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Editorial

PETER BRIDGEWATER

AS WE MOVE to the next millennium a key concern for protected area managers must be the development of partnerships. Not just partnerships with those sectors of society which traditionally form the major support groups for protected areas, but society at large.

Partnerships between protected area agencies, other government agencies, NGOs (both conservation and resource use oriented) and the community at large are vital, not only to ensure support for protected area management, but also to ensure that protected areas take their place with the other key elements in regional, national and international strategies to protect biodiversity.

The papers in this issue address various aspects of these concerns. Bruce Leaver and Ashley Fuller describe the current state of protected area management in Australia and foreshadow a new approach in Tasmania, an island state of Australia. Their approach is visionary, and embraces the concept of partnership in the most exciting way – devolution of day-to-day management for protected areas to a range of management agencies, under a system of agreed categories for management objectives, which are enshrined in legislation.

They have, of course, built on the sound base provided by the CNPPA protected area categories system. The keystone to success will be public consultation and commitment to the scheme, and early signs are most encouraging. What might work in one area, of course, is never a global panacea. Comparing the Bahamian archipelago, where the Bahamas National Trust (an NGO) manages the National Parks of The Bahamas, with National Park management systems in the USA, Canada or Australia would suggest little in common. Yet all are about biodiversity conservation, and in The Bahamas a very different governmental system allows the global treasures that are the Bahamian National Parks to be managed in a highly effective way by the Trust, delivering results of value nationally and globally. The theme of partnership and interlinkage between interest groups is paramount for success.

The role of NGOs in Latin America is also clearly articulated, with an excellent example of government/NGO cooperation from Peru in the paper by Gustavo Suarez de Freitas. The importance of international organisations such as IUCN and WWF in helping these symbioses develop and flourish is essential, and it is often early inputs of expertise and advice in the developing stage of partnership projects that helps them become reality. Of course, dollars also help, and it would be good to see more proactivity from international funding agencies to help these activities. Allen Putney had something to say on this in his *PARKS* editorial of June 1994.

There are rightly concerns over the 'privatisation' of protected areas. But that should not prevent partnerships with private enterprise, where more recurrent funds can be generated. While protected areas are primarily about biodiversity conservation, such conservation will not be well accomplished if we fail to let our public see what is being conserved, and allow them to enjoy it. Such access and interpretation takes money – we should not be afraid of recouping those costs, or even making a small profit, which will allow an expansion of our conservation work, in partnership with the tourism industry!



Photo: G. Hanson/
AUSPIC.

Explicit partnership arrangements between government agencies previously seen as natural competitors are also becoming more important. How that works in East Africa, in three geographically similar yet culturally and politically different countries, is explained in the paper by Robert Bensted-Smith and Stephen Cobb. East Africa is becoming a global focus for how to manage the increasing conflict between wildlife management, conservation, protected area establishment and management, and the expanding needs of a human population still essentially rural.

In East Africa, issues such as protected areas being sources for expanding and hungry wildlife populations cause daily dramas. The ways in which the countries concerned are tackling these issues are different, yet all have lessons for countries less advanced. These issues are not, of course, confined to developing countries, and cross-reading between the Australian situation and that of East Africa provides some interesting parallels!

All the partnership development and management refocusing will come to naught, however, if there is not an appropriate monitoring system in place. One way to solve this issue is outlined in the paper by Paul Siegel from Madagascar. Again, it is not a model which will work everywhere. It is the principle of implementing performance monitoring, and subsequent management adjustment that is important.

What is encouraging in many of the papers is the seamless way in which terrestrial and marine protected areas are considered together. We seem, finally, to have arrived at a point where emphasis on one form of protected area is unnecessary. And terrestrial, marine, coastal or any blend of protected area needs partnership, and performance monitoring, to be managed effectively and to have the essential wider community support.

Peter Bridgewater is Chief Executive Officer for the Australian Nature Conservation Agency.

Reform of protected area institutions in East Africa

ROBERT BENSTED-SMITH AND STEPHEN COBB

Kenya, Uganda, mainland Tanzania and Zanzibar are all engaged in modernising and strengthening their protected area institutions, to face the challenges of the next century. Kenya has led the way, with the creation of the Kenya Wildlife Service, while the other countries have important initiatives in the pipeline. An overview of the approaches taken reveals some common themes, for example in favouring greater autonomy, developing business management capacity, and developing partnerships, especially with local communities. However, there is no standard blueprint and in each case the institutional set-up is being tailored to national needs.

THE 1960s AND 1970s saw rapid growth throughout Africa of national networks of protected areas. During the 1980s, countries were coming to realise that these networks were not meeting their objectives, since external pressures could not be met by appropriate responses. Lack of money and lack of appropriate policies were both to blame. At the start of the 1990s, most national wildlife institutions were in urgent need of reform. But the instruments of reform have to be wielded carefully, if they are to avoid creating as many problems as they solve. In East Africa Kenya, Uganda, Zanzibar and mainland Tanzania are all reviewing or reorganising their wildlife sector institutions. This paper describes their plans and progress. It must be borne in mind that only Kenya has gone far in the implementation of institutional reform, and even there the new agency is only three years into a planned ten-year programme of donor-assisted development.

So what are the challenges facing protected area institutions in this region? Some are challenges common to any government service contemplating reform, for example:

- They must compete for scarce government funds and/or generate revenue that can be used to cover costs.
- They must reduce costs, by reducing inflated staff numbers and improving productivity.
- Their administration must become more efficient and accountable.

Other challenges are peculiar to protected area institutions, and they will grow in the coming century. They include:

- Community relations. As human populations and agriculture expand, and wildlife habitat shrinks, there are increasing conflicts between wild animals and people. In countries where most people are farmers, financial losses, injuries and deaths can contribute to a feeling that the nearby protected area is a local liability, even if it is a national or global asset. Not only do some protected areas depend on adjacent areas outside the direct control of the responsible institution, but also the institution may have to find ways to create new protected areas in critical habitats.
- High cost of social functions. Security, policing of trafficking, problem animal control etc. Expectations rise as service improves.
- Ecological constraints. Some wild animals need resources which are spread over large areas, not corresponding to administrative or ownership units. Species

diversity considerations impose minimum habitat requirements. Genetic diversity considerations may call for conservation of several sub-populations in different environments. And in the next century protected area networks must be flexible, preferably with ecological links between areas, in order to adapt to expected changes in climate.

- **Pressure to misuse resources.** The institutions are guardians of a vast reservoir of natural resources, which are widely perceived as under-used and which some politicians view as a "land bank" to be cashed in at times of need. Similarly, there may be pressure to divert funds generated for protected areas (including their community programmes) to unrelated uses.

- **Narrow expertise.** Protected area institutions have to expand their professional expertise. They have traditionally relied on wildlife graduates, but now they need specialists in such fields as business management, public relations and community development.

- **Uncertainty over ecosystem management.** Wildlife agencies in East Africa are not alone in finding difficulty in translating ecological theory into practice. In particular, cyclical fluctuations in ecosystems can with difficulty be dampened out by management intervention. Deciding when to attempt this has proved challenging.

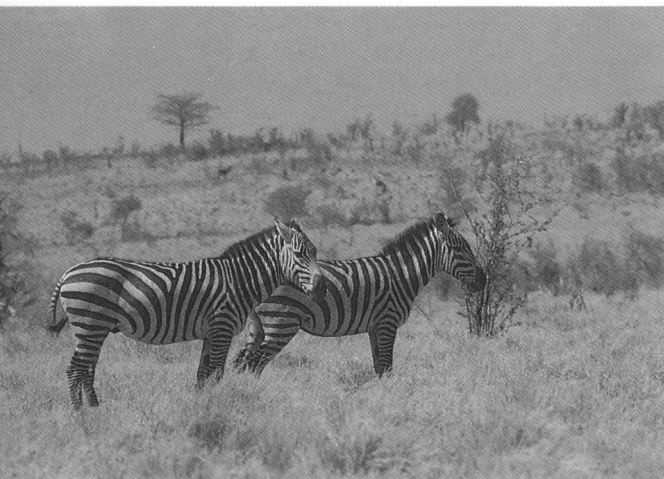
While planning their reform, protected area bodies face critical issues which demand attention and cannot wait for protracted institutional strengthening. (But are these issues new, or worse than before, or are they a stimulus to reform?) These include:

- Commercial poaching and deforestation threatening rare species.
- Public demands for action to prevent or compensate for damage caused by wildlife and to keep the animals in the parks 'where they belong'.
- Investor pressure to develop tourism in popular protected areas.

Protected area institutions also enjoy some special advantages over other sectors:

- International goodwill, potentially convertible to funding for conservation.
- Existence of non-government organisations (NGOs) and volunteers, willing to assist conservation.
- Rapid global expansion of nature tourism, as a potential source of revenue with relatively low environmental impact.

Burchell's Zebra
(*Hippotigris*
quagga) in Meru
National Park,
Kenya. Photo: Paul
Goriup/Pisces
Nature Photos.



- Global trends to modify economic analysis and planning to incorporate the values of protected areas.

- The Biodiversity Convention, recognising the economic value of the biodiversity of the protected areas.

These factors have influenced the countries of East Africa as they embark on institutional reform. The next section of this paper summarises the start made by each country in this decade. Subsequent sections compare their approaches to specific issues: institutional frameworks, internal structures, arrangements for collaboration with communities, achieving financial

sustainability, improving protected area networks, and generating momentum for institutional change. The paper focuses on institutional aspects, not operational policies, but even then can give only a brief overview of the subject.

Brief history of events in each country

Kenya

The creation of the Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) in 1990 was a response to a crisis threatening both wildlife and tourism, Kenya's biggest foreign exchange earner. The appalling statistics for black rhinos and elephants are often cited, but many less prominent species were also suffering. The government was concerned at its inability to maintain security for wildlife or for tourists.

In April 1989 Dr Richard Leakey was appointed head of the Wildlife Conservation and Management Department (WCMD), which was the government department responsible for wildlife. He immediately removed a number of corrupt and incompetent personnel. He also organised the famous ivory burning, which signalled Kenya's conviction that the ivory trade should be banned, since it posed a direct threat to her conservation policies and tourist industry.

In January 1990 the existing Wildlife Act was amended to bring KWS into being. Staff of the government department, WCMD, were transferred to the new body. KWS is a parastatal agency, a status which gives it a certain degree of financial autonomy and of freedom from government control. KWS has a nationwide responsibility for wildlife management. It is entitled to retain and use its own revenue. During 1990 KWS prepared a detailed new policy framework and investment plan in a multi-volume document which became known as the Zebra Book. This led to the formulation of a \$143 million 5-year project supported by seven major donors coordinated by the World Bank, with the intention to fund a second phase if the first project went well. The World Bank funds came on stream in July 1992, but other donors have still to mobilise funds earmarked for this programme in 1991.

Meanwhile, with help from smaller-scale interim funding and technical assistance, the situation in the field improved dramatically. Poaching of elephants and rhinos virtually ceased, and new community programmes were initiated. Management of the major parks was boosted by personnel changes, increased pay, improved morale and confidence in the leadership, even though full-scale re-equipment and rehabilitation of infrastructure were delayed. After a political struggle, KWS returned 1,640 staff to the parent Ministry for retrenchment (in fact the government absorbed most of them). The remaining 3,200 former WCMD staff were taken on by KWS. KWS also recruited new staff, including rangers for wildlife protection and professionals in new fields such as business administration, community work and engineering.

KWS's efforts were lauded in conservation and tourism sectors but sometimes conflicted with the views and priorities of politicians. Its demands for greater autonomy in financial and personnel management were resisted. Like much of the publicity about KWS, the controversy became personalised around the figure of its Director and in December 1993 his opponents in government started a campaign (not the first) to force him out. In March 1994 they succeeded. The ensuing disruption was not good for the institution, though a new Director was swiftly appointed. It is not the purpose of this paper to make comparisons.

Uganda

Uganda's protected areas were, until recently, managed by two organisations: the national parks were under the parastatal Uganda National Parks (UNP) while all wildlife matters outside them were under the Game Department (GD). Discussions about a merger began back in 1990 and the issue was studied as part of a FAO-supported project from 1991 to 1993. No action followed, despite a strong body of opinion in government that a merger would enhance efficiency and improve management of game reserves. In 1993 European Union consultants proposed immediate support to the merger process and this was taken up with a project which began in mid-1994. Government motivation to reform the wildlife sector is growing as tourism has emerged as a rapidly expanding sector of the economy. It has been growing much faster than predicted, albeit from a low level, and this has strengthened donor willingness to support the conservation and development of the protected area network.

A key decision in 1994 (taken by Cabinet, after an exhaustive review process) was to take a more radical approach than a simple merger, by creating a new institution, the Uganda Wildlife Authority (UWA), backed by a new Wildlife Act and recruiting its own staff (including some but not all of current UNP and GD employees). By September 1995 a series of workshops and consultancies had produced a policy framework and a draft Bill. GD has already ceased to exist, as part of a general government restructuring, and UNP will cease to exist when UWA is created. The UWA is scheduled to come into existence on 1 July 1996.

At the same time Uganda is decentralising to the districts a range of responsibilities in all sectors. Natural resources, including some wildlife outside national parks, game reserves and major forest reserves are affected by this decentralisation policy. This is discussed later in Section 3.3.

Tanzania mainland

Tanzania mainland has a complex array of institutions responsible for wildlife. There is one government department, the Wildlife Division, and five parastatals: Tanzania National Parks, College of African Wildlife Management, Serengeti Wildlife Research Institute, Tanzania Wildlife Corporation, and Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority. The Marine Parks and Reserves Act, passed in 1995, creates a seventh institution, the Marine Parks and Reserves Unit.

The Government of Tanzania has decided to reform the sector, because of the obvious need for rationalisation, retrenchment in the civil service, weakening financial capacity of government, donor pressure, and the emergence of new approaches to community and private sector participation. The intention to reform was stated in the National Conservation Strategy (drafted in 1994) and other sustainable development plans.

Mount Kenya
National Park,
Kenya. Photo: Paul
Goriup/Piscis
Nature Photos.



A major participatory review of the wildlife sector was started in 1994 by a team drawn largely from within the wildlife sector, supported by the African Wildlife Foundation and the World Wide Fund for Nature. The review analysed institutional strengths and weaknesses, developed three options for the future institutional set-up, and considered the pros and cons of each. Government is now considering the report before releasing it and, eventually, deciding on which option to follow.

Zanzibar

Zanzibar is part of the United Republic of Tanzania but for most sectors, including natural resources and environment, it has its own administration. Zanzibar's only terrestrial protected areas are forest reserves, of which two have been recognised in the 1990s as being primarily for nature conservation. They are managed by a government department, the Sub-Commission for Forestry, in the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Natural Resources (MALNR). Although much of the country's biological wealth is in the sea, its only marine protected area is a 300 metre wide privately run marine sanctuary around the islet of Chumbe. Other marine resources are the responsibility of the Sub-Commission for Fisheries.

Zanzibar's paucity of protected areas stems from a low awareness of the Isles' biodiversity, and concern about locking up resources in these densely populated Isles. However, opinions in Zanzibar have changed rapidly in the 1990s, in line with the global trend but stimulated by the creation of the Department of Environment, participation at the Caracas and Rio conferences, a fast-growing tourism industry, the influence of the President (Dr Salmin Amour), and the emergence of community groups determined to protect their natural resources from over-exploitation. Undoubtedly protected areas, especially marine parks, are coming soon.

In 1992 the Department of Environment initiated a multi-sectoral committee to study what kinds of protected areas and what kind of conservation institution would be appropriate for Zanzibar. Without the burden of an existing institution and its commitments, there is great scope for innovation. Various donors, notably the Global Environment Facility, have supported the work and by the end of 1994 the committee's recommendations were finalised. They proposed the formation of a semi-autonomous organisation, to undertake some or all of the management of protected areas on behalf of government. In early 1995 the recommendations met last-minute resistance from within MALNR but, after a delay and a request for some clarifications, it seems that the government will soon be ready to move ahead with this innovative approach, perhaps with some modifications.

Comparison of approaches to future protected area institutions

Central government institutional framework

The Kenya Wildlife Service was created by an amendment to the existing Act of Parliament, giving it authority over wildlife management nationally. This Act was drafted before the policy review and has consequently constrained KWS in some important areas, including wildlife utilisation and revenue generation. KWS has also been plagued by controversy over its degree of autonomy in respect of financial and personnel management, which depend on specific exemptions from the law governing parastatals. The government, which is passing on a \$60 million soft loan

to KWS as a grant, has genuine difficulty in granting KWS the freedom it needs for efficiency while retaining adequate guarantees of accountability. Resolution of the issue was not helped by tensions between KWS and the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife, whose staff is much smaller than that of KWS and includes a number of personnel rejected by KWS.

Another controversial area has been the role and composition of the KWS Board of Trustees, which are insufficiently defined in the Act. The Board has an important role to play in reviewing annual plans and accounts, approving major policy changes, providing general guidance and supervision through the Director, and promoting and defending the organisation's interests. In fact, the Board gradually built up towards such a role from a fairly passive start, but did not defend KWS against the political attacks in 1994. Its decision to get more involved in operational matters, recruitment, procurement and other management functions has also been questioned.

New legislation in preparation is expected to address these issues. It will leave intact the basic institutional framework, i.e. a single executing agency with a high degree of autonomy, answerable directly to the top of the relevant ministry.

The KWS set-up is similar to one of three institutional models put forward by the Tanzania sector review team. The other two are: several parastatals, each with distinct responsibility under a controlling government department; or a single parastatal under a controlling government department. One concern in reforming the sector is to ensure that the process does not jeopardise the achievements of Tanzania National Parks, which is the most effective of the parastatals. The Tanzania review focused on terrestrial protected areas. The newly created Marine Parks and Reserves Unit is under the Division of Fisheries, rather than the wildlife sector, so presumably it will remain separate.

Uganda is setting up an institutional framework similar to the Kenyan one, but with significant differences in process and policy, notably:

- The policy framework and the Act creating UWA are being drafted together, in advance of the creation of UWA.
- Both policy and Act are giving particular attention to institutional structure.
- Legal responsibility for control of 'vermin' (a schedule of pest species) is given to the districts.
- The composition of the UWA Board will give more weight to non-government stakeholders and professional business expertise.
- The Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities is a driving force for the creation of the new institution, raising confidence for a positive working relationship.

Zanzibar has the advantage of being able to create the protected area institution from scratch. Government is considering forming an organisation, the Zanzibar Nature Conservation Trust¹ (ZNCT), that would undertake some or all of the management of selected protected areas on behalf of government through individual management agreements. The Trust would essentially be a non-governmental organisation, with independent management, finances and operations. However, it

¹ The name of the organisation is not yet decided – it may be the Zanzibar Nature Conservation Trust or the Zanzibar Nature Conservation Society. The organisation expects to establish a trust fund, once it is operational, but it will be registered under the Societies Act and will be an implementing agency, so it is probably better to call it a Society.

would have government representation in its membership. Also, government along with other stakeholders such as the tourism industry and rural communities would have a voice on the Trust's Board of Trustees, as well as in management of individual protected areas. The Trust can operate under existing laws, but it will be much helped by new laws on environment and forestry, currently in preparation.

The creation of the Trust will not remove the conservation responsibilities of the Sub-Commission for Forestry and Sub-Commission for Fisheries, with whom it will collaborate. Rather, by delegating field duties in relation to protected areas, the government institutions should be better able to fulfil their mandates to conserve natural resources throughout the Isles. It is expected that the Trust will answer to a cross-sectoral body, including natural resources, environment and tourism sectors. That nature of that body is undecided.

With the government and other stakeholders working together within the organisation, the Trust offers a novel institutional model and takes the concept of partnership a step further. The proposed set-up reflects Zanzibar's strengths and weaknesses: for example, its cohesive communities, fast-growing tourism, and the government's severe shortages of money and personnel. It is likely that management by the Trust will be piloted in coastal/marine protected areas, because these are important for biodiversity and tourism and because the capacity of existing government institutions is weaker than for forests.

Internal institutional structure and strengthening

In each country the internal structures proposed for the protected area organisations reflect the increased importance accorded to community conservation, human resources development, financial management and revenue generation. They also shorten lines of command and emphasise horizontal communications.

KWS's structure included all those elements but was not clearly defined and varied in response to the availability of people and the immediate demands of KWS operations.

For certain key management positions KWS had difficulties in recruitment, despite offering competitive donor-funded contracts. The use of well-paid contract staff was thought to be necessary to implement KWS's work programmes but caused complications, including resentment among some permanent staff (a few permanent staff were later offered the option of dropping their permanent status and going onto comparable contracts); some of the contract staff may not have been that much better than the permanent. Most contract staff were too busy with implementation to contribute significantly to training.

KWS identified a need for greater and clearer delegation of authority to field managers, but progress towards this end has been limited. In its 1990 policy framework KWS planned to establish eight zones under Zonal Chief Wardens, with high decision-making authority. However, it was feared that the Zonal Chief Wardens may simply be an extra layer of expensive bureaucracy unless they had the authority and ability, and were regularly appraised for performance. Few senior wardens have the professional management skills. KWS therefore looked outside the wildlife sector, but even in Kenya excellent



KWS adopted a new logo that was deliberately less formal than comparable ones. In keeping with KWS practice, it was professionally designed through a PR company.

managers competent to manage widely dispersed field operations are few and expensive. Eventually KWS opted to move gradually towards a system of about 20 smaller zones, with a flexible approach to the delegation of authority to the warden in charge, according to the specific situation and personnel. This has gone slowly and, in retrospect, KWS could have been bolder in decentralising.²

A common theme in the KWS experience is that the best staff, in the field and at headquarters, were too busy to train or be trained. Herein lies one of the major lessons from the KWS experience: it is very difficult to implement major field projects and at the same time build institutional capability. It is harder still to reorient the whole institution at the same time. The best attempt to combine these tasks was the new "community wildlife service", which launched a complex new national programme, while undertaking a substantial training programme. However, even this effort had shortcomings and put great strain on the staff leading it, and on their technical assistance team.

The dilemma has no easy solution – if KWS had concentrated on institutional development before implementation, irreplaceable wildlife resources would have been lost and public feeling against protected areas and their destructive wildlife would have mounted. The conclusion is simply that the dilemma must be recognised and priorities set accordingly. In KWS's case, perhaps earlier priority should have been given to improving capability in basic management (job descriptions, training programmes, personnel management, financial systems, information systems) instead of, say, involving many staff in bureaucratic procurement procedures, and production of detailed work-plans and equipment lists, often rendered obsolete by over-optimism or funding delays. If KWS had known in 1990 that most donors would not deliver full funding until at least 1993, it would have set its early priorities differently. It was unfortunate that the Zebra book was weaker on finance and management strengthening than on technical aspects. The programme as a whole may have been too ambitious.

Uganda has made use of Kenya's experience in setting its own plans. UWA's structure gives due emphasis to the new functions and will have a system of five management zones. UWA will face greater constraints than KWS with regard to availability of skilled personnel for both senior management positions and specialist disciplines. Recognising that a well-designed organisational structure does not equate to competent people in post, Uganda plans, *before* UWA is created next July, to design recruitment priorities and procedures, and training and technical assistance programmes, especially at zonal level. As well as advance preparation, UWA has other advantages over KWS. It is not under the same pressure to act immediately to deal with a national wildlife crisis. And its donor funding appears to be building progressively in a timely way, whereas KWS was desperately short of funds for 2.5 years before launching into a pent-up burst of expenditure which stretched its management capacity to the limit. Nonetheless, there is a sense of urgency, in order to curb an unseemly rush to grant tourist concessions.

The Tanzania mainland and Zanzibar planners have given some consideration to internal structures, but will not go into detail until their respective governments

² A pilot zone is the marine parks and reserves. Over the past three years significant authority has been delegated to a Senior Warden, Mr Ali Kaka, with a positive effect on management standards. This has been further improved with the start in 1994 of a project funded by the Netherlands Government.

decide on the institutional frameworks. Tanzania's low level of private sector business and limited volume of university and college graduates reduce the available pool of senior managers and specialist personnel. Competition for the best people can be beneficial in the long run but disruptive in the short term. That is one reason why a stated objective in the ZNCT constitution is the development of conservation capability in Zanzibar as a whole.

Institutional arrangements for collaboration with districts and communities

All the countries are developing policies and programmes for community benefit and participation. In each case they are setting up a community conservation service to work with protected area neighbours and with people in other wildlife-rich areas. All aim to develop a cadre of field-based community experts but, to limit costs and avoid duplication of effort, will work through local agencies, both government and non-government, where feasible.

District authorities are important development decision-makers, especially in Uganda where there is a national decentralisation policy. Although most *responsibility* for wildlife will remain centralised, UWA will have great scope for delegating to districts the *authority* to undertake a range of wildlife management functions. Districts will have a large degree of control over their budgets, which arrive as block grants from central government so they will be able to spend money on wildlife management if they choose to. UWA will need to ensure that its protected areas are not isolated from district development – indeed, UNP has already set up local park advisory committees. It will take time to work out in practice the division of responsibilities and modes of cooperation between UWA and the districts. To help the process, there are plans for a pilot project in north-east Uganda, assisted by the Environment and Development Group and funded by the European Union; further support will also come through a GEF project.

Tanzania has regional and district wildlife officers, who receive technical guidance from the Wildlife Division but report to the head of local government. Tanzania's experience of this system in natural resources sectors has revealed problems. Local administrators have tended to be pre-occupied with the district's immediate need for revenue and the central government bodies (not just for wildlife) have been unable to discipline corrupt or inefficient local staff. Both Tanzania and Zanzibar have recently passed new local government legislation and are making local councils more democratic, which may provide opportunities to improve the role of local government in conservation.

In theory, Kenya also gives district authorities an important role in

Lesser Flamingo (Phoenicopaterus minor) at Lake Nakuru National Park, Kenya. Photo: Paul Goriup/Piscis Nature Photos.



development, though in practice, development budgets are certainly vetted ... and KWS has had mixed experiences in working with them. In many cases collaboration is good and memoranda of understanding on national reserve management have been signed. However, in one notorious case the relationship has been fraught with difficulties, which this paper will not analyse. The experience confirms that local authorities may be preoccupied with revenue and their priorities may differ from those of the conservation agency or of the communities around protected areas.

The East African countries have broadly similar approaches to establishing landowners' rights to use wildlife for profit, but differ in their arrangements for problem animal control (PAC). Political and public relations pressures to improve PAC are greatest in Kenya, especially where there are areas of high human population density within elephant ranges.

Institutions in other countries face less acute pressures. In Uganda control of 'vermin' is the one aspect of wildlife management for which responsibility has been given to districts under the decentralisation programme. However, the districts lack resources to take on the task, as they did in 1972 when they said they could not cope and handed the responsibility to the Game Department. The emerging UWA policy is to promote utilisation for profit, where feasible, and to help districts to delegate authority for PAC further to landowners and parishes, where incentive and traditional capacity exist. Thus UWA can limit its own personnel for PAC to a relatively small number of specially trained staff, who provide training and advice and occasional assistance (especially near to parks). They would also deal with non-vermin problem animals, that are outside use rights programmes.

As in Uganda, Tanzanian local governments have wildlife staff, who could be given responsibility for some PAC. There are good financial arguments for doing so, thereby enabling the wildlife authority to concentrate on its core business of protected area management. However, there are counter-arguments: public perception of protected areas and wildlife in general is influenced heavily by their immediate experience, which without good PAC is predominantly negative. Conflicts are likely to intensify as human populations expand, so the protected area authorities cannot ignore the need to help build human and financial capacity in whichever body has responsibility for PAC.

Countering negative attitudes caused by wildlife-people conflicts is a major reason for protected area institutions to adopt a more professional approach to public relations (PR). By 1993, KWS was searching for a PR specialist to generate more positive publicity, especially from its huge investment in developing a nationwide community programme. Had this been properly filled, it would have been harder for KWS' detractors to convey the impression through the press, in late 1993 and early 1994, that the institution and its Director cared more for animals than people. A PR specialist

*Rojewero River,
Meru National Park,
Kenya. Photo: Paul
Goriup/Piscus
Nature Photos.*



features in UWA's proposed structure and plans for the ZNCT list development of a PR strategy as an early priority.

Community involvement in management *within* protected area boundaries is still at an early stage and a variety of institutional arrangements are being tried out. Local advisory committees are established or planned in all the countries. Kenya has hitherto concentrated more on benefits than on participation. Uganda is testing active participation in management of certain forest parks. For example, Bwindi Impenetrable National Park now has memoranda of understanding with three parish-level resource user groups, allowing controlled use of resources in exchange for cooperation on forest protection. However, expansion to all 21 parishes neighbouring the park, and then to other parks, would have significant implications for the size of UWA's community conservation establishment in the field. It is too early to say whether this could be matched by reductions in the conventional park protection ranger force.

Mainland Tanzania's new Marine Parks and Reserves Act pioneers a legal requirement for local participation. It specifies institutional arrangements and procedures for Village Council participation in making plans, regulations and management decisions, for ensuring that villagers have a chance to comment, and for assuring local rights to use and benefit from park resources.

The constitution of the ZNCT has community participation and benefit as an objective, requires the Trust to set up mechanisms for community participation in management decisions, and provides for the creation of local NGOs under its umbrella. This is still theoretical but Zanzibar, with its small scale of operations, fresh start in protected areas, and strong communities already concerned about sustainability, has scope for innovation in community participation. Forthcoming conservation legislation in Zanzibar, Uganda and Kenya will also address local participation, perhaps putting specific mechanisms in subsidiary legislation rather than the main Act.

Institutional change to achieve financial sustainability

All the countries see the potential to generate funds for conservation by tapping the goodwill of tourists and the international community. KWS recognised early on the need to retain a higher proportion of the country's massive tourism revenue, while improving visitor services and diversifying into new sources of revenue, less dependent on the volatile tourism trade. KWS also recognised that government subventions could not and should not keep pace with its intended rate of growth, and that independence from state support was a desirable financial target. KWS has taken big steps towards this, particularly through increasing revenue from tourism – entry fee revenue trebled from US\$3 million in 1989/90 to \$9 million in 1991/92 and has continued to rise, more slowly, since then. It has to be said that these increases still leave a large gap between the institution's income and its growing operating costs.

Important institutional changes have been initiated, but obstacles have been met, as outlined below:

- Conversion of a government culture, in which staff are 'free' (i.e. paid centrally) and all managers are spenders, to a 'commercial culture', in which all staff think about earning income and maximising the cost-effectiveness of their conservation work. Progress has been limited. Such a fundamental change requires strong drive

from senior management, backed by modern management systems, especially cost-centred accounting and performance evaluation.

- Establishment of a Commercial Department, to develop revenue sources. It took a long time to find suitable foreign technical assistance to set up the department. The Board and the Ministry were at first suspicious of KWS's commercial ambitions and, even up to 1994, were questioning KWS initiatives, e.g. an improved marine park revenue system. It did not help that the 1989 amendment to the Wildlife Act, unlike the 1976 Act itself, omitted to mention commercial activities, either deliberately or accidentally. KWS also under-estimated the lead time for development of new revenue sources, so it still depends almost entirely on tourist entry fees.

- Recruiting commercial professionals from the private sector on competitive contracts (donor-assisted until KWS develops the capacity to pay such people market rates). Recruitment is going satisfactorily, albeit belatedly, and the team now face the challenge of proving their commercial worth.

- Employing a legal officer to renegotiate lodge leases, many of which had been granted on absurdly favourable terms by the predecessors of KWS. Some lodges have willingly renegotiated but others have refused.

- Setting up an internal audit section and anti-fraud systems. KWS has dramatically reduced, but not eliminated, fraud.

- Controlling the expansion of recurrent costs. The lack of a commercial culture contributed to a lack of discipline in recruitment. Staff numbers, having been reduced to 3200, rose again to over 4000 (including many rangers to deal with the poaching threat), so that KWS now faces a second round of redundancies. Managers' requests for new vehicles and equipment are made with little thought for recurrent cost implications. The community programme, including revenue sharing, is a major cost and is subject to external pressure to expand. The demand for KWS to collaborate with managers of other State areas, especially forest reserves and wetlands, is a high priority for biodiversity but could be a financial drain. In short, control of recurrent costs is a tough challenge.

- Giving priority for investment to revenue-earning parks. KWS has generally adhered to this but judgement of priorities is difficult, partly due to a lack of a rigorous approach to the setting of priorities. As mentioned above, activities such as PAC, education and forest conservation are important but costly to the institution.

Thus, KWS has increased revenue greatly, though its goal of financial self-sufficiency may have been illusory. Yet it still has a long way to go before it can claim to operate with commercial efficiency. Kenya's tourism industry is much bigger than that of its neighbours, for whom self-sufficiency may not be a realistic goal. Nevertheless, all face tight government budgetary constraints and will need to adopt similar measures to those taken by KWS. The issue of instilling a commercial culture is crucial – without it staff commitment to the other changes will be limited. Hitherto, the force for emphasising commercial sections in institutional structures has tended to come from external advisors and new recruits, rather than from the existing staff. The latter are rightly concerned that commercialisation, with which they are not familiar, should not be at the expense of conservation, to which they have long been committed. There has undoubtedly been resistance to this from the Board of Trustees, membership of which is dominated by public sector appointees, who generally have little experience of the private sector practices with which the institution has been trying to imbue itself.

Compared to Kenya, Uganda has a small tourism industry and less marketing expertise. Its national park network has recently expanded and there are game reserves where management has to be re-started from zero. Consequently, to fulfil its responsibilities, UWA will need government subventions for some years to come. To help justify this, UWA will identify and cost activities which are public services and cannot pay for themselves. The decision to make districts responsible for vermin control removes one costly public service from UWA. UWA could also reduce costs by a bold approach to delegating authority to manage wildlife outside national parks and game reserves. Uganda is also pioneering a conservation trust fund for Bwindi Impenetrable National Park and intends in future to develop a national trust fund or funds, as do Kenya and Zanzibar. Such trust funds may prove to be the only secure way for protected area agencies to meet running costs.

Tanzania mainland has a separate body, the Tanzania Wildlife Protection Fund (TWPF) under the Wildlife Division, which retains certain wildlife-generated revenue to pay for conservation activities. It could be reformed to provide better financing throughout the sector, or it could be absorbed into a new executive agency. Indications are that radical changes will not be made.

The ZNCT does not plan to receive government subventions, even at the start. It can afford this approach because:

- The Trust does not have to enter into a management agreement for a protected area, if it cannot identify a source of revenue to run the protected area (e.g. fees which the government authorises the Trust to charge, plus other sources).

- Zanzibar's protected areas will be relatively small, with low running costs, especially if the Trust's approach to partnership with communities and the tourism industry is successful.

- Zanzibar's tourism industry is growing fast, and its diving tourism product could be world class if properly managed, so financial self-sufficiency is a realistic aim.

- Zanzibar government finances are extremely limited and hotly competed for. It is better for the Trust to campaign for more funding for its principal government partners, who have important conservation responsibilities, than to bid for its own subvention.

Thus ZNCT could provide a fascinating experiment in financially sustainable protected area management, if it can win the necessary government commitment and goodwill.

Institutional initiatives to enhance the protected area network

East African protected area networks are deficient in some high diversity habitats, notably forests and wetlands. Uganda tackled the forests deficiency directly, by upgrading four forest reserves to national parks in the early 1990s, but not without an inter-institutional struggle which has hindered subsequent cooperation.

KWS adopted a different approach, negotiating with the Forest Department a 25 year Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) for joint management of most major indigenous forests and mangroves. KWS established the post of Forest Conservation Coordinator and started to develop forest conservation expertise in its planning section. The MoU is an important initiative and its pilot operations had dramatic effects in certain forests, notably Kakamega Forest Reserve, which was being rapidly destroyed until joint patrols started. In retrospect the MoU depends too much on

joint planning, which will inevitably take years given the institutions' limited capacities and other priorities. Planning is valuable but the MoU could have done more to facilitate practical cooperation between field staff in the absence of plans. KWS is also discussing a MoU with the Fisheries Department, to improve conservation of lakes, marine reserves and other marine areas.

In 1991 Tanzania mainland created Udzungwa national park, the first park in the highly endemic forests of the "Eastern Arc" mountains. The Forestry and Beekeeping Division has a Catchment Forestry section and has taken steps to strengthen natural forest conservation capability, in line with the Tanzania Forestry Action Plan.

After a decade of Finnish assistance, Zanzibar's Sub-Commission for Forestry is one of the best trained departments in government. In 1992 it created a special conservation section, responsible for natural forests, mangroves and wildlife. Capacity to manage the two key natural forests, Jozani and Ngezi, is being strengthened by Finnish and Austrian donor projects. Long-term sustainability is likely to depend on an agreement with the Trust or another arrangement for retaining revenue.

This brief account of protected area networks has concentrated on their institutional aspects. But improving the network also implies taking steps to ensure that an ever-greater proportion of the country's biodiversity is protected; that long-term viability of reserves is enhanced by the improved protection of adjacent areas; that industrial development projects and other external threats are minimised; and that greater attention is given to those areas that do not have the highest conservation status. Space does not permit an account of other kinds of innovation, e.g. community-owned protected areas, legally established buffer zones, participation in development planning, and use of environmental legislation to require impact assessments or put restrictions on development.

Generating momentum for institutional change

The momentum for change in East African protected area agencies has developed for a number of reasons. These have included changes in perceptions of the role of government and parastatal agencies; a tendency towards the restructuring and shrinking of the Civil Service; an increasing openness towards privatisation; and a realisation that the wildlife sector was performing very badly.

This last may have given the greatest impulse for change. Fifteen years of virtually uncontrolled poaching has led to a decline in confidence by the international community in the competence of East Africa's wildlife conservation professionals. Lack of international confidence was seriously damaging the tourist industry, and hence the economies, of the three countries.

In each of the three countries, the extent, the pace and the success of the

Cheetah (Acinonyx jubatus), Nairobi National Park, Kenya. Photo: Paul Goriup/Pisces Nature Photos.



change has been a function of the chemistry of the relationship between the essential participants in it: appropriate levels of political support; governments, as the legislators and the facilitators of policy change; leaders of the institutions, with the energy and vision to bring about the changes; staff willing to change; and donors willing to support the venture.

There is no doubt that in the first three years of its existence, the ingredients for this momentum were all in place in Kenya; what is less clear is their proportions. There was political support at the highest level. Government supported policy change, but did not enact new legislation, so that many radically new policies actually had no legal backing. During this time there was undoubtedly energy and vision in the leadership, though the serious problems of 1993 and 1994 were in part attributable to the fact that these very qualities led the institution into conflict with other sectors of, and interests within, the apparatus of the Kenyan state. A conclusion that may be drawn from these years is that the pace of reform in one institution is partially conditioned by the readiness for change elsewhere in government.

In Uganda the early demise of Game Department may give the impression that UWA is simply a new name for UNP. To make sure the reforms reach to the heart of the organisation, various measures have been suggested:

- Broaden high-level government participation in driving the reform process, by emphasising links to issues of high national profile, especially tourism development.
- Ensure that the UWA Board of Trustees has excellent business expertise and stakeholder representation.
- Ensure that recruitment of UWA staff is open and designed to attract new expertise into some key positions.
- Invest heavily in orientation of staff in the early days of UWA and in a systematic human resources development programme thereafter.

In Tanzania much depends on the institutional option chosen. If it retains most of the existing institutions, then this will be easily accepted by the sector but there may be a tendency to continue with business as usual. If radical reform is chosen, then it will need a stronger driving force. A distinctive product of Tanzania's participatory approach to the sector review has been the creation of a Task Force with a high degree of understanding of the issues. The Task Force could be an important internal force in implementing reform, but one caution is that few of its members have any private sector experience.

In Zanzibar much of the momentum for creating the Nature Conservation Trust has come from those who participated in the multi-sectoral planning. The Department of Environment made the early running, and the Sub-Commission for Fisheries and the tourism sector, both public and private, have become strong proponents. One positive outcome of the last-minute debate over ZNCT is that it has stimulated wider awareness and understanding of the proposed approach to protected areas. It has pushed the issue to Cabinet level, so the decision when it comes will be authoritative and give powerful initial momentum. Subsequent development will depend on the relationship forged between government and non-government stakeholders, especially the tourism industry and community leaders. If the non-government stakeholders participate strongly and good collaboration evolves, then the Trust could become a national institution unlike anything seen hitherto in Zanzibar.

Conclusions

Protected area institutions throughout East Africa are seriously engaged in preparing themselves for the 21st century. This paper has given a brief overview of the approaches being taken. Some themes are:

- Streamlining institutions and clarifying responsibilities. There is a trend towards autonomous agencies, with reduced government hands-on role.
- Reorganising internally into a more business-like structure. All recognise the need to acquire specialist skills, to improve management, and to prepare senior field staff for greater management authority.
- Balancing the need for institutional strengthening with the pressing demands for action in the field. Organisational objectives must be distinguished from implementation objectives and priorities judged.
- Building the capacity to work effectively and affordably with communities, through specialist staff and collaboration with other agencies. Approaches to community work are similar, except in regard to problem animal control, but the question of how best to pay for public services is unresolved.
- Building revenue earning capacity and cost-effectiveness of operations. While revenues from tourism have increased, the development of a commercial culture has been slow and there remains a massive task of reorientation and training.
- Seeking out partnerships with private sector, community groups and NGOs. This is beginning to be put into practice and there is abundant scope for expansion.
- Finding ways to improve the effective protected area network by inter-agency agreements, as well as by gazettelement and participation in wider development planning.

Each country has its own approach. Just as a species adapts to the ecosystem in which it lives, so the protected area institutions must adapt to the nation's society, government and policies. However, species also influence the ecosystems of which they are part, and protected area institutions can use their special advantages to lead the way in developing capable, accountable national bodies.

Further information

This paper attempts to give an overview but the authors' knowledge of each country is far from comprehensive. The Environment and Development Group, of which the authors are part, is willing to provide what information it can, but those interested in the subject are advised to contact the institutions directly. Some relevant documents are listed below. Perhaps a forum could be organised for the main actors in the East African institutions to meet and learn directly from each other's plans, actions and problems encountered.

Kenya Wildlife Service¹

The major policy study is the Zebra Book (*A Policy Framework and Investment Plan 1991-96*). A case study on KWS's Protected Areas and Wildlife Service project was prepared for IUCN and the Commission of the European Communities by R. Bensted-Smith in 1993. Paul Clarke wrote a study of KWS in 1994. A study of KWS as an example of a parastatal organisation was prepared for the US Forest Service and USAID by Robert E. Hall in 1995.

Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities²

The draft Uganda policy framework is being finalised by the Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities. A paper on plans for the institution is in preparation, with additional detail to be added prior to the creation of UWA in July 1996.

Tanzania Wildlife Division³

The sector review team has drafted a report which is being considered by the government. A tremendous amount of work went into the review and the report, when it is released, should be a highly informative and valuable document.

Zanzibar Department of Environment⁴

A consultant team under the GEF project produced in 1993 four separate, somewhat overlapping reports. The constitution of the ZNCT should be finalised as soon as the remaining issues have been agreed within government.

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Robert Bensted-Smith is a partner in the Environment and Development Group, Oxford, and a member of the IUCN Commission on National Parks and Protected Areas. He has been living and working in environmental conservation in East Africa for ten years. From 1989 to 1994 his time was divided between Kenya Wildlife Service and Zanzibar Department of Environment. He is presently based in Bububu, Zanzibar.

Stephen Cobb founded The Environment and Development Group in 1980. The Group specialises in the provision of advice to protected area agencies in tropical countries. He has been professionally involved in wildlife and protected areas in Africa since the early 1970s.

¹ Kenya Wildlife Service, PO Box 40241, Nairobi, Kenya.

² Uganda Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities, PO Box 4, Entebbe, Uganda.

³ Tanzania Wildlife Division, Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, PO Box 1994, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania.

⁴ Department of Environment, Commission for Lands and Environment, PO Box 811, Zanzibar, Tanzania.

The Bahamas National Trust: an option for protected area management

LYNN HOLOWESKO

This paper is based on the premise that governments cannot carry the full responsibility for conservation, and that in the future a diverse array of institutional arrangements will have to be devised to manage protected areas. In the Commonwealth of The Bahamas there is an interesting example of one such institution.

The National Parks of The Bahamas are owned, under several forms of tenure, and managed by the Bahamas National Trust, a non-governmental organisation with some quasi-governmental characteristics.

This paper covers the legal structure of the Trust, describes some of the varied ecosystems and habitats of the parks, outlines management policies, identifies funding sources, highlights some problems and offers a glimpse of the future.

THE BAHAMAS NATIONAL TRUST is a body corporate brought into being in 1959 by the Bahamas National Trust Act, Ch.355 of the Statute Laws of The Bahamas ("the Act"). Under the mandate given it by the Act the Trust is charged with promoting the permanent preservation for the benefit and enjoyment of The Bahamas, lands, buildings, submarine areas of beauty or natural or historic interest, and the preservation of their natural aspect, features, animal, plant and marine life.

The Trust has broadly interpreted these words, holding the view that a clean environment is the basic requirement to enable it to meet its responsibilities. Thus the Trust incorporates all environmental factors into its concerns, including pollution, toxic waste, run-offs and litter, among others.

By the Act, the Trust is given the right to hold, acquire, maintain, manage, and accept property in trust to further the objects for which it is created. Further, it "shall" advise government in matters concerned with Trust property "and the policy to be pursued for the preservation thereof and the means of enforcing the same" (Bahamas National Trust Act).

Finally, the Act gives the Trust power, as regards lands and submarine areas, to declare its property inalienable. The Act also gives the Trust power to make bylaws governing conduct within its properties. These powers are comprehensive and are set out in considerable detail.

The Trust may appoint officers or wardens for the protection of its properties or enforcement of its bylaws, and such persons shall have the power, authority and protection of a constable under the common law and under the provisions of the Act.

It is of interest to note the makeup of the Trust's governing body. The Council comprises three categories of members, not to exceed 21 persons. The Governor-General appoints two persons; the Ministers of Agriculture, Tourism, Health and Education, one each. Six appointments are given to organisations outside of the Commonwealth, bringing to Council a variety of disciplines: the US National Park Service, Smithsonian Institution, Audubon Society, American Museum of Natural

History, Rosenstiel School of Marine and Atmospheric Science and New York Zoological Society. Nine members of Council are elected annually from among the general membership. The Council meets at least annually, reviews the work of the Trust and establishes its policies.

The many advantages of being apart from government far outweigh other considerations. The first such advantage is flexibility; the ability to plan, to act, to hire outside of the civil service and to decide from time to time which areas require immediate attention or long range planning, and which vacuum needs filling. The second advantage is autonomy, to be able to act outside of political or social constraints, and solely in accordance with the mandate of the Act.

The work of the Trust is extensive, covering National Parks and protected area management, wildlife protection, research, environmental concerns, historic preservation, school education programmes, public education, land use planning, and advice and assistance to government on these and a variety of other issues. For example the Trust spearheaded the initial proposal for a National Conservation Strategy. It found the funds to hold workshops and write the first proposal. The final draft of the strategy was revised in November 1995 and should be presented to Cabinet in 1996.

Also the Trust, in conjunction with IUCN, organised the Biodiversity Forum, held at the First Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity. The Trust also served on the organising committee for the conference itself.

National Parks

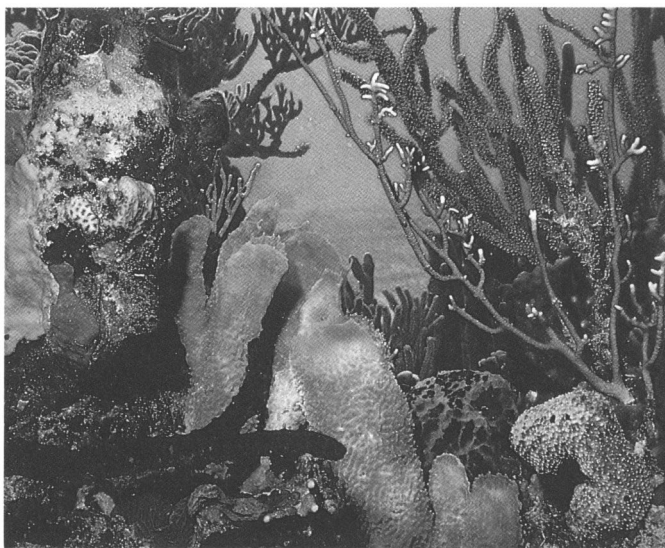
The Bahamian National Park system comprises more than 130,000 ha (320,000 acres). The largest park, Inagua National Park, is 74,390 ha (183,680 acres); the smallest about 0.5 ha (just over 1 acre). There are 12 parks presently under Trust management, and government has in hand recommendations for extensive additional areas to ensure representativeness of all ecosystems within the country. Included in the latter is the Andros Barrier Reef, a well kept national secret: the third largest, but perhaps the most biologically diverse, barrier reef in the world.

The Exuma Cays Land and Sea Park, comprising 45,620 ha (112,640 acres), was the first land and sea park established anywhere in the world. The land area is semi-dry coppice to dry scrub vegetation; coral reefs are extensive and varied; mangrove creeks and inland brackish ponds, freshwater wells and ocean holes are contained within the park.

A wide variety of sea birds and waders inhabit the park, as well as iguanas and the only endemic mammal, the hutia, which was translocated to the park by the Trust, and now thrives on two cays.

There is considerable impact by tourists, who travel through open seas to the Park on their own boats, making

Coral reef in Exuma Cays Land and Sea Park. Photo: G. Carleton Ray.



management difficult. Additionally, because of recent expansion in the fishery regulations of the country to allow compressor assisted spear-fishing, the Trust took a decision to prohibit all fishing and the collection of living or dried animal, plant or marine life within the park.

After a period of resistance from both recreational visitors to the park and local fishing communities which live on its borders, there has been an increase in support for this position, boosted in no small measure by the noticeable increase in fish returning to the reefs.

The Inagua National Park, located on the southern-most island of the 700 island chain, is internationally recognised as the site of the world's largest breeding colony (approximately 60,000) of West Indian flamingos. Just outside of the flamingo rookeries is the Union Creek reserve, an 18 km² tidal creek which serves as a research site for sea turtles, especially the green turtle. The park is home to a vast array of wading and shore birds, feral donkeys, and the Bahamian Amazon parrot. It is protected by full-time wardens, and is a valuable research and educational centre. A rudimentary camp within the park houses 12 visitors. No plans are being made to expand its capacity.

The Lucayan Caverns National Park, located on the northern island of Grand Bahama, contains a mangrove walk, recreational beach, endemic orchids, and features the world's most extensive underwater cavern system, last surveyed at over 10 km of galleries.

An entirely different kind of park is located on New Providence island. The Retreat is a 4.5 ha (11 acre) garden of rare palms and native Bahamian coppice. It is one of the largest private collections of palms in the world. Its grounds also house the administrative offices of the Trust in a small, late 19th century

plantation building. The gardens are a valuable tool in conservation education, and the grounds are extensively used by both the public and private sectors.

Management policy

The Trust has published a general policy statement for its National Parks, which recognises that each park is a complex mix of values and resources with its own unique qualities and purposes, requiring specific treatment in the development and implementation of management strategies and operational budgets. The Trust also established a general management plan, including regulations and enforcement, implementation of park programmes, resource management, guidelines for research, visitor use, interpretation and education.

Enforcement in the parks is based on the principle that education should preclude the need for enforcement, but

*The Retreat
Gardens. Photo:
Margaret Langlois.*



provides that park regulations and bylaws will be enforced as necessary by wardens, both professional and honorary, or by any law enforcement officer of the Commonwealth.

Funding

Until very recently, the Trust depended entirely on three annual sources of funds to promote its objectives: membership subscriptions, a small government grant, gifts and donations. The annual budget of the Trust grew almost ten-fold in fifteen years.

In 1985 the Heritage Fund was launched as a carefully planned alternative to a hand-to-mouth existence which was sapping the energies of the already strained human resource base of the Bahamas National Trust. Although not a closed fund, the original goal of US\$3 million was reached four years later in 1989. The fund was designed as an endowment, and as such is a perpetual source of interest-income for Trust administration and projects. The fund is fully invested in Bahamas Government Stock, US stocks, bonds and mutual funds. It contributes more than \$270,000 to the Trust's annual budget.

The Trust has recently been given a million dollar bequest, allowing the Heritage Fund to grow from three to four million dollars. The Trust is hoping to design a programme to move towards the five million dollar mark as quickly as possible, as it depends on the income earned from investments to implement its programmes.

Future challenges

Within the Bahamas the historical vision of the country as a tourism destination has previously been that of a Caribbean Monte Carlo, ignoring the fact that the country's most valuable resource is its uniquely lovely environment. This perception led to development in undesirable directions.

The Bahamas' legal system is based on common law. It promotes order and development, and encourages foreign investment. But there are intense social and political pressures to expand development in sensitive areas, thereby providing employment for the approximately 20% of the population which is unemployed. These demands have also influenced land use planning and resource management, resulting in severe straining of freshwater resources and fisheries among others, and further complication of waste disposal problems.

The country's educational system is perhaps weakest in the sciences, accounting in no small measure for a widespread lack of understanding and appreciation of environmental concerns. This lack of training has also created a gap in the work force dealing with environmental management, leading to reliance on costly foreign expertise.

*Reddish egret
(Hydranassa
rufescens), in white
phase, at Inagua
National Park.
Photo: Gary Larson.*



All of these problems are further and vastly complicated by illegal immigrants from Haiti, which accounted for 25% of persons in a recent census of the Bahamian population.

These issues help to explain why the Bahamas National Trust has been compelled to stretch its resources to the limits, and beyond. The new Prime Minister of The Bahamas has made it clear that he values the advice of the National Trust in environmental matters. This has led to frequent consultation and new responsibilities in sustainable development matters.

It also has to be emphasised that the new government is keenly concerned about the environment and aware of its responsibilities both nationally and internationally. In its Manifesto for the 1992 election campaign, it published a strong environmental section and pledged to make development in The Bahamas sustainable in the future. A number of steps have been taken in this regard. The Bahamas is the first government in a developing country to appoint an Ambassador for the Environment, and has established The Bahamas Environment, Science and Technology Commission to coordinate all environmental activities in the country, to design strategies for maintaining biodiversity and developing the country in sustainable ways, and to recommend policies based on those strategies to the Cabinet for approval. The Commission also has as its mandate the furtherance of science and technology for the advancement of the Bahamian people.

The Trust is invited to act as a coordinating body for environmental matters within the country, serving on several government advisory boards, and consulting with national and international agencies at government's request, e.g. CITES and the Interamerican Development Bank. This is within its capability and mandate. However, because clean air and abundant fisheries, pristine islands and cays still abound generally in the Caribbean, albeit not in the numbers of 30 years ago, they are generally taken for granted, and are under-valued by the people.

In the Caribbean generally, where environmental issues are not at the top of a country's priority list, non-governmental organisations must take up the resulting challenge. These responsibilities demand and rely on greater support, both nationally and internationally.

Exuma Cays Land and Sea Park.

left:
*Schooling grey
snappers. Photo:
Bahamas National
Trust.*

right:
*Installing a floating
sign. Photo: Lynn
Holowesko.*



IUCN/CNPPA, WWF and other institutions have acknowledged the role of non-governmental organisations as institutional options for park and protected area management. Should not international funding institutions do the same?

It is also felt that international financial resources ought not be poured exclusively into undeveloped countries. There is a case to be made for internationally-based financial and technical support of those institutions, particularly in the Caribbean region, which are contributing substantially to aspects of protected area management of vital concern to the international focus on biodiversity conservation and sustainable development.

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Trends in Australian protected area management

BRUCE LEAVER AND ASHLEY FULLER

State and national government 'national parks' institutions and nature conservation reserve systems were established in Australia in the late 1960s and early 1970s. These national parks agencies operated as discrete arms of government, each with a charter to reserve land and conserve flora, fauna and representative natural systems. During the 1980s a range of social, environmental, political and economic issues emerged which significantly changed the focus of park management, the role of parks in the land management spectrum and the operation and structure of national parks agencies.

Changes in day to day management have also occurred because of increasing community involvement in nature conservation management, the recognition of a significant economic dimension in national parks (stimulated by tourism) and the contribution of Aboriginal Australians to park management programmes. The national government has also influenced conservation management in the states through its commitments under international treaties and conventions.

Despite this, there is a tendency for national parks and other land management agencies to retain traditional institutional structures and identities.

It is suggested that it is timely to de-institutionalise land management and establish a protected area management and planning system that is based on the protection and management of the values of the lands concerned and not derived from an agency's charter. Such a system would provide the means for all government land management agencies to undertake their responsibilities but would not be 'owned' by any agency in particular. It would also provide avenues for participation in management by different levels of government and community groups established for this purpose.

AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL PARKS and reserves systems, with the exception of two national parks, are established and managed by state and territory governments. Kakadu and Uluru-Kata Tjuta (Ayers Rock) National Parks in the Northern Territory are established and managed under national government (Commonwealth Government) legislation. The title national park is just one of many applying to nature conservation reserves in the states and territories.

The Commonwealth and each state and territory has legislation which establishes a system of nature conservation reserves that is managed by a government land and natural resource management agency or a discrete national parks agency.

The institution of a separate national parks agency has a history of some thirty years in Australia. In 1967 the state of New South Wales established Australia's first National Parks and Wildlife Service. This organisation was based on the US National Parks Service model, adopting similar organisational concepts and traditions. Other Australian states and territories followed suit and by the mid 1970s the various jurisdictions had established parks and wildlife agencies. In 1975 the national government enacted the Commonwealth National Parks and Wildlife Conservation Act and established the Australian National Parks and Wildlife Service. The park management elements of this agency, however, are responsible only for parks in Commonwealth territories, except those in the Australian Capital Territory which has its own parks and wildlife organisation.

Agents of change

Emerging environmental issues

During the 1980s a range of conservation issues replaced national park establishment as the primary focus of government environmental policy. Governments were, and continue to be, faced with an overwhelming array of pressing environmental issues such as the greenhouse effect, ozone depletion, extensive salinisation of farmland, desertification, degradation of river systems, rural tree decline, the spread of exotic species, and a high level of debate about forestry activities in native forests. Issues such as biodiversity conservation and ecologically sustainable development generated considerable national debate and discussion.

These issues soon dominated policy development and in 1989, at the national level, initiated the merger of the Council of Nature Conservation Ministers with the Australian Environment Council to form the Australia and New Zealand Environment and Conservation Council, a new national forum for considering this wide range of environmental issues.

Awareness of broad environmental issues and the necessity to address them in a coordinated way was reflected in changes in the organisational structures of state governments. In all but one state, the separate park agency institutions were combined with large government departments having a range of environmental and natural resource management responsibilities. The process of agency amalgamation and consolidation was accelerated by forced efficiencies arising from the sharp contraction in the size of the public sector in the economic recession. New South Wales is the only state to retain a separate park management agency.

A wider role for reserve systems

The establishment of reserves managed by state national parks agencies in the 1970s was a reflection of the conservation concerns of the time. Community concerns about the loss of native vegetation communities and the decline of some plant and animal species were a great impetus for the establishment of national parks as areas representative of a state's natural systems. An expanding national parks system was the cornerstone of state government conservation policy. Election manifestos invariably included the establishment of some new national park as a demonstration of a political party's conservation credentials.

In the early years of the establishment of reserve systems, national park and nature reserve were the main types of reserve. These two categories provided for the conservation of a broad sweep of scenic, recreational and environmental values. As general awareness of specific conservation and environmental protection issues increased, governments responded by establishing other categories of reserve to address community concerns and to fulfil particular nature conservation needs.

*Southwest National
Park, part of the
Tasmanian
Wilderness World
Heritage Area,
Tasmania, Australia.
Photo: Grant Dixon.*



Reserves large and small were established to protect a range of natural and cultural values, not necessarily representative nor intact natural systems. The great salt lakes of inland South Australia were brought into that state's reserve system. Previously unallocated public land of little value to surrounding pastoral interests, these vast salt lakes were worthy of protection for their habitat and other values. Another important initiative, which significantly expanded the reserve system in South Australia, was the establishment of a reserve category that accommodated natural resource exploitation. This enabled the government to include and manage, within a 23 million hectare reserve system, vast tracts of public land of high conservation value in which mineral exploration or pastoralism were established resource uses.

Australia's public reserve systems now include over 40 categories that provide for the protection and management of wilderness areas at one end of the scale of human intervention to land managed for both nature conservation and the sustainable use of natural resources at the other.

The concept of reserves systems as 'islands of excellence' was seen as less appropriate as the range of conservation issues and community concerns gave rise to the establishment of reserves to address a range of nature conservation needs. This approach to nature conservation extends the concept of a reserve system beyond that of being comprised only of representative natural systems to one that includes any land in which nature conservation is the appropriate land use. The fact that particular natural systems may be 'over-represented' in such a reserve system is irrelevant.

This broadened concept of reserve systems is described in this paper as the 'not only but also' concept – not only the representative but also the appropriate. This concept embodies two fundamental principles: that nature conservation is the most appropriate form of land use in many lands, not just those that are pristine or

representative; and a form of the precautionary principle, that land has inherent biodiversity values until proven otherwise.

The land management spectrum

As the severity of environmental issues such as desertification and water catchment degradation became more pressing, it became apparent to governments and the community that conservation of nature and natural resources extended beyond park boundaries. The establishment of reserves as the sole, or even primary, means of addressing conservation commitments was increasingly regarded as an inappropriate and inadequate response to broader environmental concerns.

In response to a broader range of environmental issues, various pieces of

An ant-hill in Lakefield National Park, Northern Territory, Australia. Photo: Grant Dixon.



legislation were enacted for such purposes as native vegetation clearance controls, soil conservation, protection of coastal environments and water catchments, and the introduction of ecological sustainability principles to the management of land uses such as pastoralism.

Conservation programmes on private land initiated by the implementation of this legislation were complementary to the nature conservation function of reserve systems. Reserve systems are just one part, albeit an extremely important one, of the land management spectrum.

The implementation of legislation initiating conservation measures across the land tenure spectrum had a marked effect on the operation of land management agencies. In addition to their park management function, land managers assumed a wide range of responsibilities and, correspondingly, were required to have a much wider range of skills and expertise. These significantly expanded responsibilities occurred at the same time as agencies were subjected to cost cutting measures. The imposition of efficiencies during this period of expanded responsibility stimulated greater efforts towards inter-agency cooperation to minimise duplication and maximise resources.

Negative community attitudes towards parks

In Australia, the pressure for strong government nature conservation policies primarily comes from urban constituencies. The establishment of parks, however, became increasingly unpopular with rural communities who viewed the establishment of a national park in their region as an imposition by urban conservationists and a constraint on their historical 'rights' of access and use of natural resources. This resentment was compounded when inadequate resources were allocated to manage the parks. Limited resources for the management of parks and a lack of conspicuous management programmes, such as weed control and fuel reduction, exacerbated local resentment and caused nearby farmers to regard the parks as the source of wildfire, feral animals and weeds. A wildfire causing loss of property and stock, whether or not it started in a park, will always generate an angry and emotional response from rural communities and related political groups.

The establishment of parks also stimulated intense public debate in relation to economic activity and benefits foregone. The establishment of parks generally precluded activities such as forestry, mining, pastoralism and hydro-electric power generation. These land uses were, and still are, seen by some sectors of the community as more important than nature conservation. Land use debate was divisive, polarising urban and rural communities. Even though the economic benefits of other land uses have often been replaced many times over by those of an expanding nature based tourism sector, the sense of alienation generated by the establishment of parks is still deeply felt in many parts of rural Australia and is strongly reflected in the political arena.

The resentment felt by many rural communities for park establishment has reduced in recent years because of employment opportunities in parks created in response to expanding regional tourism and its focus on natural and cultural heritage in parks.

Community participation in park management

Opportunities for employment of local people in the management of parks have been a major factor in increasing rural community acceptance of parks. The

adoption of flexible recruitment policies coupled with the return of revenue from visitor services and facilities directly to park management programmes has enabled park managers to develop and foster a pool of permanent and casual visitor management staff drawn from local communities. This initiative has provided a much needed stimulus to a number of depressed rural economies and has been a successful mechanism for increasing understanding in rural communities of the range of issues involved in park management.

Increasing community awareness of environmental degradation and interest in remedial action has also been a significant driving force for community involvement in park management. Consultative arrangements enabling local citizens and interest groups to participate in park management decisions have been developed in many regions across Australia. In some areas this involvement has extended to responsibility for day to day management under the aegis of the park management agency. This community based participation in land management has extended to other environmental management programmes. Bodies involved in 'landcare' and revegetation schemes have become common.

Community interest in land management is now so strong that there is an increasing trend by community based groups to use both legal and political processes to ensure their aims are achieved. This level of community involvement highlights the need for governments to ensure that appropriate legislative and policy mechanisms to accommodate this involvement are in place, that nature conservation management principles and objectives are clearly defined and have a statutory basis and that day to day management is based on adopted plans of management.

Contribution of Aboriginal Australians to nature conservation management

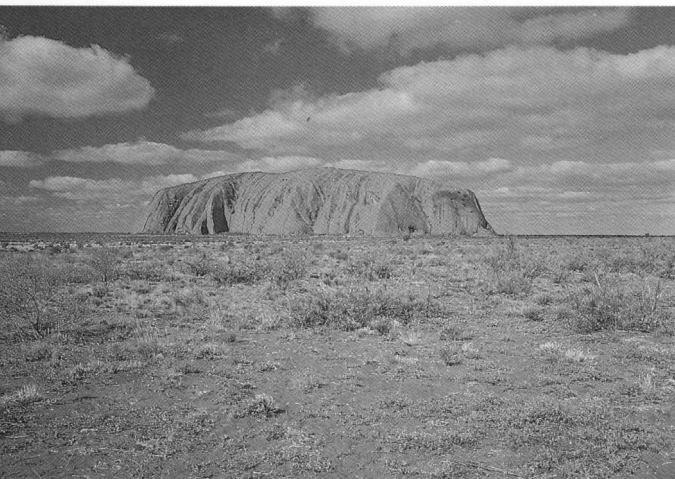
Understanding of the importance of land to Aboriginal Australians and of their interest and potential contribution to the management of the natural environment has increased in recent years. Many parks coincide with traditional lands and traditional land management skills often complement park management needs.

The interests of Aboriginal Australians have been recognised in the granting of land rights over certain areas of Australia (including some national parks), the establishment of park ranger training programmes, cooperative management arrangements, employment and other commercial arrangements relating to the presentation and interpretation of cultural and natural heritage.

Parks as an economic resource

Many of Australia's parks, like well-known parks all over the world, have become popular tourist destinations and a significant focus for tourism marketing. This interest in natural and cultural heritage has created an important role for parks to play in an important sector

Uluru-Kata Tjuta
National Park (Ayers
Rock), Northern
Territory, Australia.
Photo: Grant Dixon.



of the Australian economy. Parks and other protected natural areas have become an economic resource as well as an ecological and genetic resource.

Increased tourist activity in parks and other protected areas has stimulated the development of creative funding arrangements for the provision of visitor services and facilities. Historically, expensive infrastructure requirements in parks have been met from annual park budgets, invariably at the cost of nature conservation priorities. A new approach to the funding of infrastructure has involved the direction of revenue generated from visitors to popular sites towards the management of those sites. Rather than allowing visitor impacts to create a budget priority for management works, park managers have borrowed capital against anticipated revenue to ensure that the proper infrastructure was in place to prevent environmental damage.

This funding system has enabled managers to direct the limited nature conservation dollar towards specific nature conservation priorities and, at the same time, to provide a quality tourism product in keeping with the values of a park.

The role of the private sector in park management

Determining the balance between public and private sector provision of park visitor facilities has always been a contentious issue in park management. There has been a trend towards concessionaire operations in parks strongly influenced by a boom in the tourist industry and a specific focus on Australia's well known parks such as the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park, and Kakadu and Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Parks.

The pressure of visitors and the need to provide high quality experiences that do not lead to environmental degradation have been strong imperatives for the development of management structures and arrangements that accommodate private sector involvement and ensure nature conservation management objectives are met. Successful outcomes have led to a partnership that has reduced visitor management pressure and allowed park managers to devote more time and resources to nature conservation priorities. This success has been achieved where private sector participation in park management has been prescribed in management plans.

Hinchinbrook Island National Park, Queensland, Australia (part of the Great Barrier Reef World Heritage Area). Photo: Grant Dixon.

Influence of international obligations on nature conservation management

An important influence on the management of parks in Australia arises from Australia's obligations and commitments under various international treaties and conventions. Commitments such as the UNESCO Man and the Biosphere Programme and the World Heritage Convention, the Ramsar Convention and migratory birds agreements have provided an avenue for increased Commonwealth Government participation in the coordination and oversight of nature



conservation management in the states and has brought an international perspective to state management programmes.

In meeting its international obligations the Commonwealth Government has also provided a means by which the views and concerns of citizens across Australia may be taken into account in the identification and protection of natural and cultural heritage. There is no formal administrative or constitutional mechanism whereby a citizen of one State may have input to decision making regarding the protection or management of areas of national significance located in another State. A resident of the state of Western Australia, for example, has no formal avenue for expressing his or her views regarding the protection and management of the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park, a World Heritage listed property in Queensland.

Through the exercise of its external affairs and trade regulation powers in the Constitution, the Commonwealth Government has established pathways that enable it to influence or override state land management responsibilities. The inscription of areas on the World Heritage List and the fulfilment of its obligations under the World Heritage Convention, and the attachment of conditions to the issue of licences for the export of woodchips from native forests, are two avenues for the expression of national interests and concerns regarding the management of state resources.

National parks institutions at the crossroads

The extent of change in conservation management structures and operations has been considerable. The economic downturn in the 1980s led to major contractions in the level of public resources available for nature conservation management despite an urgent need for greater resources to address a wide range of environmental issues. Contracting resources stimulated organisational restructuring and efficiencies that would have been unthinkable in the previous decade.

Most national parks agencies are now part of larger environment and natural resource management departments. The agencies no longer have a single focus on the management and protection of reserves and do not operate as a separate institution nor under a single piece of legislation.

National parks agencies are not the only government agencies that provide nature conservation management services. They are involved in a wide range of conservation and visitor management programmes on and off reserves and their land management responsibilities complement, overlap and, at times, compete with those of other land use and natural resource agencies such as forestry, water supply, marine, pastoral, agricultural and mining. Competition between agencies is reflected in debate, internal and public, about the relative merits of a particular agency's approach to nature conservation.

Despite their amalgamation with larger land management departments and wider land management role, most of the national parks agencies still present their organisation and responsibilities as a distinct arm of government through their day to day functions as field managers and the maintenance of institutional symbols such as a uniform and a logo. The prominence of such symbols promotes continuing public recognition of 'National Parks' as a discrete government organisation. This recognition, however, has become increasingly blurred as the public observe different agencies carrying out similar functions under different institutional banners.

In addition to their expanded land management role, the operation of national parks agencies has been influenced considerably by the involvement of community

Table 1. Reserve categories in the proposed Tasmanian Protected Lands Classification System.

<i>Tasmanian Protected Lands Classification System</i>	<i>IUCN equivalent</i>
Nature Reserve	Category Ia <i>Strict Nature Reserve</i>
Wilderness Area	Category Ib <i>Wilderness Area</i>
National Park	Category II
State Park	<i>National Park</i>
Natural Feature Reserve	Category III <i>Natural Monument</i>
Nature Reserve	Category IV <i>Habitat/Species Management Area</i>
Cultural Landscape	Category V <i>Protected Landscape/Seascape</i>
Game Reserve	Category VI
Conservation Area	<i>Managed Resource Protected Area</i>
Regional Reserve	
Landscape Reserve	
Nature Recreation Reserve	
State Forest	Unclassified
Historic Site	
Aboriginal Reserve	
Public Reserve	

interest groups, Aboriginal people and the private sector. This involvement has encouraged greater community support for parks and appreciation of park management issues. It has also increased the work load and the financial and staff management skills required of park managers.

The shift in focus of land management and changing community expectations have 'stranded' national parks agencies, and indeed other government land management agencies, in institutional structures, created in the 1970s, that are now required to cope with the demands of the 1990s.

A new direction

The state of Tasmania is currently reviewing its public land management system. The Tasmanian Public Land Use Commission is conducting an inquiry into the classification and management of public land. The Commission's brief is to develop a clearer and simpler classification system.

The land area of Tasmania is approximately 67,000 km². Public land comprises about 50% of the state, 28% of which is in national parks and other reserves. There are over 100 different reserve classifications derived from five pieces of legislation and associated with the operation of different government agencies. There are many instances where different classifications have been applied for similar purposes and where as many as five classifications apply to the one parcel of land.

The Commission has considered the historical issues and contemporary pressures relating to public land and has proposed a protected lands classification and management system that it considers will meet contemporary land management needs. The basic elements of that system are 15 reserve categories which are based on the IUCN Protected Area Categories System (see Table 1). The Commission has proposed that the 15 categories be incorporated in a Protected Lands Management Act in which the reserve category definitions, management objectives and planning processes are the driving forces for its implementation, not particular agencies.

Four of the proposed Tasmanian categories are listed as 'unclassified' in relation to the IUCN system because they do not meet IUCN definitions and criteria. In Tasmania, however, these four categories meet particular needs and will apply to land and places that have natural and cultural values worthy of protection.

A significant feature of the proposed legislation is that it is not identified with, or attached to, any particular agency or institution of government. The land management and planning system established in the legislation will provide a framework which can be drawn upon by the various conservation and natural resource agencies of government and other levels of government. The allocation of management responsibilities will be made by government, from time to time, on the basis of prevailing organisational arrangements and policies.

The proposed legislation recognises community interest in nature conservation management, not only in planning but in the enforcement of standards and, in specified circumstances, day to day management.

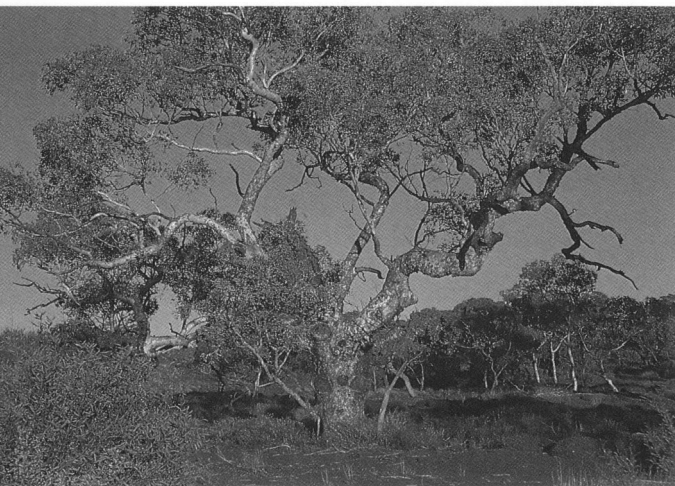
The key land management features of that legislation are summarised:

- An overriding obligation to manage areas according to the principles of ecologically sustainable development and biodiversity conservation.
- Links with other state land use planning legislation and policy through the principles of ecologically sustainable development and biodiversity conservation.
- Definitions of each category.
- Objectives of management for each category.
- An open and accountable planning process that includes public consultation.
- A prescribed forum for a range of interest groups, including community, conservation, tourism, Aboriginal, to be directly involved in park management.

■ Citizens access to a legal mechanism to ensure compliance with management objectives and management plans.

The Public Land Use Commission suggests that the protected lands management system will establish a system whereby land will be protected and managed under a classification appropriate to its natural, cultural or economic values, and not according to agency associations or historical precedent. For example, a forestry agency with a charter to protect non-wood values on land outside logging areas would be able to adopt an appropriate category and manage the land accordingly.

Marble gum tree in the Unnamed Conservation Park, Great Victoria Desert, Australia (unnamed because no appropriate Aboriginal name could be determined). Photo: Rob Lesslie.



This de-institutionalised system, the Commission believes, will sidestep agency 'ownership' issues, facilitate a clear focus on the achievement of management objectives and provide a land management structure relevant to the turn of century and beyond.

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Cooperation between NGOs and government: a successful experience in Peru

GUSTAVO SUAREZ DE FREITAS

Since the beginning of the 1980s many Latin America and Caribbean countries have seen an increasing level of cooperation between private and volunteer organisations and national governments in the management of protected areas. These models of cooperation vary from country to country; and even in one country several approaches may occur. This paper presents an account of a successful and continuing experience of cooperation between the Peruvian Foundation for the Conservation of Nature (ProNaturaleza) and the National Administration for Natural Protected Areas.

AT THE BEGINNING of the 1980s the Peruvian National Administration for Natural Protected Areas was incorporated within the National Forestry Sector, and was made responsible for the management of the National System of Conservation Units (Sistema Nacional de Unidades de Conservación – SINUC). At that time SINUC included 21 protected areas in four management categories: National Parks (equivalent to Category II, IUCN 1994), National Sanctuaries (Category III), Historical Sanctuaries (Category III) and National Reserves (Category VIII).

In 1984, of the existing 21 protected areas in the system, only 11 were managed, and even this involved only a minimum level of personnel either from the national parks authority or other levels of the government. In the case of two units, the Manu National Park and the National Reserve Pacaya Samiria, their administration was by sub-national government, another two were managed under the Vicuña Project. At that time, the government budget for protected areas started to decline, just when it was recognised that the national system of protected areas required expansion, both in terms of number of areas and management capacity.

Thanks to the positive vision from the Forestry and the National Administration for Natural Protected Areas, a strong effort was made to obtain support from international conservation agencies and to involve private national organisations. The first step in this direction was taken in 1983 with the creation of an IUCN/WWF Committee in Support of Conservation Projects in Peru (CAPC). This included the General Direction for Forestry and Wildlife, the General Direction for Conservation of the National Forestry Institute (INFOR), the Department of Forestry Management from La Molina National Agrarian University (DMF-UNALM) and a representative from IUCN. The committee mobilised resources from the existing joint IUCN/WWF project unit, mainly to assist the Manu National Park, the Paracas National Reserve and the Lagunas de Mejia National Sanctuary. To formalise this mechanism of cooperation, a non-governmental organisation, the Peruvian Foundation for the Conservation of Nature (FPCN), was established. This institution undertook the project management responsibilities previously handled by CAPC.

Since its establishment, FPCN (now named ProNaturaleza) cooperated with projects funded by WWF, and rapidly developed new proposals and initiatives. Cooperation received from WWF and The Nature Conservancy (TNC) was critical

in the initial phases. All their efforts came together to work towards the development of both projects and institutions. This was coupled to an effective Peruvian System of Natural Protected Areas.

What has been done?

Initially ProNaturaleza took over the work of CAPC, mainly mobilising funds for protected area management. Emphasis was placed on project design and planning of protected areas, promoting the participation of different stakeholders. Through increased knowledge of the protected area system, the Foundation became better able to identify needs, to define conservation priorities, and to formulate new project proposals.

The initial suite of projects addressed the needs of those key protected areas which already had some administration and personnel, such as Manu, Huascaran and Paracas, thus providing equipment, infrastructure development, training, and technical support on protected area planning and management. However, many arrangements were put in place for other protected areas that lacked any effective management regime at that time. Priority areas were identified on the basis of a report prepared by the Peruvian Data Centre for Conservation (1986). As a result the management for four protected areas (two National Parks and two National Sanctuaries) and the management of one National Park and one National Reserve was gradually strengthened.

As a result, at present 15 of the 25 protected areas which form the National System are under some level of management in the field. Of these 15 areas, ProNaturaleza provided major inputs to six, including personnel and funding for operations; four received complementary support to reinforce government activities, and another four are receiving increasing management attention.

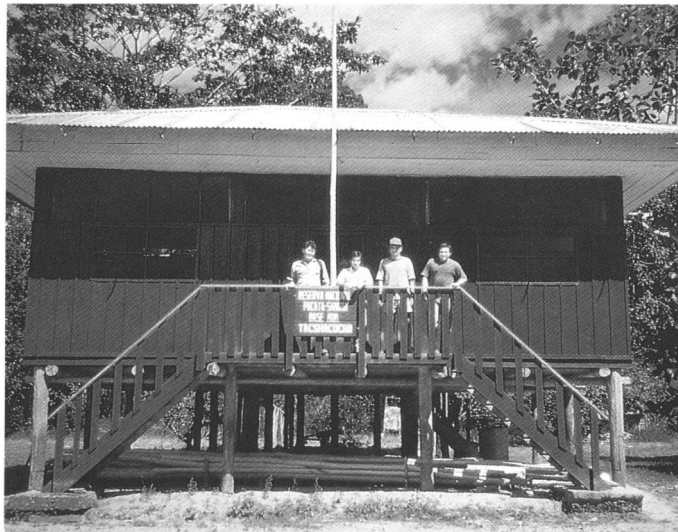
Since 1990, four new management categories (Reserved Zone, Protected Forest, Hunting Reserves and Communal Reserves) were added to the old protected areas system, to create the present Peruvian National System of Natural Protected Areas (SINANPE). Under these categories, 20 new areas were incorporated into the system, with ProNaturaleza contributions to five of these.

Some of the major achievements of cooperation between ProNaturaleza and the Park Administration during the period 1984–1994 are as follows:

- Support has been given to 16 protected areas, covering 5,437,682.3 ha, representing nearly 90% of the former System of Conservation Units (SINUC), and 57% of the present SINANPE.

- A total of 80 rangers ('guardaparques') working in several protected areas, representing 60% of the overall staff in the national system, are funded by joint projects between ProNaturaleza and the Parks Administration (today named INRENA).

ProNaturaleza have been very active in supporting the construction of facilities for protected area management, such as this guard point in the Pacaya-Samiria Natural Reserve.

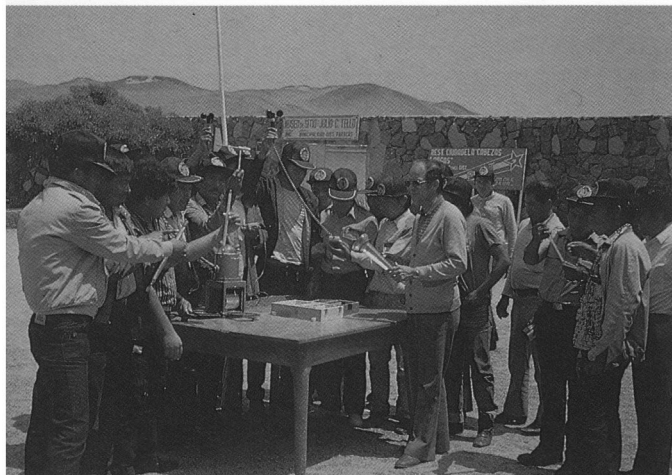


- Twenty-six professionals from ProNaturaleza are cooperating in the management of different protected areas and the zones of influence among them.
- Fifteen training courses have been implemented, involving rangers and protected areas managers.
- Community planning consultations have been undertaken in 12 protected areas (44% of the total number of protected areas included in the National System of Conservation Units – SINUC).
- Thirty-six facilities have been constructed or restored, including guard points, administrative buildings and centres for work on conservation and development.
- The boundaries of four protected areas have been finished, as well as demarcation of critical points in another four units.
- Protected areas have been provided with nine pick-up trucks, 19 motorbikes, 22 boats, 28 motor boats, 37 radio communication sets, 107 solar panels, and more than 100 uniforms and field equipment for the rangers.
- More than 20 technical reports have been prepared, and a similar number of booklets, as well as proposals for three new areas to be included in the system.
- A programme of education and communication activities has been undertaken, including the development of ten local level workshops, public awareness publications, newspaper notes; also three protected areas management plans were prepared and widely distributed.
- There has been active participation in five public campaigns in defence of threatened protected areas.
- For the 11 protected areas that are supported by ProNaturaleza and the Parks Administration, various conservation and development projects are underway, which include sustainable rural development and would reinforce local involvement in the management of protected areas. A high proportion of the support from ProNaturaleza is used to help such integrated projects.

An important element of the overall experience, although difficult to quantify, is the joint learning process between NGOs and the government, which has improved technical and conceptual approaches to protected areas management. Such cooperation is particularly important in developing countries such as Peru, where there are many economic and social problems, and a great need to pool scarce resources.

Many positive results have been achieved by NGO-government cooperation in this instance, particularly in planning the system of protected areas, promoting alternative ways of organisation and cooperation, and obtaining GEF support for the protected areas system. The ongoing notion of the relationship between the Parks Administration and private organisations has been particularly valuable. In a period when the Director of the National Administration for Natural Protected Areas has changed no less than 12 times in ten years, the participation of the

Training course on the use of Global Positioning Systems for protected area managers and rangers in the Paracas National Reserve.



private sector has contributed not only to the efficient implementation of projects in key protected areas, but has also helped in providing continuity for the long-term management of the system, based on a modern protected area management approach.

Lessons learned

These ten years of experience clearly show the significant results which can be achieved in managing a national system of protected areas in a developing country, through partnership between private and government conservation organisations. Success requires a strong institutional framework and government support.

This experience relates to support from private organisations to the officially established national system of protected areas; the challenge of exclusively private protected areas is a completely different case. The model explained above does not involve a diminution in the authority or responsibility of the National Park Administration over the existing protected areas. On the contrary this model provides additional support to government administration to undertake the necessary planning and management tasks in an efficient way.

The optimum functioning of such partnership arrangements requires a clear definition by the National Parks Authority of the conditions of cooperation and relevant and appropriate regulations. Mechanisms to ensure active participation of stakeholders in the planning and monitoring of management activities are also essential; if these elements are ignored the result will be conflict and misunderstanding about the role – and power – of the private organisation. The image of ‘privatisation’ of protected areas needs to be carefully avoided.

Not all private organisations can succeed in such endeavours. It requires a strong knowledge of protected areas and buffer zone management, and a dynamic and modern organisational structure including elements such as strategic planning, management evaluation by results and outputs, proper financial accounting, and a high level of overall professionalism.

The experience of ProNaturaleza and the Peruvian Administration of Protected Areas started on small projects with modest funds, and has grown, through a continuing learning process, allowing the institution at the present to undertake complex conservation projects with budgets between half and one million dollars. It was unthinkable to assume projects of this magnitude and technical complexity ten years ago!

But the most important ingredient for success is always the human factor: the goodwill and willingness to compromise shown by officers from the government and private organisations, which will allow a cooperative approach in solving problems, overcoming obstacles, and finding a way through

A research programme is being developed to improve protected area management, promote the involvement and support of local communities, and provide practical applications in the field.



bureaucratic complications. The role of the international organisations, such as IUCN, WWF and TNC, that were prepared to put their confidence in this partnership model was also critical to ensuring success.

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Dealing with data: an Activity Index for improved project management

PAUL SIEGEL

Over the past five years, the WWF Debt-for-Nature project in Madagascar has provided support for the Directorate of Waters and Forests (DEF), the branch of the Malagasy government with custodial responsibilities for the nation's public lands. The project currently comprises some 320 field staff who work in over 80 often remote sites across the island. In order to consolidate, digest, and use the massive amount of data that the project managers receive quarterly from 23 decentralised coordination offices, we have developed a flexible Activity Index to monitor progress in the field, to focus key questions, and to provide feedback to field teams. An example of how to set up and use the index is provided using six activities (Establishment of tree nurseries, Reforestation, Constitution of village forestry committees, Attendance at public awareness meetings, Number of village development projects, Reduction of bush fires) from across Madagascar to simultaneously compare relative levels of achievement in the different sites. The discussion focuses on the interpretation of the Index and stresses that while it is a straightforward tool to condense data into a more readily useable form, the interpretation of the index and its applications requires knowledge and creativity.

THE PRINCIPLE ROLE of project management is to take advantage of the 'big picture' perspective to effectively target resources and guidance. For projects which are widely dispersed or where communications between field teams and the central coordination are poor, keeping track of the big picture can be frustratingly difficult. Reports from several field offices may come in quarterly or semestrial tidal waves and contain enormous amounts of information which are difficult to digest. As a result, unique opportunities to improve project management can be missed, important lessons obscured, and significant questions unasked.

The WWF Debt-for-Nature project in Madagascar is extremely extensive (as opposed to intensive). Its main objective is to reinforce the Directorate of Waters and Forests (DEF) through the recruitment and support of a cadre of village-level foresters (Nature Protection Agents: APN). There are currently 321 APNs assigned to over 80 sites in all six provinces of Madagascar, where they provide a vital link between rural communities and the regional and national levels of DEF. Coordinating such a widely dispersed programme presents unique administrative and technical challenges since the country is large (nearly 600,000 km² – the size of France and Belgium

The loss of forests in Madagascar has caused soil erosion, as shown here on the Malagasy High Plateau. Photo: Paul Siegel.



combined), highly diverse (both culturally and climactically) and has very limited communication infrastructure. Telecommunications are often non-existent and road travel, when possible, can be extremely difficult and time consuming.

The project's administrative structure consists of a small central office at the DEF headquarters in the capital, Antananarivo, and 23 decentralised coordination units (17 sub-regional and 6 regional) in DEF offices across the country. Decentralisation has several advantages. It helps to ensure that the project can respond rapidly to local needs, it places responsibility and authority in the hands of local DEF officials, and helps ensure that activities in the field can proceed without directives from the capital. In order to keep abreast of the ever-evolving situation in the field, headquarters receives periodic activity reports from the field offices which summarise project activities. These reports help the central staff to maintain a global view of the project, keep abreast of changes on the ground, coordinate information exchange between the various elements of the project, furnish information to interested parties, and to maintain a consolidated database.

However, interpreting the reports from the field can be difficult without having a point of reference. How can one decide if planting 100,000 trees by APNs in an area represents an extraordinary effort or just an average one? If one region shows a tremendous level of tree planting and another doesn't, does this indicate a difference in climactic or social conditions, a great new idea from one region, or an unsuspected problem from the other? If a region shows marked decrease in performance from one year to the next, does this indicate a significant change in local attitudes, poor rains, or something else? The answers to these and other questions can have important managerial and strategic implications; however, the questions themselves are often difficult to recognise and articulate.

In order to identify key inter-regional questions one can compare the results of an activity (such as tree planting) undertaken over a set time period from different regions (same time period, different areas). Likewise, in order to highlight region-specific issues, looking for performance trends over several years can be particularly revealing (same area, different times). Each approach has strengths and weaknesses and reveals different facets of a project. Inter-regional comparisons can be influenced by region-specific factors. For example, a zone with good soils and ample

rainfall would often have a much higher rate of reforestation than one which was very dry or with marginal soils. Socio-cultural difference can also influence how people use their lands and so have an impact on local forestry priorities. Similarly, intra-regional analyses across years can be influenced by time-specific factors such as changes in rainfall, local political instability etc.

While no single evaluation method will be suitable to all situations, the ability to objectively analyse activity reports from several field sites and provide feedback to field teams in the form of questions or observations can

*Foresters laying out
park boundaries.
Photo: Olivier
Langrand.*



help central coordinating bodies better understand field realities and help field personnel to see their accomplishments in a broader context. The Activity Index can help managers to analyse massive amounts of data quickly, simply and objectively and to present the data in either tabular or graphic form.

The Index

The Activity Index was designed to compare different zones against each other and/or to compare results from different years in the same zone. It is quick and easy to compile, and can accommodate differences in staffing levels between region, any number of activities common to all regions, or activities undertaken in some areas but not in others. There are four steps to developing the index: 1) choosing which activities to assess; 2) choosing an appropriate indicator; 3) standardising the indicators; 4) scoring. Once the data have been analysed, results can be sent to the field for confirmation, comment, and action.

1. Choosing the activities to be assessed

Our index is based on six core activities of the APNs: reforestation, creation of tree nurseries, public awareness meetings, village projects, creation of village committees, and reduction of brush fires. These activities are initially contained in APN monthly reports which are then assembled into quarterly reports by our sub-regional coordinators. The sub-regional reports are compiled into semestrial reports at the regional offices. The central office in Antananarivo receives both the sub-regional and regional reports.

2. Choosing an indicator for each activity

Indicators were chosen based on their relationship to the activity in question and their relative ease of collection.

<i>activity</i>	<i>indicator</i>
Reforestation	Number of trees planted
Creation of tree nurseries	Number of tree nurseries created
Public awareness meetings	Number of people attending meetings
Village project	Number of village projects
Creation of village committees	Number of village committees created
Brush fire reduction	The difference in the number of hectares burned

3. Standardising

In order to compensate for the different number of APNs in each province, the value for each indicator (e.g. number of trees planted) was divided by the number of APNs to permit a 'per APN' standardised comparison (e.g. number of trees planted per APN). Data can be standardised by any number of parameters such as the area covered per agent to yield a 'per km²' measure or by population density to express activities 'per unit of population'.

4. Scoring

The six regions were ranked for each activity. The region with the strongest showing was given a score of 6, the second best was scored 5, and so forth to the weakest which scored 1. The Reforestation numbers for the period 1991 – 1995 (below)

indicate that APNs in the Province of Fianarantsoa planted a greater number of trees per person than APNs in any other province.

<i>Region</i>	<i>Number of APNs</i>	<i>Total number of trees planted</i>	<i>Number of trees per APN</i>	<i>Score</i>
Antananarivo	18	156,750	8,708	5
Antsiranana	66	481,715	7,299	4
Fianarantsoa	64	590,588	9,228	6
Mahajanga	67	163,457	2,440	3
Toamasina	50	110,416	2,208	2
Toliara	56	71,680	1,280	1

A similar ranking based on the indicators for each of the six activities was calculated. In case of a tie, a middle score was assigned to each.

A summary of the scores for each activity are shown below. In the case of Antsiranana, it was found many village committees had been formed before the arrival of the APNs so it was deemed inappropriate to include that region in the Village Associations category. Instead, the remaining regions were scored on a scale of 1 to 5 (rather than 1 to 6 as was the case for the other activities). These data can also be displayed graphically (see Figure 1).

	<i>public awareness</i>	<i>reforest</i>	<i>tree nurseries</i>	<i>village associations</i>	<i>village projects</i>	<i>brush fires</i>	<i>total</i>
Antananarivo	1	5	6	1.5	1	4	18.5
Antsiranana	4	4	4	NA	2	5	19
Fianarantsoa	5	6	5	3	5	1	25
Mahajanga	3	3	1	4	3	3	17
Toamasina	2	2	3	1.5	6	2	16.5
Toliara	6	1	2	5	4	6	24

After scoring the regions for each of the activities, an overall sum for each region was calculated and compared to the total number of points possible. Antananarivo, for example, scored 18.5 points out of a possible 35 (a possible of 6 in all categories except Village Associations which could have a possible 5). The highest possible score for Antsiranana would be 30 (6 in each of the 5 activities). Since the total number of possible points differed between the regions the score of each region was expressed as a percentage of its highest possible total (total score/highest possible score) for more realistic comparisons.

	<i>total points</i>	<i>total points possible</i>	<i>per cent of possible</i>
Antananarivo	18.5	35	53%
Antsiranana	19	30	63%
Fianarantsoa	25	35	71%
Mahajanga	17	35	49%
Toamasina	16.5	35	47%
Toliara	24	35	69%

It is important to avoid the temptation to treat the percentages as a measure of overall effectiveness. Rather it is a comparative measure of the results of *specific*

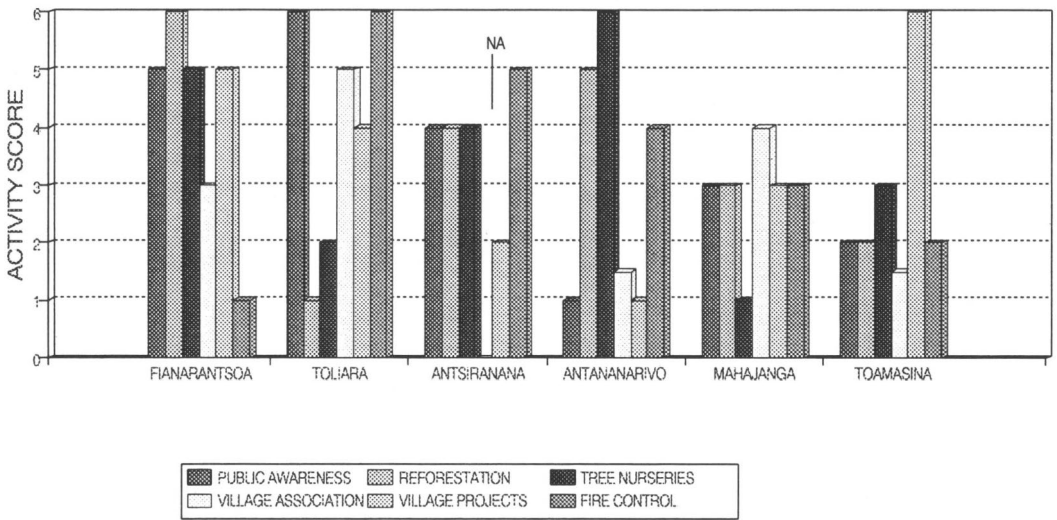


Figure 1.
Comparison of
achievements
among Nature
Protection Agents
in the six provinces
of Madagascar.

activities between the different provinces. It does not explain *why* a difference exists. Since each area is unique (historically, climatically, demographically, socio-culturally etc.), it is important that individual differences be taken into consideration before the index can be interpreted and managerial decisions taken.

The index does help to formulate questions for the DEF provincial managers: Why were the APNs in Fianarantsoa so effective in reforestation? What techniques were used in Toliara to so dramatically reduce brush fires? Why are APNs in Mahajanga and Toamasina seemingly underproductive? The answer to these questions could provide valuable insight to techniques being applied in the field or to region-specific difficulties.

Although the Index can help identify key questions, it gives only a general idea of the comparative situation in the field. Several factors must be taken into consideration when interpreting the results. Firstly, the Index is only as accurate as the data upon which it is based. If the data from the field is erratic, or purposefully biased, then the index becomes less useful. This does not mean that field data must be exact. Even if the numbers reported from the field are only approximative, the *trends* which the data indicate may be valuable.

Secondly, the index only measures relative achievement in *specific activities*. If the personnel in one region are concentrating on an activity not covered by the index (e.g. reduction in the number of forest code infractions) their index scores might be lower for the measured activities since their efforts are directed elsewhere. In this case lower scores would not be a reflection of lesser productivity but simply a difference in priorities.

Thirdly, in the current example, all activities are treated equally. For example, a top score in the control of brush fires counts the same as a top score in reforestation or a top score in the development of village projects. In some cases, it might be more realistic to emphasise certain activities to reflect particularly high priorities. For



Malagasy children working on a "reboisement scolaire" (school reforestation) project. Photo: Olivier Langrand.

example, a weighting factor of 2 might be applied to the brush fire control activity if that was considered twice as important as the other activities. By using weighting factors, the index can be tailored to compensate for regional or national priorities. Weighting factors can also be employed to compensate for differences between regions. In sparsely settled areas it would be more difficult to reach large numbers of people for Public Awareness meetings than in regions with higher population levels. In some zones it might be much harder to plant trees or to fight brush fires than in others. Such differences could be taken

into consideration by applying a weighting coefficient to the indicators. For example, if the indicator for the Public Awareness activity were the number of people attending meetings, then the indicator could be divided by the number of people per km² in the region to balance differences in population density. Similarly, if it were twice as hard to plant trees in one region compared to another, then the number of trees planted in the difficult region could be multiplied by 2 before scoring their reforestation efforts.

Conclusion

For WWF's Debt-for-Nature project, the combination of broad dispersion and poor communications presents particular challenges. Managers must have a good grasp of the overall scope of the project and the flow of activities around the country without placing undue (or unrealistic) reporting obligations on field operatives. On the other hand, in order to keep abreast of the overall health of the project and to identify strengths and weaknesses, the central coordination must be able to monitor and evaluate field activities from often very different environmental, cultural, or geographic regions. This index is one way of quickly and efficiently digesting the often voluminous information contained in periodic reports to distil key questions. The index is not a cut and dried tool for directly assessing the accomplishments or impact of field teams. It simply helps to standardise data and to reduce it to a manageable form. The interpretation of the index requires insight, patience, and creativity but it can help to keep managers in tune with the field, provide valuable feedback, and help them take advantage of their unique vantage point to play a more active role in the implementation and evolution of their projects.

Acknowledgements

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Paul Siegel, World Wide Fund for Nature, BP 738, Antananarivo 101, Madagascar.

Legal brief

The London Convention on the Prevention of Marine Pollution by Dumping of Wastes and Other Matter

PAUL GORIUP

Recent controversy over the disposal of North Sea oil platforms has focused public attention on the widespread practice of dumping at sea. Fewer people are aware that such dumping is actually internationally regulated by the London Convention, which held its 18th Consultative Meeting of Contracting Parties in London in December 1995.

In the early 1970s, a number of countries, including some with a long history of systematic disposal of wastes into the sea, realised that the capacity of the marine environment to assimilate these wastes was not unlimited. Accordingly, the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (Stockholm, June 1972) made a recommendation to finalise a convention on the dumping of wastes at sea. Subsequently, the United Kingdom hosted a negotiation meeting in London in November 1972. The Convention text was adopted at the meeting, and it entered into force in August 1975. There are presently 74 Parties, and the Convention secretariat is based at the International Maritime Organisation in London.

The general objective of the Convention, which covers all marine waters seaward of the baseline, is to promote effective control of all sources of marine pollution and to oblige Parties to take all practicable steps to prevent the pollution of the sea by dumping. The Convention and its Annexes make provisions to regulate the deliberate disposal at sea of any wastes and other matter from vessels, aircraft, platforms or other man-made structures. Thus, dumping of substances listed in Annex I, which includes organohalogen compounds, mercury and mercury compounds, cadmium and cadmium compounds, persistent plastics and other non-biodegradable materials, crude oil and oil wastes, and radioactive materials, is prohibited. Annex II allows the disposal of certain materials provided that special care is taken under a permit that itself must take account of criteria set out in Annex III, which deals with the amount and characteristics of the waste, means of disposal and potential environmental impacts. Records of the nature and amounts of all wastes and other matter permitted to be dumped at sea have to be reported to the Convention secretariat, together with the results from monitoring such dumping sites.

*Beaches are often littered with the evidence of rubbish dumped at sea.
Photo: S. Pollard/
Marine Conservation
Society.*



The statistics on dumping indicate that the London Convention is having some success in reaching its objectives. The amount of industrial waste disposal declined from a high of 17 million tons in 1979 to 6 million tons in 1987, and should cease altogether by the end of 1995. Similarly, the incineration at sea of liquid organohalogen wastes has declined from 100,000 tons during the mid-1980s to none today. However, progress with limiting the disposal of sewage sludge and dredged materials has been slower, although the amounts are slowly diminishing. In general, the Parties are moving toward integrated land-based waste disposal solutions for most wastes so that dumping at sea is confined to a limited range of wastes.

The London Convention suffers from the usual problems of international treaties: the enforcement provisions are weak, and less than 60% of the Parties comply with reporting requirements. There are also differences among the Parties about the ultimate goal of the Convention. Some believe that all dumping at sea should be phased out in favour of land-based disposal. Other Parties maintain that certain wastes are best disposed of at sea. In most cases, these differences reflect differing waste disposal strategies, and regional capacities to develop less wasteful technologies. The London Convention is now undergoing a thorough review of its provisions with a view to making fundamental amendments at a diplomatic conference in November 1996.

For further information contact: Office for the London Convention, IMO, 4 Albert Embankment, London SE1 7SR. Fax: +44 171 587 3210.

Résumés

Réforme des institutions des aires protégées en Afrique orientale

ROBERT BENSTED-SMITH ET STEPHEN COBB

Le Kenya, l'Ouganda, la Tanzanie continentale et le Zanzibar œuvrent tous à la modernisation et au renforcement de leurs institutions des aires protégées afin de pouvoir faire face aux défis du vingt-et-unième siècle. Le Kenya a ouvert la voie avec la création du *Kenia Wildlife Service*, tandis que d'importantes initiatives sont en cours de réalisation dans les autres pays. Une vue d'ensemble des approches suivies fait ressortir certains thèmes communs, par exemple une préférence pour une plus grande autonomie, le développement des capacités de gestion commerciales, et le développement d'associations, en particulier avec les communautés locales. Il n'existe cependant aucun schéma directeur général et, dans chaque pays, les structures institutionnelles sont adaptées aux besoins nationaux.

Le Bahamas National Trust: un choix pour la gestion des aires protégées

LYNN HOLOWESKO

Cet article part du principe que les gouvernements ne peuvent assumer seuls toutes les responsabilités en matière de conservation et, qu'à l'avenir, une variété de structures institutionnelles devraient être développées pour la gestion des aires protégées. Il existe, dans le Commonwealth des Bahamas, un exemple intéressant d'une telle institution.

Les parcs nationaux des Bahamas sont le domaine, suivant des régimes de bail variés, du *Bahamas National Trust*, une organisation non gouvernementale avec certains caractères quasi-gouvernementaux qui s'occupe également de leur gestion.

Cet article traite la structure légale du Trust, décrit certains des écosystèmes et biotopes variés des parcs, présente brièvement les politiques de gestion, identifie les sources de financement, souligne certains problèmes et donne finalement un aperçu du futur.

Orientations de la gestion des aires protégées en Australie

BRUCE LEAVER ET ASHLEY FULLER

Les institutions gouvernementales des 'parcs nationaux', aux niveaux des États et du gouvernement national, et les réseaux de réserves pour la conservation de la nature furent établis en Australie vers la fin des années 1960 et au début des années 1970. Ces organismes des parcs nationaux fonctionnaient comme des sections indépendantes du gouvernement, chacune ayant ses statuts respectifs visant à l'établissement de réserves et à la protection de la flore, de la faune et des systèmes naturels représentatifs. Les années 1980 virent l'apparition de nombreux problèmes sociaux, environnementaux, politiques et économiques qui changèrent d'une manière significative l'optique de la gestion des parcs, le rôle des parcs dans l'aménagement du territoire en général, et le fonctionnement et la structure des organismes des parcs nationaux.

On a également assisté à des changements dans la gestion courante dus à une plus grande participation des communautés à la gestion de l'environnement, à la reconnaissance de l'aspect économique important des parcs nationaux (stimulé par le tourisme), et à la contribution des autochtones d'Australie aux programmes de gestion des parcs. Le gouvernement de l'Australie a également influencé la gestion en matière de conservation dans les États grâce aux engagements qu'il a pris en adhérant aux traités internationaux et aux conventions. Mais malgré ceci, les organismes de gestion des parcs nationaux et autres terres tendent à conserver des structures et identités institutionnelles traditionnelles.

Il est suggéré que le temps est maintenant venu de désinstitutionnaliser l'aménagement du territoire et d'établir un système de gestion et de planification des aires protégées basé sur la protection et la gestion des ressources des territoires concernés et non basé sur les statuts d'un organisme particulier. Un tel système permettrait à tous les organismes gouvernementaux d'aménagement du territoire d'assumer leurs responsabilités, mais il ne serait pas la responsabilité d'un seul organisme en particulier. Il offrirait également un cadre de coopération en matière de gestion impliquant différents niveaux gouvernementaux et groupements communautaires établis à cet effet.

Coopération entre les ONG et le gouvernement: une expérience réussie au Pérou

GUSTAVO SUAREZ DE FREITAS

Depuis le début des années 1980, on a observé dans de nombreux pays d'Amérique latine et des Caraïbes un plus haut niveau de coopération en matière de gestion des aires protégées entre les organisations privées et bénévoles et les gouvernements nationaux. Ces exemples de coopération varient de pays à pays; et plusieurs approches peuvent être même utilisées dans un seul pays. Cet article présente une expérience de coopération réussie et continue entre la Fondation péruvienne pour la sauvegarde de la nature (ProNaturaleza) et la Direction Nationale des Aires Protégées Naturelles.

Traitement des données: un Fichier des Activités pour une meilleure gestion des projets

PAUL SIEGEL

Au cours des cinq dernières années, le projet WWF Debt-for-Nature à Madagascar a apporté son soutien à la Direction des Eaux et Forêts (DEF), le département du gouvernement malgache responsable de l'aménagement du territoire. Le personnel de terrain du projet compte à l'heure actuelle environ 320 personnes travaillant dans plus de 80 sites, souvent isolés et disséminés sur l'ensemble de l'île. Dans le but de consolider, d'assimiler et d'utiliser les énormes quantités de données transmises chaque trimestre aux chefs du projet par les 23 bureaux de coordination décentralisés, nous avons mis au point un Fichier des Activités, un système d'utilisation souple permettant de suivre de près les progrès accomplis sur le terrain, de prêter attention aux problèmes importants, et de fournir en retour des informations aux équipes sur le terrain. On présente un exemple de l'établissement et de l'utilisation du Fichier pour six types d'activités et pour l'ensemble du territoire de Madagascar (Établissement de pépinières, Reboisement, Constitution de comités forestiers villageois, Participation à des réunions de sensibilisation du public, Projets de développement des villages, Limitation des feux de brousse) ce qui permet de comparer simultanément les niveaux relatifs de réussite des projets dans les différents sites. La discussion porte sur l'interprétation du Fichier et souligne que, bien qu'il soit un outil simple permettant de condenser les informations sous une forme facilement utilisable, son interprétation et son utilisation nécessitent cependant un certain niveau d'expertise et de créativité.

Resumenes

Reforma de las instituciones dedicadas a las áreas protegidas en el Este de Africa

ROBERT BENSTED-SMITH Y STEPHEN COBB

Los países de Kenia, Uganda y Tanzania, incluyendo a Zanzíbar están en proceso de modernización y consolidación de sus instituciones de áreas protegidas, para poder enfrentarse a los retos del próximo siglo. Kenia ha tomado la delantera con la creación del Servicio de Vida Silvestre de Kenia, mientras que otros países están considerando varias iniciativas. La revisión de los enfoques tomados por estos países revela ciertos temas comunes, por ejemplo, el favorecimiento de una mayor autonomía, el desarrollo de una capacidad de manejo de negocios y el desarrollo de asociaciones, especialmente con comunidades locales. Sin embargo, no cuentan con ningún modelo y los sistemas institucionales están siendo diseñados en cada caso, de acuerdo a las necesidades nacionales de cada país en cuestión.

El Fideicomiso Nacional de las Bahamas: una alternativa en el manejo de áreas protegidas

LYNN HOLOWESKO

La base de este documento es la premisa de que los gobiernos no pueden tomar responsabilidad total por la conservación de sus recursos y que en el futuro se deberá diseñar una variada serie de arreglos

institucionales para el manejo de áreas protegidas. En la Mancomunidad de las Bahamas existe un ejemplo interesante de una institución de este tipo.

Los Parques Nacionales de las Bahamas, son propiedad del Fideicomiso Nacional de las Bahamas bajo variadas formas de tenencia, quien también está a cargo de su administración. El Fideicomiso es una organización no gubernamental con algunas características quasi-gubernamentales.

Este documento trata con la estructura legal del Fideicomiso, describe algunos de los variados ecosistemas y habitats de los parques, delinea las políticas de manejo, identifica fuentes de financiamiento, subraya algunos problemas y ofrece una visión del futuro.

Tendencias en el manejo de áreas protegidas en Australia

BRUCE LEAVER Y ASHLEY FULLER

A fines de la década de los 1960 y a principios de los años 1970s se establecieron en Australia instituciones gubernamentales estatales y nacionales para tratar sobre "parques nacionales" y sistemas de reservas para la conservación de la naturaleza. Dichas agencias operaban como discretas armas del gobierno, cada una con el mandato de reservar áreas y conservar a la flora, fauna y a sistemas naturales representativos. Durante la década de los 1980s surgieron una serie de problemas sociales, ambientales, políticos y económicos que cambiaron significativamente el enfoque existente relacionado al manejo de parques. También cambió el papel que los parques jugaban en el variado manejo de la tierra, así como la operación y estructura de las agencias de parques nacionales.

Así mismo han ocurrido cambios en la administración cotidiana de estas áreas debido entre otros aspectos, al aumento en la participación comunitaria en el área de conservación de la naturaleza, al reconocimiento de los parques nacionales como una dimensión económica significativa (estimulada por el turismo) y a la contribución que los Aborígenes Australianos han hecho a los programas de administración de parques. El gobierno nacional también ha ejercido su influencia en el manejo estatal de la conservación a través de compromisos contraídos bajo tratados y convenciones internacionales. Sin embargo, las agencias relacionadas con parques nacionales y otras agencias que tratan con el manejo de la tierra muestran tendencia por retener estructuras e identidades institucionales tradicionales.

Se considera que es tiempo de desinstitucionalizar al manejo de la tierra y de establecer un sistema para la administración y la planeación de áreas protegidas que esté basado en la protección y el manejo de los valores de las áreas en cuestión y que no se derive del mandato de la agencia. Dicho sistema podría proporcionar los medios para que todas las agencias del gobierno dedicadas al manejo de la tierra tomaran responsabilidad, pero no será 'propiedad' de ninguna agencia en particular. También les proporcionaría oportunidades de participación a diferentes niveles de gobierno y a grupos comunitarios establecidos para éste propósito en el manejo de dicho sistema.

La cooperación entre las ONG y el gobierno: una experiencia exitosa en el Perú

GUSTAVO SUAREZ DE FREITAS

Desde el principio de la década de los 1980s, muchos países de Latino América y del Caribe han observado el aumento en el nivel de cooperación entre las organizaciones privadas y voluntarias y entre los gobiernos nacionales en la administración de las áreas protegidas. Estos modelos de cooperación pueden variar de país a país; e incluso existen varios enfoques diferentes en un mismo país. Este documento presenta un informe sobre la cooperación entre la Fundación Peruana para la Conservación de la Naturaleza (ProNaturaleza) y la Administración Nacional de Áreas Naturales Protegidas, la cual continúa siendo una experiencia exitosa.

El manejo de datos: un Índice de Actividades para mejorar el manejo de proyectos

PAUL SIEGEL

El proyecto de Deuda-por-Naturaleza del Fondo Mundial para la Naturaleza (WWF) de Madagascar le ha estado proporcionando apoyo a la Dirección de Aguas y Bosques (DEF) durante los últimos cinco años. Dicha Dirección es la rama del gobierno con responsabilidad sobre las tierras públicas de la nación. Actualmente el proyecto cuenta con un personal de campo de 320 personas quienes laboran en más de 80 sitios, frecuentemente remotos, a través de la isla. Los administradores de proyectos

reciben una cantidad masiva de datos trimestralmente de las 23 oficinas descentralizadas de coordinación. Por lo tanto, se ha desarrollado un Índice de Actividades para poder consolidar, asimilar y usar estos datos, así como para controlar el progreso de los proyectos en el campo, enfocar preguntas críticas y proporcionar intercambio con los equipos de campo. Se proporciona un ejemplo de la preparación y el uso del índice utilizando seis actividades de todo Madagascar para comparar simultáneamente a los niveles relativos de realización en los diferentes sitios. Dichas actividades son: el Establecimiento de viveros de árboles, Reforestación, Constitución de comités forestales rurales, Asistencia a reuniones sobre concientización pública, Numero de proyectos de desarrollo rural y Reducción de los fuegos en montes. La discusión se centra en la interpretación del Índice y enfatiza el hecho de que aunque éste sea una herramienta simple, se requiere de conocimiento y creatividad para condensar los datos de manera que sea más fácil usarlos para poder interpretar al índice y sus usos.

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