GRASS: MITIGATING THE IMPACTS OF ARMED CONFLICT ON THE ENVIRONMENT

*J. Shambaugh, J. Oglethorpe, and R. Ham
(with contributions from S. Tognetti) (2001)*

Armed conflicts create complex challenges for conservation in many areas of Sub-Saharan Africa. War devastates the lives of those in its destructive path, including civilians, local people, and, sometime, conservation workers.

This publication is based on the results of the Biodiversity Support Programme's Armed Conflict and the Environment (ACE) Project, which reviewed negative impacts of armed conflict on the environment in Africa and analysed a wide range of practical experiences in reducing these impacts before, during, and after conflict. Recommendations in this guide aim to help natural resource managers, conservation practitioners, policy makers, and donors better prepare for conflicts

Publications

before they occur, cope with them while they are occurring, and recover from them after they are over.

The publication can be downloaded from the BSP's website:

<http://www.worldwildlife.org/bsp/index.html>: from the "BSP publications" pages.

For more information contact:
Biodiversity Support Programme
1250 24th Street NW
Washington, DC 20037
USA

Phone: +1 202 2934800

GLOBAL WITNESS REPORTS ON LINKS BETWEEN NATURAL RESOURCE EXPLOITATION AND HUMAN RIGHTS

Global Witness is a non-governmental organisation committed to exposing the link between natural resource exploitation and human right abuses, operating in areas where environmentally destructive trade is fuelling conflict and abuse. *Global Witness* gathers and disseminates information regarding environmental exploitation and its social, ecological and economic effects, in order that the link is understood by those who are in a position to effect positive change. *Global Witness* has used, and continues to use, covert and conventional investigative techniques to identify and document the mechanisms through which natural resources are exploited and removed from countries such as Angola, Cambodia, Liberia and Democratic Republic of Congo. These reports are

presented to the world's policy makers: thus governments and regulatory bodies are pressured to push for a more sustainable use of resources and a more equitable distribution of revenues.

Recent reports

- Rush and Ruin: The Devastating Mineral Trade in Southern Katanga, DRC. (September 2004)
- A Conflict of Interest: the uncertain future of Burma's forests – Burmese Translation (September 2004)
- Same Old Story: a background study of natural resources in the Democratic Republic of Congo. (June 2004)
- Liberia: Back to the Future - What is the future of Liberia's forests and its effect on regional peace? (April 2004).
- Time for Transparency: coming clean on oil, mining and gas Revenues (March 2004)

Information taken from Global Witness website. All reports can be downloaded directly at Global Witness Website:
<http://www.globalwitness.org>

A CONFLICT OF INTEREST: THE UNCERTAIN FUTURE OF BURMA'S FORESTS

Global Witness (October 2003)

This report provides a comprehensive overview of the long lasting conflict in Burma and its strong links with natural resource wealth, particularly timber. First pages of the report present a set of recommendations for mitigating the conflict and improving

Burma's forest management. Specific recommendations are made to all parties involved in the conflict: internal combatants (regime leaders, ethnic insurgents), neighboring countries and international community. The report is divided into two sections; the first section carefully examines the origin of Burma's conflict, tracking its political and cultural roots, as well as the traditionally inequitable distribution of resources extraction and deriving benefits. The second part is mainly based on Global Witness' field research and provides a detailed and carefully documented view of logging and timber trade throughout Burma. Special attention is paid to logging in the border areas –Thai-Burma and China-Burma-, which are currently the areas of greatest concern.

All Global Witness reports and press releases can be downloaded directly at Global Witness Website:
<http://www.globalwitness.org> .

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Alternatively please contact Simon Phillips
in Thailand.
E-mail: sbpcm@loxinfo.co.th

CONTROLLING IMPORTS OF ILLEGAL TIMBER – OPTIONS FOR EUROPE (SUMMARY)

*D. Brack, C. Marijnissen and S. Ozinga
(2002)*

This briefing presents a series of recommendations for the institutions of the European Union (EU), and for the governments of the EU member states, on means to control the import of illegally sourced timber and wood products into the territory of the EU. It is a summary of a larger report, jointly prepared by FERN and the Sustainable Development Programme of the Royal Institute of International Affairs.

The full report identifies existing legislation that may be applicable in controlling imports, looks at ways of promoting legal products in the market and of controlling flows of investment to potentially illegal forestry activities. It examines existing global frameworks that may be applicable. New approaches are analysed, in particular the option of a new EU legislation, including a licensing scheme for legal timber, enabling member states to control the entry of illegally sourced timber into the EU. Practical issues, including identification systems that should be addressed are discussed as well.

FERN/Royal Institute of International Affairs

Full report available on: <http://www.fern.org>
Can be downloaded directly from: <http://www.fern.org/pubs/reports/options2.pdf>

Or contact:
Lucia Appleby

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E-mail: lucia@fern.org

CONFLICT TIMBER: DIMENSIONS OF THE PROBLEM IN ASIA AND AFRICA

J. Thomson and R. Kanaan (2004)

As a response to the growing recognition of the connection between forests, logging and conflict, this report provides a comprehensive examination of the economic, ecological, political, social and security dimensions of conflict timber in both Asia and Africa.

The study identified four interrelated characteristics common to conflict timber incidents in Asia and Africa:

- There is a direct and strong link between conflict timber and poor, inequitable systems of governance. Conflict timber incidents almost always occur in states characterized by poor governance.
- Governments are almost always complicit in conflict timber activities. The difficulty of exploiting timber means that state-based organisations, such as military units and government-backed logging companies, are more likely to engage in conflict timber operations than are rebel groups.

- Loose financial oversight generates incentives for powerful individual actors (military, police, politicians) to engage in conflict timber activities.
- Ambiguous land/resource tenure promotes struggles over timber.

The results of the study indicate that solutions are required that address the major underlying cause of conflict timber – poor governance. Furthermore, there is no “silver bullet” capable of successfully addressing all incidents of conflict timber. To decrease the incidence, longevity or severity of conflict timber incidents successfully, well-reasoned and cross-cutting programmatic responses need to be developed on a case-by-case basis.

The study was commissioned by USAID/DCHA/OTI and USAID/ANE/TS to ARD Inc.

Copies of the report are available at the site: <http://www.ard-biofor.com/documents/Volume%201%20-%20Synthesis%20Report.pdf>

Or try: <http://www.eldis.org/cf/rdr/rdr.cfm?doc=DOC17484>

(Information above is compiled from the summary of the report)

Publications

THE NETHERLANDS AND THE WORLD ECOLOGY – SOY AND OIL PALM

This map tries to assess and visualize the effects of the Dutch import of soybean and oil palm products. These products are mainly imported to feed the sizeable livestock population in the Netherlands. The high levels of consumption and trade of soybean and oil palm products has ultimate severe ecological and social consequences in the countries of production. The main consequences of these imports on local ecosystems are briefly outlined in the website mentioned below. The focus is on Brazil, Indonesia and Malaysia in particular.

This and other maps produced as part of the programme “The Netherlands and the World Ecology” can be ordered from:

The Netherlands Committee for IUCN
Plantage Middenlaan 2K
1018 DD Amsterdam
The Netherlands

Phone: +31 20 6261732
Fax: +31 20 6279349
E-mail: mail@nciucn.nl
Website: <http://www.nciucn.nl>

E-mail: anneke.meijer@nciucn.nl

The price of the map is: in The Netherlands
€2 (including postage costs),
abroad €3 (including postage costs).

RECURSOS, CIENCIA Y DECISIÓN (RESOURCES, SCIENCE AND DECISION)

*Departamento de Recursos Naturales y
Medio Ambiente (DRNA), CATIE*

This new Spanish language series emphasises the importance of a better scientific knowledge as the basis for technical decision making regarding management and conservation of natural resources in tropical America. Target groups are technicians and policy makers.

ISSN 1659-1224 - No. 1 “Retribuciones a la conservación” (Paybacks to conservation), August 2004.

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L'ÉCONOMIE MONDIALE FACE AU CLIMAT - À RESPONSABILITÉS ACCRUES, OPPORTUNITÉS NOUVELLES (THE WORLD ECONOMY FACING THE CLIMATE - INCREASED RESPONSIBILITIES, NEW OPPORTUNITIES)

André Gabus (L'Harmattan, 2003)

An Introduction to the Kyoto Protocol in French that has been especially written for the newcomers into this complex and far-reaching policy instrument.

Après une brève mais équilibrée présentation de l'amplification de l'effet de serre comme phénomène physique, le livre d'André Gabus expose — ce qui est rare pour un lectorat francophone — les fondements sociétaux et économiques de la politique "climat". Les voies et moyens de l'atténuation de l'effet de serre sont traités à la fois comme contraintes économiques et possibilités d'affaires pour les entreprises. Une prospective institutionnelle, économique et surtout technologique fait l'objet de scénarios attrayants. Le livre en cache un autre pour les forestiers entendant conduire la croissance ligneuse aussi pour participer à la prévention climatique, non seulement en tant que promoteurs de puits, mais aussi gestionnaires de stocks de carbone. L'ouvrage est bien organisé avec de nombreux encadrés, des notes techniques et des documents en annexe, un glossaire et un index utile, par exemple, pour recenser les efforts entrepris par pays ou se renseigner sur les innovations par domaines technologiques. En tant que livre

de référence, le lecteur non-anglophone appréciera de pouvoir accéder aux sources majeures qui sont publiées pour la plupart en Anglais. [de la Note de l'Editeur]

ISBN: 2-7475-5050-8

Details by chapter can be viewed at:

<http://www.effet-de-serre.gouv.fr/fr/etudes/somleco.html>

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Website: <http://www.mysunrise.ch/users/agabus/eff'endi/carbon/carbcom.html>

Source: Climate Change Info Mailing List (Climate-L News)

FUNDRAISING AND FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT – A guide for NGOs and Southern development organisations (MANUEL DE RECHERCHE DE FINANCEMENT ET DE GESTION FINANCIERE des ONGs et organisations de developpement du sud)

F. Vincent (2003)

This book is the result of many years of practical experience in training and supporting dozens of Southern NGOs from all continents. The manual takes up certain recommendations of the book "Reinforcing financial autonomy of Third-World development NGOs and organisations", of which the latest edition has been sold out. This manual is more than an update: it is

adapted to needs and financing means of NGOs today and facilitates use of the Internet to identify financial partners.

This new manual translated and adapted from French into English is a practical tool for fundraising and financial management (232 pages). It addresses questions of NGO leaders: How do I draft my request for fundraising? To whom do I send it to have some chance of getting a reply? How much, what and how to ask? What kind of relationship should I have with my donor agencies? How do I manage and justify the aid received?

An annex of 50 pages gives the names and addresses of donor agencies: NGO donors; Foundations; multilateral (UN) aid; bilateral aid; development and alternative banks; and guarantee systems.

The manual is also published and available in French.

IRED, Geneva
ISBN 2-88368-005-2
Price €30 and postage.

Please order by fax or e-mail.

Contact:
IRED Geneva
3, rue Varembé
116 Geneva 1211 20
Switzerland

Phone: +41 22 7341716
Fax: + 41 22 7400011
E-mail: info@ired.org
Website: [http:// www.ired.org](http://www.ired.org)

AGROFORESTRY AND BIODIVERSITY CONSERVATION IN TROPICAL LANDSCAPES

G. Schroth, G.A.B. Da Fonseca, C.A. Harvey, C. Gascon, H.L. Vasconcelos and A-M.N. Izac (eds.) (2004)

The book is the first comprehensive synthesis of the role of agroforestry systems in conserving biodiversity in tropical landscapes, and contains in-depth review chapters of most agroforestry systems, with examples from many different countries. It is a valuable source of information for scientists, researchers, professors, and students in the fields of conservation biology, resource management, tropical ecology, rural development, agroforestry, and agroecology.

Based on the experience in tropical regions of 46 scientists and practitioners from 13 countries, the book reviews how agroforestry practices can help to promote biodiversity conservation in human-dominated landscapes, to synthesize the current state of knowledge in the field, and to identify areas where further research is needed.

Paper \$45.00
ISBN 1-55963-357-3, Island Press.

For more information contact:
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<http://www.islandpress.org>

PARTICIPATORY ASSESSMENT, MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF BIODIVERSITY (PAMEB)

J. van Rijsoort and A. Lawrence (eds.) (2004)

The results of PAMEB Electronic workshop (7-25 January 2002) and policy seminar (21 May 2002) convened by the Environmental Change Institute, University of Oxford have been published on CD-ROM. The CD includes outputs, background documents and reading materials. All the information on the CD-ROM may also be downloaded from the workshop website. For copies of the CD, please contact ETRN at etfrn@etfrn.org

DFID/FRP R7475. ETRN and Environmental Change Institute, University of Oxford.

MODELLING AND EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH ON GENETIC PROCESSES IN TROPICAL AND TEMPERATE FORESTS

B. Degen, M.D. Loveless and A. Kremer (eds) (2002)

This publication presents the proceedings of a symposium with the same title held in Kourou, French Guiana in 2000. The symposium was supported by the Dendrogene project; the proceedings were

published by EMBRAPA.

The Dendrogene project, hosted at the Embrapa Eastern Amazon research station in Belém, has created an important scientific network in the fields of ecology, genetics, botany and modeling in order to secure the use and conservation of the tropical humid forests.

ISBN 85-87690-14-0

Copies can be requested at:
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E-mail: sac@cpatu.embrapa.br

TAKAMANDA: THE BIODIVERSITY OF AN AFRICAN RAINFOREST

J.A. Comiskey, T.C.H. Sunderland and J.L. Sunderland-Groves (eds.) (2003)

The Takamanda Project was a collaborative, multi-institutional effort to provide an initial series of assessments for selected taxa in this region of southwestern Cameroon and elicit the data needed to form a baseline for future research and conservation. Takamanda Forest Reserve (TFR) was relatively unexplored until this project. Increasing threats to the long-term survival of both flora and fauna in the Reserve prompted the authors and their respective affiliation to conduct the

Publications

biodiversity assessments that are reported on in the book. The studies reflect the overall biological importance of TFR, the urgent need to protect the area to ensure its viability into the future, and, ideally, implementation of sustainable management practices.

ISBN: 1-893912-12-4

SI/MAB Series #8. Smithsonian Institute, Washington, DC.

You can download electronic versions of the book at: <http://nationalzoo.si.edu/ConservationAndScience/MAB/researchprojects/appliedconservation/westafrica/Takamanda.cfm>

Or visit: <http://www.si.edu/simab> and click on SI/MAB Series: Takamanda (on the right side of the screen).

For more information contact:
Smithsonian Institution
National Zoological Park
Conservation and Research Center
SI/MAB Biodiversity Program
1100 Jefferson Drive, SW, Suite 3123
Washington, DC 20560-0705
USA

IDENTIFYING TROPICAL *PROSOPIS* SPECIES. A FIELD GUIDE

N.M. Pasiecznik, P.J.C. Harris and S.J. Smith (2004)

Taxonomists can tell the difference by looking very carefully at the flowers and leaves, and recently scientists have accurately identified species by analysing the DNA. However, while these methods are

helpful to the experts in their laboratories, they are not much use to the forester, who needs to be able to identify *Prosopis* trees quickly in the field. This guide aims to do just that, by allowing a comparison of leaves and other useful morphological characteristics of the eight most frequent tropical species, and a key to differentiating the two most common, and most often confused species, *P. juliflora* and *P. pallida*.

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ACACIA: A PRICKLY TREE FOR A THORNY PROBLEM

Summary written by Becky Hayward (2003)

The research on African acacias was carried out by a collaboration of organisations including the Zimbabwe Forestry Commission, the Kenya Forestry Institute and L'Institut Sénégalais de Recherches Agricoles. The project was focussed on six species: *Acacia erioloba*, *Acacia karroo*, *Acacia nilotica*, *Acacia Senegal*, *Acacia tortilis* and *Faidherbia albida*.

Biologists at the Oxford Forestry Institute, the University of Dundee and the Zimbabwe Commission looked at how fast growing and productive seedlings of these *Acacia* species can be raised in tree nurseries using local adapted methods. Ecologists at the Institute of Terrestrial Ecology identified how acacia fallows can improve soil fertility and botanists at the Oxford Forestry Institute investigated the potential of acacia pods as dry season fodder for cattle and goats. A team of sociologists at the Oxford Forestry Institute and the Zimbabwe Forestry Commission looked at the fourth aspect of the research: the potential of acacia's to generate cash income.

Forestry Research Programme, Research Summary 005. September 2003

For further information on the Forestry Research Programme contact:

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UK

E-mail: k.rothschild@nrint.co.uk
Website: <http://www.frp.uk.com>

FIRST PROTA INTERNATIONAL WORKSHOP PROCEEDINGS

G.H. Schmelzer and E.A. Omino (eds.) (2003)

These Proceedings contain the presentations and deliberations of the First PROTA International Workshop, which was held from 23-25 September 2002, in Nairobi, Kenya. It is published by PROTA Foundation, Wageningen, the Netherlands.

The Workshop was organized as a forum for scientists, policy-makers and donors, in order:

- To highlight the importance of the Plant Resources of Tropical Africa through Commodity Group Reports, Country and Regional Reports;
- To review the progress made in the Preparatory Phase 2000-2002 towards international cooperation, the documentation and information system, and the publication of sample products
- To make recommendations for the First Implementation Phase 2003-2007 on all aspects of the programme including organisation, manpower, finances, publication policy and the databank.

ISBN 90-77114-04-1

For more information on Plant Resources of Tropical Africa (PROTA) visit:
<http://www.prota.org>

ENHSIN – THE EUROPEAN NATURAL HISTORY SPECIMEN INFORMATION NETWORK

M.J Scoble (ed.) (2003). The Natural History Museum

This volume has arisen from a multi-national research co-operation aimed at improving access to a particular set of world-class research infrastructure. The network engaged in this collaboration is the European Natural History Specimen Information Network (ENHSIN), which has been supported by the European Union under Framework Programme V.

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PRACTICAL GUIDELINES FOR THE ASSESSMENT, MONITORING AND REPORTING ON NATIONAL LEVEL CRITERIA AND INDICATORS FOR SUSTAINABLE FOREST MANAGEMENT IN DRY FORESTS IN ASIA

S. Appanah, F. Castañeda and P.B. Durst (eds.) (2003)

Criteria and indicators provide a meaningful and practical means for countries to gauge periodic progress towards sustainable forest management. While these tools cannot be viewed as a panacea for the world's forest management problems, they can be important tools for promoting sustainable forest management and related activities where the underlying problems are correctly identified and addressed.

However, to be relevant and useful, and to implement these tools in an efficient way, criteria and indicators must be translated into action. This requires the development of practical guidelines for the assessment and monitoring of criteria and indicators, and for reporting on progress.

This publication supports that need. It describes in a simple, straightforward manner: (a) the means for assessing and verifying each indicator, (b) periodicity of measurement and units of measurement and (c) the formats used in reporting the results and monitoring the changes. The assessment methodology is specially tailored for evaluating dry forests in all the countries in the Asian region but could be applicable to similar regions in the world

Publications

as well. Overall, they can be used for accurately assessing the progress made by countries towards sustainable management of their dry forests. Now the task falls on the individual countries to develop the local standards of performance and begin the actual monitoring of their management. It is expected that the practical guidelines set forth in this publication will support and simplify these monitoring efforts.

ISBN 974-7946-40-8
FAO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific

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**CHINA'S FORESTS – GLOBAL
LESSONS FROM MARKET
REFORMS**

W.F. Hyde, B. Belcher and Jintao Xu (eds)
(2003)

This book is the main output from the symposium entitled "Policy Reform and Forestry in China: lessons in China and the world" held in June 2001 in Dujiangyan. The symposium arose from the need for a more comprehensive understanding of the forestry impacts of the sweeping reforms that China has implemented over the past

quarter century.

The symposium was organised around a series of themes: history and the grand themes of the reform; decentralization, prices, taxation and regulation; investments in forestry; extrasectoral policy impacts on forestry; impacts on poverty and rural households; environmental impacts. The general discussion went beyond the boundaries of "forestry" to consider a wide set of factors that interact in a very dynamic environment to influence resource management and development. The Chinese language version of the book is still in progress.

Resources for the future (RFF), CIFOR
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ISBN 1-891853-66-X (paper)

For more information, contact:
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