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SYNTHESIS REPORT

Experience of Implementing National Forestry Programmes in Gabon, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal and Sudan

Accra, 27 April 2003

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AAS	African Academy of Sciences
ACP	African Caribbean and Pacific countries
ATO	African Timber Organisation
CBOs	Community Based Organisations
CILSS	Comité Inter-Etats de Lutte contre la Sécheresse au Sahel
CNS	Comprehensive National Strategy
CONSERE	Conseil Supérieur des ressources Naturelles et de l'Environnement
DZAF	Dry-Zone Africa Process on Criteria and Indicators for sustainable development
EC	European Commission
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations
FCCC	Framework Convention on Climate Change
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FMPs	Forest Master Plans
FNC	Forest National Corporation
FOSA	Forest sector Outlook Study for Africa
FSC	Forest Stewardship Council
FSR	Forestry Sector Review
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
GOS	Government of Sudan
GTS	Global Trade Solutions
HDI	Human Development Index
IFF	International Forum on Forests
IPF	Intergovernmental Panel on Forests
ITTA	International Tropical Timber Agreement
ITTO	International Tropical Timber Organization
IUCN	World Conservation Union
LPG	Liquefied Petroleum Gas
NE/DZAF	Near East Process on Criteria and Indicators for Sustainable Forest Management/ Dry-Zone Africa Process on Criteria and Indicators for sustainable development
NFAP	National Forest Action Plan
NGOs	Nongovernmental Organisations
NTFPs	Non Timber Forest Products
NWFP	Non Wood Forest Products
PAFR	Plan d'Action Forestier Régional
PAFS	Plan d'Action Forestier du Sénégal
PAFT	Plan d'Action Forestier Tropical
PANLCD	Plan d'Action National de Lutte Contre la Désertification
PDDF	Plan Directeur de Développement Forestier
PDES	Plan de Développement Economique et Social
PFSE	Programme Sectoriel forêt :environnement
PNAE	Plan National D'Action pour l'Environnement
SFDs	State Forest Departments
SFM	Sustainable Forest Management
TFAP	Tropical Forestry Action Plan
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

UNFF	United Nations Forum on Forests
WRI	World Resource Institute

1.0 INTRODUCTION

National Forest Programmes (nfp), the origin of which dates to the mid 1980s, is a variant of Forest Master Plans (FMPs), Forest Sector Reviews (FSRs), and Tropical Forestry Action Plan (TFAP). The aims of all these plans (FMP, FSR, and TFAP) have been to guide the positive development of the forestry sector in countries and to facilitate sustainable forest management. However, existing evidence suggests that these various forestry strategies have not had the desired impact because they did not adequately address the social, economic, institutional, and political arrangements instrumental in the success of such plans at the local, national, regional and international levels (Bekele 1998).

After more than a decade's careful and thorough reviews of the evolution of forestry planning processes in various countries based on the three strategies mentioned above, the Untied Nations Conference on Environment and Development in 1992 (UNCED or the *Rio Earth Summit*), as well as the series of Intergovernmental deliberations on forestry planning and development issues under: International Panel on Forests (IPF), International Forum on Forests (IFF), and currently United Nations Forum on Forests (UNFF), endorsed nfps as an important means of addressing forest sector issues in a holistic, comprehensive and multisectoral manner. Furthermore, these continuing international dialogue stress that for any strategy to succeed, there should be global consensus on the management, conservation and sustainable development of all types of forests; and that the nfp should be seen as an iterative forest sector planning process leading to the development of a comprehensive forest policy framework (FAO 2001).

National forest programmes may be viewed from two different perspectives: from a broad based sense, the term *national forest programmes* (nfp) encompasses the full range of policies, institutions, plans and programmes to manage, utilize, protect and enhance forest resources within a given country; in the restricted sense, the term *national forest programme* (nfp) refers to a specific national process of planning, coordination, institutional reform and capacity building in the forest sector in accordance with internationally recognized principles and guidelines. For the purposes of this synthesis, the term is used in its broad sense. A noteworthy historical evolution of term nfp, is that towards the late 1990s, the designation nfp came to be known as National ***Forest*** Programme and no longer National Forestry Programme, to emphasize the cross-sectoral linkages outside the traditional forestry profession (African Academy of Sciences, 2000).

Several countries have begun formulation and implementation of national forest programmes. However the formulation and implementation of nfps within the past decade in many developing countries, have been constraint by a number of critical factors (FAO, 2001) especially the following:

- Lack of knowledge on how to resolve some of the key cross-sectoral and economy-wide constraints to sustainable forest management, how to augment the sector's contribution to broader development objectives and to gain increased political support;
- Inadequate knowledge and information on how to design and put in place effective forest policies and instrument for policy implementation which (together with the above) contribute towards an enabling environment for sectoral development, including increased investments;
- Poor mobilization and use of existing information and knowledge at all levels and by all actors involved in national forest programmes processes;
- Weak capacity of countries to manage and implement national forest programme processes that are participatory, multisectoral and country led;

- Broader constraints related to governance, accountability and transparency of sectoral information.

In 1998, the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) undertook a questionnaire survey to assess the overall status of implementation of national forest programme. In general, the survey revealed that the impact of nfp implementation has been extremely varied and in several cases the process has been too slow or even stalled for a number of reasons. In their earlier forms, variants of the nfps such as TFAP and NFAP were often initiated largely due to donor support availability in this area and this donor-dependency has arrested the development of sustainable programmes that rely on internal resource mobilization. Efforts, which were primarily donor-dependent could not be sustained once external support dwindled.

Thus revitalizing nfps requires a thorough assessment of the experiences in various countries and to identify what can be realistically accomplished. With this view in mind the EC-FAO Programme on Sustainable Forest Management in Africa ACP Countries undertook case studies in five countries in Africa (Gabon, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal and Sudan) to provide a clear indication of the factors that have contributed to success or otherwise of nfp formulation and implementation.

These case studies have highlighted the divergent experiences with regards to the process of nfp and its implementation. Although the experiences of the nfp implementation process for the five countries cited above is now available in five separate volumes, it is however difficult to fully appreciate in a comparative and contrasting manner the constraints and enabling factors that have characterized the nfp implementation processes between these countries. Yet this comparative analysis is important because forestry planning and implementation policies could be more cost effective and politically feasible across countries or regions that share common characteristics and similarities in terms of ecological, economic and socio-cultural conditions.

The purpose of this synthesis report is to put together in a single volume, and in a contrasting and comparative manner the experiences of the formulation and implementation of the nfps in the five countries, with the aim of obtaining valuable information on factors that determine the success or otherwise of nfp formulation and implementation in five African countries south of the Sahara. The report will also attempt to bring out data on the economic viability of national forest programmes. Before focusing on how the five countries have fared in the formulation and implementation processes of nfps, a short brief on the experiences of all African countries is presented. This approach is essential for comparative purposes and appraisal of the factors that have enhanced or inhibited formulation and implementation of these initiatives

2.0 OVERALL STATUS OF IMPLEMENTATION OF NATIONAL FOREST PROGRAMMES IN AFRICA

Traditionally, the forest has played an important survival role in most Africa countries. The social and economic benefits derived from the forest are enormous, yet the rate of deforestation and land degradation within the past two decades in some countries in the continent makes one wonder whether rational use and sustainable management considerations ever take the center stage when decisions to exploit these rich natural resources are being considered.

A good number of countries in Africa may not be in a position to take pre-emptive measures that will ensure rational management and sustainable use of the forest. It is for this reason that international organizations, such as The World Conservation Union (IUCN), World Bank, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), FAO, and World Resource Institute (WRI), have since the1980s begun putting together key strategies and actions which have culminated in National Conservation Strategies, Forestry Master Plans and National Forest Action Plan (Bekele, 1998).

These initiatives have had as main objectives: conservation, management and sustainable use of forest resources, combating desertification and land degradation. It is clear that these various initiatives have produced mixed results. The tendency has been the advent and precipitated demise of new initiatives, without necessarily making any significant impact in the forest sector. However the birth of the nfp process as an outcome of the 1992 Rio Earth Summit holds a lot of promise. Chapter 11 of Agenda 21 on combating deforestation, as well as the Forest Principles, all recommend nfps as potential tools for dealing with the underlying causes of deforestation and forest degradation, and for achieving sustainable forest management.

From 1997, it became even more evident that formulation and implementation of nfps will be the way forward. Global fora on forests continued deliberations on strengthening forest planning processes. Thus, the Intergovernmental Panel on Forests (IPF) in a special session of the United Nations General Assembly 9 – 13 June 1997, encouraged countries to adopt nfps based on Basic Forestry Principles and the newly defined criteria (UNGA, 1997). These set of guidelines are viewed as a radical departure from the way previous initiatives were conceived. Prominent among this criteria are innovations such as: national sovereignty, country driven, political and institutional considerations, national legislation, partnership and participatory mechanisms, establishment of inter-sectoral linkages, policy and institutional reforms and capacity building just to mention a few. In spear heading the move to implement nfps, IPF stressed that nfps could provide an effective link between strategic and operational planning.

Findings from analysis and evaluations of African countries who have in one way or the other attempted or actually formulated and implemented initiatives such as TFAP/NFAP/NFPs and other related initiatives show that outcomes are mitigated especially in terms of effectiveness and efficiency in implementation.

African countries are reviewing their national forest programmes and streamlining them to reflect the ideas expressed in Agenda 21. However, active case findings through a questionnaire feedback in 1998/99, showed great discrepancy between what African countries reported they intended to do in their nfp country strategy papers and what actually obtained in the field (FAO, 1999). Reasons for failure to achieve desired outcomes include:

Issues, lessons learned internal to the forestry sector:

- Lack of coordination within the sector and weaknesses of the institutions in charge of forestry;
- Deficiencies in the internal communication and flow of information;
- Limited human resource capabilities, both qualitatively and quantitatively;
- Lack of a clear effort to increase inter-sectoral coordination between the forest sector and other inter-related sectors (e.g. Agriculture, Environment, Finance, Energy, Trade, Education, research)
- Deficient mechanisms in place for an appropriate involvement of all the relevant forest stakeholders;
- Policy and legal frameworks quite often still not in line with IPF/IFF/UNFF recommendations;
- General low levels of investment in the forestry sector, particularly from domestic sources;
- "Success cases" too dependent on external funding, raising doubts on the sustainability of the implementation processes in the medium/long term if the external support is significantly reduced.

Issues, lessons learned external to the forestry sector:

- political instability;
- Weak political commitment;
- Stakeholder participation: notwithstanding that participation of NGOs and inter-sectoral dialogue and coordination have known some progress, involvement of the private sector and the civil society in nfp formulation and implementation is still not significant in a number of countries;
- A gamut of planning frameworks (e.g. Environment, Forest, Rural Development, Combat against Desertification) leading to an unclear positioning of the forestry sector and/or to the competition for domestic and external resources, creating institutional conflicts and duplication of efforts;
- Lack of international support according to the expectations raised in the 1980s and early 1990s.

An interesting finding from the questionnaire, is that many countries in the region have subscribed to several international environmental policy instruments such as Convention to Combat Desertification, Convention on Biodiversity Ramsar etc which in some countries mutually reinforce action in the forestry sector (Gabon, Malawi, Senegal). In Madagascar, Guinea and Mali, however, this multiplicity of planning frameworks has instead constituted a source of confusion and unnecessary overlap. At present, key challenges confronting most African countries in nfp implementation remain by and large same as those revealed by the 1998/1999 FAO survey, an example of which is seeking effective ways to enhance and strengthen country capacities to formulate and implement nfps. The challenge is to find participatory and cost-effective processes that take due account of the socio-economic characteristics of the country, and also to find the best ways to share their knowledge and experience.

3.0 KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF FORESTS AND FORESTRY IN THE FIVE CASE STUDY COUNTRIES.

This section will analyze, compare and contrast the situation of forests and forestry in the five case study countries, taking into account the similarities and differences in the forest characteristics. Focus here is on the ecological setting of the country and its impact on forest conditions and productivity; the economic significance of forests and how this is perceived by the governments; social functions of forests and its environmental significance in the five case study countries. Furthermore this section recognizes how the characteristics have led to certain sector priorities as defined by the respective governments and other forest users and how these necessarily determines the key stakeholder groups.

3.1 Physical, Population and Economic Indicators

Analysis of the basic data on the five case study countries (Table 1) reveals that Senegal has the least total land area, while Sudan has by far the largest total land area of the five countries under review. A more important factor that influences the forest sector is the population density and the growing urban population. Again Table 1. shows that Nigeria has a population density of 119.6/Km^2 while Namibia has only a population density of 2.1/Km2. The general trend is that the urban population has been growing and this concentration of people in a relatively small area of land has proved catastrophic for the natural resources that support these teaming agglomeration of humans. Gabon has more people living in its cities than in the rural area, while Sudan and Senegal still have 65% and 61% living in the rural areas respectively. Nonetheless, care should be exercised here in drawing conclusion based on this urban/rural population distribution. The mere fact that more people live in cities does not mean less pressure on natural resources if most of these urban dwellers are poor and depend on natural resources (e,g., fuelwood) for their livelihoods. The economic indicators reveal that while in 1997, Gabon has a per capita GNP of 3 985 USD and an annual growth rate GDP of 4.1% Namibia has 131 USD of GNP per capita but a 12.4 % annual growth rate of GDP. It is within the context of these basic parameters of land area, population distribution and economic status, that the forest sector of the five countries operated.

Table 1. BASIC DATA ON THE FIVE CASE STUDY COUNTRIES

Country	Land Area	Population				Economic indicators	
	Total, 1999 ('000 ha)	Total, 1999 (Thousands)	Density 1999 (Population/km2)	Annual rate of Change, 1995-2000 (%)	Rural 1999 (%)	GNP[1] Per capita, 1997 (US$)	Annual growth rate of GDP[2], 1997 (%)
Gabon	25 767	1 197	4.6	2.6	45.9	3 985	4.1
Namibia	82 329	1 695	2.1	2.3	61.1	131	12.4
Nigeria	91 077	108 945	119.6	2.4	56.9	239	3.9
Senegal	19 253	9 240	48.0	2.6	53.7	554	5.2
Sudan	237 600	28 883	12.2	2.1	64.9	255	4.6

Source: State of the world's forests 2001 (FAO 2001)

[1] Gross National Product (GNP) is the total value of the goods and services produced in a country during a specified period, usually a year.

[2] Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is the total volume of the goods and services produced in a country during a specified period, usually a year, excluding income from possessions and investments abroad.

The five case study countries are distributed along a climatic gradient from the desert conditions of northern Sudan, to the Sahelian savanna of northern Nigeria and Senegal to the moist tropical high forests of Gabon and southern Nigeria. Namibia with its very arid coastal Namib desert and the central plateau, is located along the southwestern part of Africa continent and like Senegal, Nigeria and Gabon have a coast line at the Atlantic ocean. In contrast Sudan is land locked.

While Gabon is heavily forested with over 80 percent forest cover, Namibia has only 10 percent of its land area under forest cover. In between the two ends of the spectrum Nigeria has about 15 percent, Sudan 26 percent and Senegal 32 percent of their respective land areas under forest cover. If forests are to contribute their full potential to food security and poverty reduction then data on forest area per capita is quite revealing (Table 3). As at 2000 Gabon had over 18 hectares of forested land per capita while at the other extreme Nigeria at the same period had a meager 0.1 hectares of forest per capita. Senegal (0.7), Sudan (2.1) and Namibia 4.1 hectares. This situation is rather preoccupying as more than half of the population of these forest deficit countries live in rural areas and eke out a living directly from the forests.

The term *forest cover*, as adopted in this document defines forests as including natural forests and forest plantations. It also refers to land with a tree canopy cover of more than 10 percent and area of more than 0.5 ha. Forests are determined both by the presence of trees and the absence of other predominant land uses (FAO 2001).

Table 2. The Status of Forest Resources in case study countries as of year 2000

Country	Land area ('000 ha)	Land Area covered by forest, in year 2000				Wood volume in forests (m3/ha)	Wood biomass in forests (t/ha)
		Total forest ('000 ha)	Percentage of land area (%)	Area per capita (ha)	Forest plantations ('000 ha)		
Gabon	25 767	21 826	84.7	18.2	36	128	137
Namibia	82 329	8 040	9.8	4.7	0	7	12
Nigeria	91 077	13 517	14.8	0.1	693	82	184
Senegal	19 252	6 205	32.2	0.7	263	31	30
Sudan	237 600	61 627	25.9	2.1	641	9	12

Source: State of the world's forests 2001 (FAO 2001)

3.2 Environmental Significance

Forest conditions and productivity, to a significant degree, is partially influenced by ecological settings. The dry climatic conditions of Namibia permitted its forests to yield in year 2000 a standing wood volume of 7 m3/ha only, while the wood volume in Gabon's forests at same period is a rich 128 m3/ha set in the Congo basin, endowed with moist ecosystems. Figures for wood volume in forests for Nigeria, Senegal and Sudan are 82 m3/ha; 31 m3/ha and 9 m3/ha respectively (Table 3). Gabon thus stands apart a`s possessing a luxuriant highly productive forests in terms of timber resources, while Senegal, Sudan and Namibia have a penury of timber. It should be noted that though Nigeria has a fair amount of productive forest, its forest area per capital is almost non-existent (0.1 ha) due to its burgeoning human population. Moreover the annual rate of forest cover change in Nigeria is high (-2.6%), as is the case in Sudan (-1.4 %), though in concrete terms Sudan lost 959 000ha of forest cover from 1990 to 2000. The annual rate of change of forest cover for Senegal and Namibia are modest, while that of Gabon is insignificant (table 3).

Table 3. Change in forest area, in the 5 case study countries between 1990 and year 2000

Country	Total forest, 1990 ('000 ha)	Total forest, 2000 ('000 ha)	Forest cover change, 1990 - 2000	
			Annual change ('000 ha)	Annual rate of change (%)
Gabon	21 927	21 826	-10	N.S.
Namibia	8 774	8 040	-73	-0.9
Nigeria	17 501	13 517	-398	-2.6
Senegal	6 655	6 205	-45	-0.7
Sudan	71 216	61 627	-959	-1.4

Source: State of the world's forests 2001 (FAO 2001)

Girard (2000), draws attention to concerns of environmentalists on the shift from fuelwood to charcoal for domestic cooking and heating in Africa due to increasing urbanization. Gabon has 54 % of its populations in urban centers and Nigeria and Senegal has almost 50 % of their population in urban centers. This is alarming considering that 1.1 tonnes of CO2 are released into the atmosphere per tonne of charcoal consumed (Girard 2002).

Box 1.

Some figures regarding economic and environmental Issues on charcoal production and use in Africa

Mass yields from a Casamance (Senegal) kiln and a well-managed traditional mound kiln are about 25 percent. In other words, I tonne of wood will give 250 kg of charcoal. With poorer techniques, however, yields often do not exceed 15 to 20 percent, in other words about 150 to 200 kg from one tonne of wood. Many charcoal makers, for example, use green wood, and the energy needed to dry it is provided by part of the load, reducing yields to 15 percent.

The carbon content of wood and charcoal is 50 and 90 percent respectively, giving the following carbon equivalents:

- 1 000 kg of wood = 500 kg of carbon;
- 250 kg of charcoal = 225 kg of carbon;
- 150 kg of charcoal = 135 kg of carbon.

When a tonne of wood is carbonized, 365 kg are released into the atmosphere with a poorly managed technique and 275 kg with improved methods. Improved technique thus prevents the emission of 90 kg of carbon per tonne of carbonized wood, equivalent to 300 kg of carbon or 1.1 tonnes of CO2 per tonne of charcoal consumed.

For the city of Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire, which consumes about 300 000 tonnes of charcoal per year, the annual savings amount to:

- 330 000 tonnes of CO2 emission avoided;
- 800 000 tonnes of wood not consumed as a result of the increased yield.

Source: Girard, P. 2002. *Charcoal production and use in Africa: what future?* Unasylva 211. Vol. 53, 2002

In countries with arid conditions, the forest sector, *inter alia*, plays an evident environmental function. A change in vegetation will lead to desertification process hence these countries (Namibia, Senegal, Sudan) tend to make concerted efforts in their nfp process. CILSS (Comité Inter-Etats de Lutte contre la Sécheresse au Sahel) was created, among other organs, to respond to this need. The preceding argument not withstanding, this notion of super vulnerability of the Sahelian ecosystem is not widely shared. The argument that any change in that ecosystem will necessarily lead to desertification is not very popular.

3.3 Economic significance of forests

The economic significance of forests and how these are perceived by the five nation states being studied present some variations as well as similarities. With the exception of Gabon where the timber is exported contributing 12% of the country's GDP, in the other 4 case study countries forestry contributes less than 3% to their GDP (Table 4). This estimate is based purely on timber exploitation as the ecological services (such as maintenance of biodiversity, climate change mitigation, water-shed protection, soil amelioration) , employment opportunities, pasture and fodder and habitat for wildlife, bush meat, firewood etc provided by the forests are not quantified in monetary terms, thus giving the erroneous impression that revenue generation from forestry sector is low or insignificant as in the case of Namibia.

Table 4. Contribution of forestry to the national economy of the 5 case countries

Country	Contribution of forestry to GDP (%)	Remarks
Gabon	12	Today, the forest sector in Gabon ranks second to petroleum exports in terms of the revenue it contributes to GDP, and employs directly 6 000 and over 10.000 people indirectly
Namibia	Not significant	Forestry is not a major formal industry that is typical of countries with luxuriant natural forests or industrial plantations. Instead, it plays a major role in the livestock industry, tourism and domestic energy supply, in addition to construction of shelter. This contribution has not managed a place in the national accounting system
Nigeria	2	This estimate is based purely on timber exploitation The sources of revenue generated by SFDs vary from the south to the North. Timber and related exploitation account for more than 70% of revenue accruing to the southern SFDs. The Northern SFDs due to the prevailing scanty vegetation, derive their revenue mainly from NTFPs, especially fuelwood, poles, Gum Arabic, fruits, oil, locust beans, game hunting, tannin, among others
Senegal	1.4	The forest sub-sector contributes about 5% of GDP of the agricultural sector, which experienced a drop from 40 to 28% between 1981-1992.
Sudan	3	Whereas forestry studies put it at more than 10% , the figures published by the Ministry of Finance lump it together with fisheries and put it as 2.99% (1988/89), 3.03% (1989/90), 2.73 (1992/93) and 3.0% in 1998.This ratio however is likely to continue decreasing with the increase of oil revenue.

Based solely on the occurrence and distribution of merchantable timber volumes and also the biomass statistics, a traditional forester would want to focus only on the forest rich Gabon and relegate the forest sectors of the semi-arid and arid countries such as Namibia, Sudan, Senegal and the northern part of Nigeria to the footnotes of a chapter on African forests. However the social functions of forests and its environmental significance in these semi-arid and arid countries are diverse and rich, though the

ecosystems and species are of different composition. For the predominantly semi-arid and arid countries of Namibia, Senegal, Sudan and to a lesser extent Nigeria, the contribution of the forest sector is not as minor as it may appear, especially when viewed in the context of its biological and environmental functions and direct use values. To illustrate: the woodlands and the savannahs all together, maintain vegetated ecosystems that are crucial to the livestock industry by being key grazing and browsing habitats. The livestock industry is a major export earner for Namibia and Sudan, while in Senegal and the savanna ecozone of Nigeria have a culture closely linked with livestock production.

Moreover, the ecosystem value of the woodland and savannah biomes, in addition to the gallery or riverine forests, are key centers of Namibia and Senegal's wildlife based tourism industry. Fencing of cultivated fields is done using stems and branches of trees. The crop protection function of the woodlands is probably the most underrated or unaccounted for agricultural input in the dry ecozones. The predominantly moist forest of Gabon and southern Nigeria are perceived by these countries as important source of re-investible capital and a source of income, serving as a foundation for industrialization and enhances the stability of the rural population. The economic impact of bush meat trade in African countries is significant. It was estimated that bush meat trade in Nigeria could range between US$ 50 – 60 million per annum (Molade 2000). Gabon like other African countries in the humid high forests of equatorial Africa rely heavily on bush meat as a source of animal protein in the diet of its populations.

The majority of populations in the 5 countries under review still rely on wood for fuel and house construction. The economic value of these two commodities, are enormous at a national scale. The arts and crafts industry, which has rapidly become an employer of thousands of populations on or below the poverty line, depends entirely on the indigenous woodlands. In Gabon, out of a total human population of 1.2 million, 6000 are estimated to be directly employed and 10 000 indirectly employed by the forestry sector. Clearly the stakes are presumably high for rural populations relative to making decisions and plans on how to manage and use these forest resources.

Forests and woodlands are widely acknowledged to provide critical environmental services ranging from watershed protection, climate moderation and habitat for diverse biological entities. These services, though having global as well as local impacts, the forests must be locally managed. The local communities living in and around these forests are the front-line group of stakeholders to take up this responsibility on a daily basis. And over 50 percent of the populations of the 4 case study countries (with the exception of Gabon) live in/around these forests and woodlands Table 1.

The set of five countries under review can be divided into two relatively distinct ecological zones: the humid dense tropical forest countries, and the dry tropical forest countries. These characteristic features lead to certain sector priorities. Gabon and southern Nigeria produce timber and for Gabon it is also an important exporter of logs, in fact with timber ranking as the second export produce. While Namibia, Sudan, Senegal (including northern Nigeria) are countries in which the wood based economy represents only a negligible share of the orthodox computed gross national production. And as mentioned above these dry forests mainly provide fuel for households and fodder for livestock, giving rise to competition between forestry, agriculture and pastoralism. Another standpoint for viewing the five countries is in terms of the population characteristics with Nigeria being in a class of its own with a huge population density; and Namibia and Gabon having very low population density (Table 1). Senegal is some where in the middle of the two extremes. Yet another characteristic feature of the case study countries is the fact that 3 out of the 5 case countries have their national economies driven by the petroleum market (for almost four decades Nigeria and Gabon; and for Sudan petroleum started in 1999). However the rich financial gains accruing from these mined natural resources may not have adequately elevated the living

standards of the citizenry of these countries. Majority of the populace across the five countries under review are stricken with poverty (Table 6). In the context of persistent poverty, the threat to natural resources depletion is high and objective planning and implementation rest on shaky foundation. The nfp process in the five case study countries indeed are subject to challenges of this nature.

Of these five African countries two - Sudan and Senegal - have internal civil armed conflict, while Nigeria's ethnic violent clashes are common and crime is rife. The political instability and conflicts are in some instances linked to inequity in the distribution of the wealth accruing from the natural resources. Planning and implementation of coherent, long-term management of forests in a politically unstable and insecure atmosphere is a daunting task.

With the exception of Namibia (12.2% GDP), the overall economic performance of the other four countries has been sluggish and in many cases the per capita incomes have declined during the last 10 years. In view of these weaknesses in key economic variables, savings and investments are low indicating that the pace of economic growth is slow (Table 1.). Poverty in general is on the rise.

There has been very little diversification of the economies and agriculture and allied activities continue to be the most important source of livelihood for the majority of people. Much of the society in the five countries is agrarian in nature and mainly subsistence agriculture, as there have not been significant changes in the application of technologies and this has resulted in horizontal expansion of agriculture. Furthermore, Senegal, and Sudan have a commercialized cash crop sector entirely geared for exports. However there has been a considerable decline in the prices of cash crops undermining export incomes.

3.4 Sector priorities as defined by governments and other forest users

These factors characterizing the countries under study have led to the setting of some priorities in the forestry sector. For Nigeria the priority as articulated by the government in the *Perspective Plan for Forestry Development in Nigeria, 1990 - 2005* is directed at extracting and utilization of the goods and services that could be derived from forests. The government also recommended administrative changes, especially at the state level, where a Forestry board should be created to administer forestry matters. The fact that the present area of plantations in the country is far less than 300,000 hectares attests to the dismal level of success achieved so far against the targets set in the perspective plan for forest development in Nigeria (FMANR, 1988 in Adedoyin, 2001).

The aspirations and priorities of the rural population were encapsulated in the Rural Forestry Development programme established in 1981 in Nigeria. Through this programme the government sought to address the rural communities' dependence on forests for their fuelwood, vegetables, fruits and raw materials for building houses, boats and other infrastructure. It was designed to boost wood production through the involvement and encouragement of rural communities, co-operatives, institutions, individuals, entrepreneurs and the general public in the establishment of village woodlots, fuel-wood plantation, farm trees, hedges and shade trees on areas outside forest reserves. Other ancillary objectives included: promotion of rural employment and development; encouraging and promoting amenity plantings in residential quarters and public places; reclaiming and enriching barren and marginal lands through afforestation; and the introduction of Taungya systems (Agroforestry) to local farmers. Unfortunately, this programme was not able to realise its set objectives. It however, provided the basis for future community participation in forestry development initiatives. It could be inferred from the case of Nigeria that, while the government prioritized timber extraction and environmental protection, the rural population focused on NWFP. The government also prioritized reforms aimed at

devolution of authority to decentralized institutions such as the State Forestry Departments (SFD). The articulation of sector priorities in the 1990 – 2005 Perspective Plan is seen as a fledgling attempt at iterative long-term strategic planning that is in line with goals and objectives of nfp in general.

In arid and semi-arid Namibia, Sudan, Senegal and northern Nigeria, the priority includes conservation of woodfuels by improving charcoal production, increasing the utilization efficiency of fuelwood and charcoal and streamlining the charcoal industry through appropriate policy interventions; institutional strengthening at the different tiers of government, improvement of arrangements for protection and management of woodlands both inside and outside forest reserves, and increasing wood supplies through tree planting partly for fuelwood but largely for other purposes (small wood-based industries, pulp , and mostly for the protective value for agricultural environment and watershed). But with the exploration of petroleum in Sudan, firewood is no longer the main energy source for bakeries (the biggest erstwhile consumer of firewood). And Sudan has shifted from a net importer of petroleum derivatives to a net exporter with huge amounts of LPG, the consumption of charcoal has dropped drastically. For the forest rich Gabon, the sector is characterized by: its dependence on external markets which is very sensitive to the vagaries of international economic order; low rate of processing of forest products despite measures employed to enhance processing of raw materials (e.g., setting up of industrial permits, etc); low impact of revenue derived from forest on rural development; absence of value addition of forest products especially NTFP; exclusive ownership of forest by the state which results to absence of participatory management of forest resources.

The stated governmental objective of Gabon's action plan for its forests was to reconcile use of ecosystem resources for economic development and the sustainability of these resources.

It is interesting to note that though there are significant variation in the economic parameters (GDP etc), population density, extent of endowment in natural resources, and even in ecological setting of the five countries under review, there is however an easily observable poverty across most of the people, especially the rural populations, in these five sub-saharan countries. This is due mainly to the skewed distribution of income, poor governance and weak institutional arrangements within the countries. For the civil society within the concerned countries, the priority for the forest sector is geared towards ensuring that the sector contributes its full potential to employment, food security, economic and cultural well being of the rural population. But for international environmental organizations as well as the world community the overriding priority is for the forests in each of the five countries to protect the physical environment, upon which economic priorities would be sustained. It becomes discernable thus, that the priorities as defined by various interest groups, determine the stakeholders in the sector. These stakeholders across the case study countries include: the state, the civil society, transnational timber companies, private sector, nongovernmental, intergovernmental agencies and community based organizations.

4.0 ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND INSTITUTIONAL ENVIRONMENT IN THE CASE STUDY COUNTRIES RELATIVE TO NFP FORMULATION AND IMPLEMENTATION

This section compares and contrasts between the countries in an attempt to identify factors that result in similarities and differences in the approach to nfp formulation and implementation. The following aspects have been categorized:

- the relative economic importance of the various forest goods and services and the user-dependence;
- the demographics of the users, dependent peoples and stakeholder groups;
- forest policy and legislative environment – in relation to the main forestry goals and empowerment of stakeholders
- importance of agriculture sector; and the changes in the relative significance of the different sectors
- political and institutional environment, notably those relating to the extent of decentralization, democratization, involvement of the private sector, role of NGOs and the civil society organization

4.1 The relative economic importance of forest resources and extent of user-dependence.

The relative economic importance of the various forest goods and services and the user-dependence on the forest commodities is linked to the priority a given poor country ascribes to its national forest programme. The percentage of 1991 real GDP derived from forestry was for: Nigeria (16), Sudan (13), Senegal (4) and Gabon (6). There was no data for Namibia (Table 6). Nigeria and Sudan that derived over 10 percent of their GDP from forest sector are already at the implementation stage of the nfp, while Gabon is still in the planning stage. Though Senegal is equally implementing its nfp, this may be attributed to other factors among which are: the level of commitment by the government in development of the sector; as well as the strong donor support Senegal enjoys in the sector. Namibia records as insignificant, the contribution of forestry to its GDP, yet in this relatively young nation state, forestry which is not a major formal industry (as in Gabon and Nigeria), plays a major role in the livestock industry, tourism and domestic energy supply in addition to construction of shelter. These indirect contribution of the sector to Namibia's economy have not managed to find a place yet in the accounting system but may have played a key role in encouraging the country to give priority to nfp process. Namibia is at the implementation stage of its nfp.

Nigeria with per Capita GDP of US$ 954, in 1997 and under US$2000 for Senegal and Sudan, these three countries are in dire need of potential income accruing from forests, it is thus understandable that they are implementing nfp. Senegal and Namibia are both arid zone countries but due to the better economic standing of Namibia, it is able to invest in its nfp even when the forest sector's contribution to its economy is judged negligible. This is explained by the fact that, the average annual percent real GDP growth (1990-1998) for Namibia is 3.5 but in 1997 its annual growth rate of GDP was 12.4 percent, thus Namibia's government appears to enjoy some economic well being to enable it take interest in addressing its environmental challenges through nfp in contrast to Senegal (World Bank and WWF, 2002).

4.2 The demographics of forest users and dependent groups

Another factor that results in similarities and differences in the approach to nfp formulation and implementation is the demographics of the users, dependent peoples and stakeholder groups. Nigeria's population parameters are enormous in all aspects, for example, it has a total population of 109 million in 1999, a population density of 120/km2 in 1999, annual rate of change 2.4 during the period 1995 to 2000; and about 57 percent of its population living in rural area in 1999 (Table 1). When these figures are compared to those of Sudan with a land area more than twice of that of Nigeria or Namibia with a land area slightly less than that of Nigeria, it becomes obvious why Nigeria in 1981 formulated its Rural Forestry development programme, which laid the foundation of participatory forest today. In contrast, other factors being equal, countries with low population densities such as Namibia (2.1/km2), Gabon (4.6/km2), and Sudan (12.2/km2) have more elbow room to formulate and implement their nfp as the users, households, and stakeholder groups directly dependent on the forest and affected by sector policies are fewer and alternatives are easier to come by. Senegal's population fundamentals, - comprising: density (48/km2), an annual rate of change of 2.6 % and 53 % of population living in rural area – do not portray it as exerting much pressure on its natural resources as that of Nigeria. The same trend, however, is almost discernable. And Senegal's attitude to its nfp is comparable with that of Nigeria where the government is putting emphasis in participatory forest management and decentralization – the hallmark of nfp formulation and implementation. Gabon's population is concentrated in the urban areas (54%). This is comparable with the population distribution in Senegal where urban population in 1999 was under 46%. A high urban population may signify poverty in the rural areas and degradation of the natural resource base. Concentration of population in urban areas especially in ecologically fragile ecosystem such as the arid and semi arid cities in Senegal may spell ecological disaster as the carrying capacity of the immediate and surrounding environment is rapidly overstretched. In contrasting the Senegal scenario with those of Sudan and Namibia which are also arid countries, with 65% and 61% respectively of their population in rural areas, it could be deducted that rural based communities should be key stakeholders in nfp processes in these countries.

4.3 Forest policy and legislative environment, relative to forestry goals and stakeholder empowerment.

In four of the case study countries forest policy and legislation have undergone changes in favour of holistic and coherent principles on which nfps are based (Table 5). In the case of Sudan, the 1989 Act of the Forests National Corporation has been amended through a new Forestry Act in 2002 creating the National Corporation for Forests and Range. The Forest Policy of 1986 is being revised through an FAO supported forestry project together with institutional reorganization to accommodate recent action by the Government towards decentralization. The policy and legislative reforms in all the 5 countries have to a certain extent created conducive environment for the actualization of the main forestry goals and the empowerment of stakeholders. Forest policy and legislation are key elements as well as important tools for nfp process and have in the 5 countries served well the nfp process

Table 5 Changes in Legal and Institutional Framework

Country	Changes in Legal and Institutional Framework
Gabon	Forest legislation recently reviewed (no Date given)
Namibia	Forest legislation recently reviewed (1998)
Nigeria	Forest legislation reviewed 2002, adoption process ongoing 2003
Senegal	Forest legislation reviewed 1998
Sudan	1989 Forest Act of amended 2002

4.4 Importance of agriculture sector and changes relative to other sectors

The impact of the agriculture sector and changes in the relative significance of the different sectors on forestry give credence to the need to view forestry in a holistic manner. The economies of Nigeria, Gabon and Sudan (to a lesser extent) are largely dependent on petroleum with the other sector contributing minimally to the GDP (Table 7). That notwithstanding agricultural cropland is consuming large tracts of land in Nigeria, Sudan and Namibia (Table 6 below). Senegal is spared of this menace as the percentage change in cropland from 1982-1984 to 1992-1994 in the country is only 0.2 even when the Rural Population Density (people /sq. km of arable land) is high – 212. Three of the case study countries – Senegal, Nigeria and Sudan are ranked as having low Human Development Index (in terms of life expectancy, education and adjusted real income in 2002, while Namibia and Gabon were classified as having achieved medium human development. These Human Development Index (HDI) ranking, gives an image of the potential difficulties that the nfp process in the five countries are predisposed to, considering that poverty embracing low literacy level, short life expectancy etc will encourage subsistence agriculture with its horizontal expansion. It is quite revealing that Nigeria and Sudan having a strong petroleum sector still lose large tracts of land to agriculture, thus would require strong and effective policies to reverse this trend. A nfp integrating these intersectoral linkages may be quite slow in both formulation and implementation. Gabon, when compared to the other four case study countries has a fairly good economic standing, low percentage of real GDP derived from Agriculture and a good percentage of Rural population that is vested in forestry but the nfp process has not advanced. The issue in Gabon, appears to be inadequate technical skills, coupled with the over-dependence in oil revenues.

Table 6. Population, Changes in agriculture sector; Human Development Index, and Economic parameters relative to forestry in Gabon, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal and Sudan

Country	Per Capita GDP in 1997 (US$)	Average Annual % real GDP Growth (1990 – 98)	% of 1991 real GDP derived from forestry	Rural population (Vested in forestry) as % of 1997Total population	% of 1998 real GDP derived from Agriculture	% Change in Cropland from 1982-1984 to 1992-1994	1996 Rural Population Density (people /sq. km of arable land)	Petroleum exporting country	Human Development Index (in terms of life expectancy, education and adjusted real income)
Gabon	7751	3.3	6	47.9	7.2	1.8	169	X	Medium (117/173)
Namibia	5087	3.5		62.1	9.2	6.6	122		Medium (122/173)
Nigeria	954	3	16	58.7	31.4	6.1	225	X	Low (148/173)
Senegal	1753	2.7	4	55	17.3	0.2	212		Low (154/173)
Sudan	1628	7.3	13	66.8	49	3.3	142	X	Low (139/173)

Source: World Bank and WWF. 2002. Forest Law Assessment in Selected African Countries. SGS Global Trade Solutions (GTS), Geneva, Switzerland.

4.5 Political and Institutional environment impacting on nfp in case study countries

The HDI mirrors the weak institutional development of all the five countries (Table 6). The political and institutional environment, notably those relating to the extent of decentralization, democratization, involvement of the private sector, role of NGOs and the civil society organization appears to exert significant influence over the nfp process. To illustrate, Nigeria and Sudan have a long history of forestry institutions and this has some advantages in that better technical capacity and strong forestry traditions have developed. The other side of the coin is that this also has the disadvantages of entrenching resistance to change, as is the case in Sudan where only 6 states out of the 26 federated states accepted to implement joint management of state forest with the central government. In Nigeria, the same phenomenon is manifest, as southern forest rich states are reluctant to re-align their forest legislation to incorporate key contemporary and emerging sector issues. This reluctance to part with traditional way of doing business hampers nfp process. In contrast, Namibia has a very small and young forestry institution and hence there is more willingness to change, and delivery is much faster.

In Senegal and Gabon environmental NGOs are many and are essentially independent contributing significantly to strengthening grassroots institutions, laying solid foundations for nfp to build on.

A strong wave of decentralization in forest administration is being experienced in Senegal and Nigeria. In Senegal, there have been dramatic changes in forestry planning processes. Of the five case study countries, Senegal has explicitly enacted Decree N0. 96-1134 for the application of Law N0. 96-07, aimed at devolution of authority to regions, counties and rural communities. In Nigeria, the National Forestry Development Committee is the highest advisory body to the central government on forestry matters but the review of the National Forest Policy and the evolving National Forestry Act was carried out in 2002 through a participatory approach in development. It is widely acknowledged that mobilizing the civil society to get involved in policy formulation, policy design and implementation as well as evolution of a law, will command the respect of, and observance by many. This is the basic ingredient for sustainable forest management, a key objective nfp. On the other hand in Namibia and Sudan, decentralization process is still in its infancy. Only a few states in Sudan (six states out of twenty six) opted for a joint administration to manage both federal and state forests. However, the Forest Policy of 1986 is being revised together with institutional reorganization to accommodate recent action by the Government towards decentralization. The preceding have encapsulated in them seeds, possessing traits that have the potentials of making a difference to the process of nfp formulation and implementation.

5.0 THE PROCESS OF NFP FORMULATION

This section gives importance to identification of similarities and differences in the nfp formulation process in the five case study countries and it attempts to determine the factors that are responsible for the prevailing situation in these countries. Throughout this section and the next, reference is made to the basic principles for formulation and implementation of the National Forest Programmes, which were summarized in Agenda 21 and the Forest Principles of UNCED. These principles were finally adopted as the key elements and were laid down in the IPF Final Report of 1997. In sum the basic principles for formulation, implementation and revision of National Forest Programme include the following:

- Sustainability of forest development;
- National sovereignty and country leadership;
- Partnership;
- Participation;
- Holistic and inter-sectoral approach;
- A long-term iterative process;
- Capacity building;
- Policy and Institutional reforms;
- Consistency with national policy framework and global initiatives;
- Raising awareness;
- National policy commitment; and
- International commitment.

In general, all the five countries have formulated nfps. Nigeria and Sudan had similar experiences, to an appreciable extent, in the period leading up to drawing up their respective nfps. Both countries faced political and economic isolation from international community. Namibia and Senegal enjoyed technical and financial assistance from bilateral and multilateral agencies. Key elements of the nfp (forest policy, legislation strategic plans) have been revised in Nigeria, Namibia, Sudan and Senegal, since its initial formulation. The five case countries made some efforts to address the following basic forest principles: national sovereignty; country led process; stake-holders involvement; poverty alleviation; capacity building; decentralization; linkages with related sectors; economic viability of the forest sub-sector. In the end, they adopted nfps that met some of the essential forest principles, a few like Senegal, Sudan and Namibia went beyond traditional forest concerns to address issues of environmental protection, drought and desertification, biodiversity and conservation of natural resources.

5.1 Sustainability of forest development

The rational of the National Forest Programme is to ensure the conservation and sustainable development of forest resources. The formulation of nfp in Sudan, Namibia, Senegal were internally driven, reflecting the felt need of their government and people. Namibia started in 1994 without any prodding from any external aid. A key motive, among others, behind this was the fact that the young Directorate of forestry created in 1990, after existing as a small division under agriculture for over 70 years represented a new political support for the sector and in itself a major challenge for the Directorate to demonstrate its worth in an arid and semi-arid country. Namibia opted for a planning process that took about a year to carryout and christened its approach *National Forestry Strategic*

Plan. In Sudan, the nfp was conceived simultaneously or just before the official launching of the TFAP (1985), yet Sudan's nfp formulation to a large extent reflected the essence and main purpose for which the IPF established the process. Senegal, like Namibia being a semi-arid and arid country conceived its nfp as a response to a combination of factors that eroded the natural resource base of Senegal namely: drought; soil salinisation; bush fires; subsistence agriculture expanding horizontally and wittering away forest land; and over-harvesting of woody materials.

In the cases of Nigeria and Gabon, the nfp was initiated at the behest of the donors, however prior to assistance by the donor community, successive administrations in Nigeria made various attempts to ensure the efficient management of her forest resources. These include the setting up of the forest service, the creation of a Federal Department of Forestry in 1970 and the enactment and promulgation of various laws, edicts and decrees by various governments. Furthermore, some programmes and action plans were developed to achieve sustainable forest development in the country, prominent amongst which are Reservation Policy, Establishment of Industrial Plantations, Land Use and Vegetation Survey, Perspective Plan for Forestry Development and the Tropical Forests Action Programme (TFAP). Of all these programmes in Nigeria, it was only TFAP that was process oriented, had a national scope and took into consideration key contemporary issues in its formulation. Gabon, like Nigeria has internalized the nfp process, though the process was a response to donor prodding. Gabon has evolved from having a commission for classification of forests as its institutional framework for concertation on forestry matters to putting in place a Programme for Investment in Forest/Environment Sector (PSFE). One of the main reason for this is the decision taken by the government of Gabon to diversify its economy given that petroleum production which until 1996 contributed 80% of Gabon's GDP was declining. Gabon has come up with a comprehensive forest policy Framework that is national in scope and formulated in a participatory manner.

An important factor to the sustainability of the nfp process is the existence of several institutional and planning frameworks in the countries. The practical influence exerted on the nfp formulation/implementation process by the multiplicity of forest related institutions and planning frameworks (Table 7) appears to be positive and may contribute constructively to nfp sustainability. Nonetheless, in some countries (e.g., Madagascar, Mali and Guinea), this multiplicity of institutional and planning frameworks has resulted into conflicts and institutional paralysis.

Notwithstanding that in Senegal, Nigeria and Gabon some difficulties were experienced by forestry staff because donor agencies had their preferences relative to particular institutional or planning framework, the proliferation of national planning frameworks in line with the different international conventions and agreements (Table 7) tend to have a mutual reinforcing effect and throws light on the necessity for interdependencies and interlinkages between sectors. Moreover, the emerging quest for overall protection of the environment and Poverty Reduction have also recognized the need for synergy among the various planning frameworks.

TABLE 7. Major International conventions and agreements ratified by the case study countries.

Country	STATUS OF RATIFICATION OF INTERNATIONAL CONVENTIONS							International Tropical timber Agreement 1994 (ITTO members)
	Convention on Biological Diversity	FCCC	Kyoto Protocol Of (FCCC)	Convention to Combat Desertificatio n	5.1	Ramsar Convention	World Heritage Convention	
Gabon	X	X	-	X	X	X	X	X
Namibia	X	X	-	X	X	X	X	
Nigeria	X	X	-	X	X		X	
Senegal	X	X	-	X	X	X	X	
Sudan	X	X	-	X	X		X	

Source: State of the World's forests 2001 (FAO 2001).

In full recognition of the socio economic situations as in the five sub-Saharan African countries under review, nfp formulation process had been innovative, integrating basic elements (such as a participatory approach, focus on creating enabling policy and institutional environment) that should ensure its sustainability. Moreover the 5 countries demonstrated their commitment in continuing making efforts in this direction by the various policy reforms already effected.

5.2 Broad based approach to nfp formulation involving other sectors and Actors

One of the basic principles for nfp is to ensure that the policy and institutional framework is conducive to sustainable forestry development and should address policy and institutional issues in a comprehensive manner, recognizing the interdependence and linkages between sectors. There is ample evidence that Senegal, Namibia, Nigeria and Sudan adopted a broad based approach in formulation of their respective nfps. In Senegal, decentralization process was initiated in 1984 within the framework of the new agriculture policy. Within this fertile soil of decentralization and inclusiveness, the Senegal Forest Programme was formulated in 1992, with the fundamental concept underpinning Senegal's forest policy being development of sustainable partnership in management of forest resources. Furthermore in 1998 Senegal reviewed its decentralization process and adopted a programme approach which focuses on comprehensive programmes rather than individual projects. Gabon involved other sectors such as environment and private investors (logging companies), bilateral and multilateral organizations. Gabon also carried out consultations to rural areas. However due to absence of extension and information services participation of rural communities was limited.

Nigeria is an interesting case study as it has just concluded a revision of its National Forest Programme in December 2002. Nigeria has a federal system of government in which responsibilities are shared between the federal and state governments and local authorities within the states. It has an established mechanism for consultations with stakeholders over the development of the forestry sector. The National Forestry Development Committee is a forum for the state forestry departments

and other stakeholders to come together to review progress in implementing the forestry programmes in each state and to discuss the broader aspects of nfp implementation. Currently the composition of the National Forestry Development Committee includes the 36 Directors of the State Forestry Departments plus about 15 other stakeholders from NGOs, CBOs, academia and representatives from other sector sectors of the economy such as agriculture and energy. Similarly, Sudan started operating a federal system of government in 1994, in which the country is administratively divided into 117 provinces, grouped into 26 states. Although Sudan could not get the full participation at a national scope as a result of the civil strive, nevertheless, a local preparation effort aimed at initial data collection for nfp formulation, together with the process of consultations, enabled the various agencies involved in the nfp formulation, to understand better their mutual interests and specific requirements.

5.3 Factoring in key social, economic, institutional and political development into nfp process.

One of the common features of the nfp formulation across the five case study countries is that the process accommodated key socio-economic, institutional and political development of their various nations. In Namibia, planning of the forestry sector development to ensure that the sector makes meaningful contribution and improvement to Namibia's economy, is guided by four long-term national objectives: reviving and sustaining economic growth; creating employment opportunities, which is a priority for the Government; poverty alleviation; and reducing inequalities in income. In addition, the Directorate of Forestry started to prepare a forestry strategic plan (national forest programme) in 1995, in order to address the problems of production, protection and participation in the forestry sector. Namibia notwithstanding that it introduced in 1992 its first National Forest Policy, reviewed it in 1998 to conform to the major development objectives outlined in the National Development Plans I and II, and to be in line with the global policies of the 1992 UNCED. And in November 2001, a revised Forestry Development Policy for Namibia was approved. The national forest programme was developed with the following broad principles in mind: Forestry development ought to be guided and must contribute to National Development Objectives; Any planning in the natural resources field requires a thorough analysis of institutional capacities, macro-economic frameworks and general issues of economic performance; and Forests and forest resources need to have local relevance to justify local investments and in addition, they have global benefits, which should then be balanced with local needs. Indeed the following four programmes areas constitute Namibia's Forestry Strategic Plan: Public sector capacity building; Community-level management of natural forests; Farm forestry; and State management of environmental forestry. These concrete steps demonstrate that Namibia updates its nfp to include emerging local, national and global socio-economic, political and institutional issues and also is evidence that its nfp is designed as long-term and is iterative.

The case of Gabon compares well with that of Nigeria. The strategic orientation for Gabon's nfp focused on the following three priorities: (i) Conserving and tracking the quality and quantity of the nation's forest resources; (ii)Sustainable management of the forest resources leading to economic development, poverty reduction and reduction of unemployment level in the country; and (iii) Participation of all concerned partners and groups in the sustainable management of the forest ecosystem.

The process of nfp formulation in the five countries under review has experienced several changes all in an attempt to adjust to prevailing socio-economic, political and institutional changes, becoming

more proactive to emerging ones. A typical example is Senegal where forest sector programming started in 1979 with the National Forestry Development Plan (PDDF); replaced by tropical forest action plan (PAFT, 1984); followed by Plan of Action for Senegal's Forest (PAFS) in 1991; the Higher Council on Environment and Natural Resources (CONSER) in 1993; Regional Forestry Action Plans and Environmental Action Plan (PAFR and PNAE) in 1997 and the National Programme for the Fight Against Desertification (PAN/LCD) in 1998. The nfp in Senegal was adopted in 1992 by the government and was immediately followed by an international round-table which witnessed the participation of the civil society, NGOs, aid donors, and partners for development. Senegal's nfp emphasized three aspects: Conservation of forest resources; satisfaction of the rural population's needs for wood and charcoal; Social and economic equilibrium. In order to meet these objectives, it was recommended that the rural population and Community Based Organizations be actively involved in forest management.

5.4 Expected fundamental changes from the nfp process.

All the five countries under review made explicit efforts, in the design and formulation of their respective nfp processes, to bring about fundamental changes. To illustrate, Sudan's nfp acted within the framework of a comprehensive national strategy for socioeconomic development (1992 – 2002), and called for allocation of 25% of the total land area for natural resources including: forestry, pasture, range and wildlife conservation areas.

In demonstrating its commitment to bring about basic and central changes in the sector through the process of formulation of its nfp, Namibia drafted a new forest policy in 1998 which was adopted in 2000. The aims of the revised policy of 2000 are: To reconcile rural development with the conservation of biological diversity by, empowering farmers and local communities to manage forest resources on a sustainable basis; To increase the yields of benefits of the national woodlands through research and development, application of silvicultural practices, protection and promotion of the requisite economic support projects; Create favourable conditions to attract investment in small and medium industry based on wood and non-wood forest raw materials; To implement innovative land use strategies, including multiple use conservation areas, protected areas, agro-forestry and a variety of other approaches designed to yield global benefits.

The Nigerian experience in this regard, follows same pattern as Sudan and Namibia examined above. Nigeria in an attempt to bring about fundamental changes to the sector, recently (December 2002), concluded a participatory process to draw up a natural forest policy and a National Forest Act, prior to the nfp formulation process. Nigeria did not have a forest legislation of a national scope, each of the 37 states have their respective independent forest legislation. In terms of fundamental changes, Senegal's forestry sector is one of the bright stars in the sky of social forestry in Africa. Senegal has experimented with decentralization as well as with key planning initiatives and could serve as a repository of important lessons for other dry-zone countries.

The organization and relative length of time in existence of the forestry sector appear to be another important factor impacting on the speed with which changes are effected in the nfp formulations. The examples of Nigeria and Sudan with long histories of forestry institutions (Nigeria forestry sector dates 1887 and that of Sudan 1901) give credence to this hypothesis. Namibia enjoys a much more recent history, with a formal, functional distinct forestry sector established only in 1990. In Senegal, the department of forestry was created in 1935 as a unit under Agriculture service (Niang 2003). The forestry department of both Gabon and Senegal at inception, were administratively under the overall

control of the General Inspectorate of French forest service for central and west Africa respectively, until these countries achieved independence in the 1960s.

Though there are evidences that there is more resistance in changing the entrenched attitudes to forestry in Nigeria and Sudan with their century old set ways of doing business than in Namibia, this trait may not all be traced back to the single factor of age, another contributing factor could be that both Nigeria and Sudan are operating a federated system of governance which gives enormous powers to the constituent states or provinces to administer forest ecosystem and wooded lands within their territory. Getting a consensus in this type of government system is not always the easiest exercise to embark on. It added more layers to forestry governance and further slows down the process of change, aimed at, by the nfp formulation. Namibia on the other hand, had moved swiftly to effect changes in its short history of having a full fledged forestry sector. This relative rapid pace of change, may also be attributed in part to its national pride and motivation as a newly declared independent state nation. The growing economic well-being and the low population may have also helped Namibia speed up and integrate changes during its nfp formulation. Gabon, in comparison, which also has a small population density, and is economically well off, is not experiencing positive changes in its forest sector at a pace similar to that of Namibia. Reasons for a slower pace of positive change effected during nfp formulation may be related to Gabon's quasi total dependence on petroleum for over four decades. In addition, the format of administration in Gabon and Senegal is a historical product of the French centralized governance structure. Foot prints of this cultural influence is still discernable.

5.5 Adherence to the basic principles of nfp formulation

The present review has revealed that the five case study countries aimed at making fundamental changes in the forestry sector through the design and formulation of their respective nfp. Nevertheless, a few deficiencies were identified in the formulation process across these countries of which the key ones are discussed hereunder.

The participatory base of the nfp formulation process in Nigeria was judged too narrow and needed broadening. Again the analysis during the development of policy were somewhat shallow. Moreover the draft Forestry Act did not reflect all the elements of the policy, which it is supposed to enforce. At the time of formulation of the nfp in Nigeria, the National Forestry Development Committee which is the highest advisory body to the government on forestry matters was almost non-functional during the period of nfp formulation (1988 – 2000). The organization of system of governance in Nigeria during this period did not help the process because Nigeria became a pariah state in the 1990s with the advent of a very unpopular military regime. Democracy, the bedrock of nfp formulation and implementation was lacking. Attempts have been made to address these problems. In 1999, Nigeria reverted to democratic governance and it revised her nfp in 2002. The principal challenge still facing its nfp is to develop effective and efficient strategy and mechanism to mobilize domestic financial resources to continue forest sector development.

Deficiencies in Nigeria's nfp formulation case could be said to be typical of the other four countries to varying degrees. Initially planned for three years, it took Gabon six years to draft its nfp, a significant part of the delay was the inability to commence the process because of inadequate country leadership and responsibility. FAO had to field an international consultant to kick start the process. Again due to low level of international community commitment the donor round table scheduled for December 2000 has never materialized. In the case of Sudan which is well aware of the basic principles and was

proactive in integrating a good number of them while formulating its nfp, but is still plagued with coping with the implications of its federal system of government (117 provinces grouped under 26 states) where the states consider forests as revenue generating sector engendering conflict between the central government (FNC specifically) and the states. Inadequacies in the forest policy statement of 1986, in terms of socio-economic, environmental, constitutional and administrative factors are currently being addressed and accommodated in the revised version to be rolled out at a later date.

Another area in which weakness has been observed in nfp formulation is the development of the planning and implementation capacity of national institutions and other actors in order to ensure the country's self-reliance in carrying out its nfp. Namibia and Gabon share this weakness in which human resources development, in terms of qualified national forestry personnel is lacking (Namibia at independence in 1990 had no national trained as a professional forester). Where the capacity to plan and implement programmes and projects is poorly developed, it would hardly be surprising that informed partnership and participation of a large segment of the citizenry in both countries would be rudimentary. At the other end of the spectrum is Senegal which seems to have made very great efforts to decentralize the formulation of its nfp, instituted capacity building at all levels of social organization, designed forestry management within the context of sustainable land management and economic development and continue to integrate poverty reduction in its forestry programmes. Yet Senegal has observed that decentralization process is laborious, requiring enormous amount of resources and time with mixed results, at least in the short run. Senegal like Nigeria before, it is in the process of evaluating its forest programmes and revising its nfp.

5.6 Situation at the end of the nfp formulation process

It may not be very appropriate to categorically pronounce on what has been the situation at the end of the nfp formulation process in the five case countries because, some outcome may be delayed in its manifestation and some manifested outcome maybe a transitory state to a higher more positive status or vice versa. While Gabon has proceeded to the level of making preparations for organizing a national workshop for validation of the nfp in December 1999 (which did not take place), Namibia, Senegal, Nigeria and Sudan have made more concrete advances. Some of these tangible outcome of the nfp formulation are evident. In Namibia, for example, the country has undertaken a Forestry Planning exercise and is now endowed with a national Forest Policy, a Forestry Strategic Plan under implementation. The Plan, also called the Namibia Forest Programme (NFP), forms an integral part of the National Development Plan and NFP proposed activities are related to the programme of the Public sector Investment. Tangible outcome of the nfp formulation in Senegal expresses itself in the knowledge of causes and effects of forest resources and in the mastery of planning and implementation of resource management policy and de-concentration and divulging of responsibilities to the citizenry.

To the extent the countries succeeded in defining their institutional framework and employ participation of as many interest groups, to that degree would they have achieved tangible results in the area of raising the awareness of the parties concerned in forest conservation and sustainable utilization as well as reinforcing the capacity of key actors in the sector. In Nigeria as well as Sudan and Gabon, the formulation of the nfp was based on an in-depth sector analysis on forestry and related sectors undertaken by indigenous and international consultants who worked on different aspects of the sector. This effort to provide updated knowledge of the natural resources at the national level is significant, moreover as the linkages between poverty reduction, food security and the forestry sector

were explicitly addressed in a way that was likely to increase the contribution of the forestry sector to poverty reduction.

5.7 Duration of the nfp formulation process and its impact on nfp quality

Analysis on the length of time the process of formulating an nfp took (table 8 below), and the impact this may have had on the quality of the nfp, show that a protracted process (Gabon and Nigeria) results in a qualitatively weaker nfp, while a relatively shorter process (Namibia, Sudan and Senegal) results in a qualitatively better nfp. One explanation for this apparent negative impact of an over-stretched time frame in nfp formulation on the nfp quality, is that motivation and commitment tend to be lost in a protracted process and moreover it may even be over taken by other politically more expedient events.

Table 8. Duration of nfp formulation and the impact on nfp quality in the five case study countries

Country	Duration of nfp formulation	Impact on nfp quality
Gabon	1993 – 1999 (6 years)	Nfp process weakened. Pocess ended with a validation workshop. Has been stalled since then.
Namibia	1992 National Forest policy 1995 – 1996 National Forestry strategic Plan 1995 – 1998 Revision of 1992 Forest Policy 2001 Approval of the Development Forestry Policy	Satisfactory. The Forestry Strategic Plan produced in 1996 is the most powerful instrument in the implementation of the 1992 and 2001 Development Forestry Policy. Operable and Operative.
Nigeria	1988 – 1996 (8 years) 1999 – 2002 (3 years) nfp revision process	Nfp process weakened
Senegal	1979 – 1982 Master Plan for Forestry Develop. 1987 – 1991 Forestry Action Plan for Senegal	Satisfactory. Decentralization and intersectorial linkages experimented
Sudan	1984 – 1986 Forest Sector Review	Satisfactory. Operative since 1989 and was integrated into Sudan's Comprehensive National Strategy.

The key difference between the countries (Gabon, Nigeria) that had a protracted nfp process and the group of countries (Namibia, Senegal, Sudan) that had a relatively shorter formulation process are that the first group did not get much external technical and financial assistance for the process although the process had been initiated at the behest of donors. In evidence, Nigeria (1996) and Gabon (1999) scheduled round table conferences at the end of their nfp formulation process, which did not hold, due to international community's mitigated interest in providing them development assistance. Gabon and Nigeria are oil rich countries considered as wealthy nations not in need of financial aid. Moreover, Nigeria was a pariah state at that period because of an unpopular military regime.

Another element to compound the Gabon-Nigeria scenario is that the two countries commenced their nfp formulation at the behest of the donor community, albeit the latter could not continue provision of needed funds and technical support because of reasons presented above. To this extent nfp formulation in Gabon and Nigeria was externally driven and experienced hiccups once external funds dried up. The second group of countries (Namibia, Senegal and Sudan) commenced their nfp formulation process to address strongly felt domestic problems such as droughts, soil degradation etc and the nfp process was thus internally driven.

6.0 IMPLEMENTATION OF NATIONAL FOREST PROGRAMMES

This section provides an indication of the major accomplishments of the countries as a consequence of the national forest programme, as it compares and contrasts the situation.. In addition, this section presents an indication of the qualitative changes brought about by the nfp and examines whether changes in forest policies, legislation and institutional arrangements have influenced qualitative improvements as implied by the nfp process.

6.1 Policy and Institutional arrangements

Founded upon the recommendations of the sector review and strategic planning phases of the nfp formulation, a policy and institutional reform was carried out in all the five countries (Gabon, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal and Sudan) to accommodate policies and laws which were recognized as critical to sustainable forestry development. As a matter of fact, Nigeria did not have a separate forest sector policy prior to embarking upon the nfp process. At the time, the national forestry policy was an obscure component of an overall Agricultural Policy (Adedoyin 2001). The revised national policies to a great extent, are more comprehensive, imbibe the spirit and letter of the agreements made at the UNCED, as well as the principles derived from international dialogues (IPF/IFF/UNFF) on forestry as explained earlier in this document. In essence it laid down the framework for forestry to contribute to social, economic and environmental well-being of mankind. Across the five countries, it could be said that at the policy level the forestry sector is increasingly receiving attention, and the role of forests and trees in environmental protection, biodiversity maintenance and in combating land degradation and desertification is becoming increasingly appreciated. Again at the policy and legislative level the implementation of the nfp process in Nigeria, Namibia, Sudan and Senegal has contributed in building up an iterative forest sector planning process. For example Nigeria concluded a revision of its nfp in 2002, and has drafted its first ever National Forest Act; Senegal modified its forestry code in 1993, adopted a regionalisation approach in 1996, modied again its forestry code in 1998 and is at present 2003, in the process of updating its Regional Forest Action Plans.

Implementation of the revised national forest policies brought about reforms within the institutional framework for forestry in the five case study countries. Gabon, Sudan, Senegal, created various new institutions while Nigeria and Namibia revised the roles, mandates, rights and responsibilities of existing institutions. A major phenomenon resulting from nfp implementation is the focus on the improvement of the organizational efficiency of the forest administration. The countries that are predominantly semi-arid (Namibia, Senegal and Sudan) made more efforts in recognition of the various categories of actors- government or public administration, the private investors, the local community and civil society and the non-governmental organizations; and the international community. Within each broad category are witnessed quite a number of smaller user-based or geographic-based groups. In Senegal, Namibia, Sudan and dry ecozone of Nigeria, the herders group are quite as influential as the farmer groups, while the timber logging companies are quite powerful in Gabon. The rights and responsibilities of these groups are changing. Recognition and identification of these institutions is a fundamental step into forest sector governance, despite the fact that these national institutions are weak, thus hindering effective implementation of the nfp process.

6.2 Decentralization

In Namibia it is presumed that the decree of decentralization witnessed in the forestry sector is not owed to the nfp process, rather that it stemmed from overall policy of the government to devolve more power to the regional and local governments. The forest service, however, is centrally planned and controlled, but has a network of offices in each of the 13 political regions of the country. In contrast, major shifts towards decentralization in Senegal was ushered in by the nfp process. For instance, the Forest code of 1993, revised in 1998 gave a legal backing to devolution of authority to regions, counties and rural communities in forestry matters. In addition Law 96 – 07, is viewed as the legal instrument ushering in decentralization in the sector. This decentralization provided the forestry sector the opportunity to get integrated into the national framework of the evolving socio-economic scene in Senegal.

Despite a very long history of the concept of decentralization in Sudan dating back to 1824, decentralization process in forestry administration is still in its infancy in the country. Nevertheless, devolution of management authority and division of forest resources between federal government and state governments was achieved under the nfp, with the advent of a federal system of government in 1994. On a closer look, the enunciation of the decree allocating all existing institutional, community or private forests to the entity which established them is a milestone in the decentralization process in the forestry sector in Sudan (Abel Nour, 2001).

In view of the preceding, it has been noted that weaknesses exist in forest institutions at the national level, across the 5 sub-Saharan African countries under review, which is a major factor hindering successful nfp implementation at the local level. Particularly pertinent are the lack of capacity and the lack of financial and institutional means for participation of rural populations in decision-making. Tackling these issues will require financial commitment and ingenuity of all parties involved.

6.3 Financing of national forest programme

In several African countries most of the investment made in the forestry has been sourced externally. For example, Senegal contributes less than 10% of additional funds required to implement its nfp and 90% of the funding of forestry initiatives comes from outside the country, in form of grants. Rural communities' contribution to forest development is mainly in kind, while NGOs , like the State, also depend on external funding. Private sector's financial contribution to forest development is very minimal if not altogether absent due to unprofitability of such investments to date (Cissé. 2001). To halt and subsequently reverse this trend is one of the aims of the nfp process in Africa. The challenge is how African countries can position themselves in order to mobilize new and additional sources of internal funding to fill this gap and still keep investments at a reasonable level.

Analysis of financing of nfp in the five case study countries afforded us some clues, on efforts made so far along this line. In Gabon, some proactive logging companies have begun to made efforts to draw up forest management plans. This is an indirect way of making financial investment in the sector. Gabon also plans to reduce the nine different types of forest taxes to 2 or at most 3 to facilitate their recovering and contribution of the private sector more directly to investments in the sector. Meanwhile Forestry Environment Sectorial Programme (PSFE) , which is a multi-donor programme has been established in Gabon with an estimated cost of sixty two million US Dollars (62, 000, 000).

In contrast to Gabon, current levels of investment in the forest sector of Namibia have been dominated by the public sector and the nfp has not made noticeable changes in private sector investment in the forest sector. In Nigeria, positive pronouncements by government to invest in its forest sector has been clearly made but translation of these to actual investment has not been forthcoming (FDF, 2001). To illustrate, one of the recommendations emanating from nfp process is to incorporate all aspects of forestry in the computation of national accounting and a working group was set up to this effect. Further more an awareness of the correct contribution of all aspects of forestry to the national economy was emphasized with the intention that it would spur the public and private sector and civil society to mobilize domestic funds to finance operations in the sector. The Federal government and State governments took the bold step and contributed to financing the nfp process from 1992 to 1996. The blue print on National Forestry Programmes was developed and Federal Executive Council approved US$ 112.5 million to execute the programme from 2000 to 2003, but these funds were never released to this end. In general finances mobilized at domestic level have not been comprehensively substantiated. On the whole, however, international community invested about US$ 156.5 million between 1991 to 2001 in the forestry sector of Nigeria (Adedoyin, 2001).

In Sudan, the impact of the nfp process on the investment in the forestry sector both by GOS and donor community is positive as investment increased substantially (Abdel Nour 2001). Investment by GOS and donors was around LS 5.0 million[1] (US$450,000) and US$ 7.5 million respectively prior to the nfp. With the advent of nfp, some 16 forestry projects were operating simultaneously in the forestry sector with a total finance of LS 101 million (US$9.09 million); US$ 25.13 million; DM 21.52 and 1.0 million pounds sterling. It is important to note that since 1989 the GOS faced diplomatic and economic sanctions thus the overall foreign aid dropped from an annual average of $900 million before 1989 to less than $ 50 million a year during the 1990s. Consequently nfp process in Sudan benefited nearly exclusively from domestic finances when external financial support was withheld due to political reasons and nfp had to be integrated into the country's 10 year development plan, The Comprehensive National Strategy – CNS 1992 – 2002 (Abdel Nour, 2001).

Whiteman (2002), reporting on an EC-FAO Project on sustainable forest management in Africa, where FAO was working with African countries to examine the effect of fiscal policies on the implementation of sustainable forest management, declared that *innovative or new sources of finance to support investment in the forestry sector are currently not very well developed*. Analysis of current status of innovative financing in the sector identified three key sources, namely:

(i) Revenues from new types of forest products and services;
(ii) Charges collected from other sectors; and
(iii) New sources of public and private investment

The five case study countries collect forest revenue principally from taxes and fees on traditional forest produce such as timber, fuel wood, bushmeat etc .

[1] 1 Sudanese LS was equivalent to $0.09 at the time of the Case Country Study of Sudan (2000)

Table 9 Major accomplishments from nfp implementation in the countries under study

Key aspects of forestry impacted by implementation of nfp	Major accomplishments from nfp implementation by country				
	Gabon	**Namibia**	**Nigeria**	**Senegal**	**Sudan**
Creation of national awareness for SFM	*Need to investigate the state (quantity & quality) of forest resource holding emphasized.	*Increased publicity for SFM *A focus on gathering and management of information on forest resources * More information on extent and state of Namibia's forests available	*Increased publicity for SFM *Need to investigate the state (quantity & quality) of forest resource holding emphasized.	*Increased publicity for SFM *Need to investigate the state (quantity & quality) of forest resource holding emphasized. *PAFS (Senegal Forestry Action Plan)update currently in progress	*Heightened awareness and enthusiasm of administration and people following nfp process *Recognition of forestry as an important sector and the elevation of its status * Positive national attitude towards the sector.
Policy reform	*Strategic directions for SFM elaborated *Forest legislation revised to emphasize SFM *Stratification of the forest domain into two blocks: State permanent forest domain (production & protection forests); and Rural forest domain *Adoption of ITTO's objective 2000. *PSFE incorporates knowledge and skills acquired from previous planning processes - NFAP 1999 NEAP 2000 NSBD 2000	*Revised forest policy adopted 2000, in tune with national development objectives, rural development and global environmental concerns * The recognition of group or communal tenure over land resources *New forestry strategic plan recommended and developed a revised forest policy. *A revised forest legislation adopted 1998, allows for implementation of new policy orientations. * Definition of high conservation value forests of national importance existing outside protected areas.	*A new tool for periodic review of forest policy introduced (state of the environment report, pronouncing on the conditions of the forest). *A separate comprehensive national forest policy drawn up in 2002. *nfp called for re-orientation in agric programmes, incentives and practices that contribute to deforestation * Investigation into appropriate technologies in renewable energy promoted.	* The 1981 Master Plan for Forestry Development revised *Adoption of the 1992 PAFS, currently being updated *1998 legislation transferring natural resource management responsibilities to local communities *Adoption of *Programme Approach* beginning 1998.	* Updated Forest Policy (1986) the basis for the strategy for forestry sector in Sudan *Revision of Forest Act of 1989 *Enactment in 1992 of 10 yrs devt plan- The CNS 1992-2002. *Creation of FNC * The CNS of 1992 - 2002 recommended 25% of the countries land area (63 million ha) to be devoted to forestry, range and wildlife, and be put under management plans. *A number of presidential decrees in 1993 which expedited the slow process of forest reservation. *Creation of Federal and State forests * Positive politicization of forestry *Realization and admission of the short-sightedness of previous

					agricultural policies which called for unqualified horizontal expansion of cropped areas.
Capacity building	Encouraged authorities to collaborate with ATO, ITTO and CIFOR in forest certification.	*Focus on human capacity building highly emphasized *local diploma level training in forestry developed *Capacity to control illegal harvesting improved. *Performance management system in the forest sector institutionalized * The directorate of forestry has run a staff-training scheme in government *Annual planning session for all staff institutionalized	* Capacity of the sector to conceptualize and plan for forestry development increased	*Creation the national institute in charge of forestry training at different levels (Centre Forêt).	*Forestry education at diploma and degree levels in only 5 institutions prior to nfp, in 2001 increased to 9. *Forestry departments in 2 institutions elevated to Faculties bringing the total number to 4. *Forestry extension service flourish and became the main driving force in Sudanese forestry.
Establishment ,strengthening and improvement of forestry national institutions	*Signing of agreement, binding logging companies to create forest resource management units within their administrative structures. *Departments of water & forestry and Environment merged *Directorate of Reforestation and that of Inventory & Forest management merged for better tracking of progress towards SFM. *Creation of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation Unit (CPSE) to pull together knowledge, experience and	*A focus on institutional reform * Organisational efficiency of forest administration received renewed emphasis	*Institutional weaknesses identified, prospects for enhancement assessed, and suggestions proffered *Fed Min of Environment created * PRA institutionalized as a tool for ascertaining areas of research needs. *Forest extension received a boost. * Technical committees on agroforestry created *Institutional overlaps in the management of natural resources removed.	* Adoption of NFAP in 1992 resulted in: re-organisation of forest service in 1994. *Efforts made to adapt Institutional framework to exigencies of dynamic, integrated, shared, economic and diverse forestry.	*nfp was integrated into the country's 10 year development plan – CNS 1992 - 2002 *Establishment of an autonomous FNC through 1989 parliamentary Act, replacing CFA (Central Forest Administration) *Weaknesses in data base for planning identified and efforts garnered to redress these.

	lessons learned from TFAP, PFE, PNAE etc. *PSFE created in conformity with the Government of Gabon's development agenda. PSFE covers the whole spectrum of forestry and environment sector.				
Improve People Participation in policy decision and implementation	SFM has become the aim of both government and the private sector	*Community participation strategy adopted *Community based management of forests operational *Community- based fire prevention established	* Stakeholder participation strategy adopted Rural forestry a key feature	*Application of nfp based on empowerment of rural people to manage forest resources. * Decree n0. 96-1134 for the application of Law N0. 96 – 07, aims at devolution of power to the populace * Rural forestry was introduce in 1999	*Concept of community forestry institutionalized for the first time
Decentralisation	Forest policy and legislation favour decentralisation	*Rapid development of field offices	*Reinforced government decentralization policy	* decentralization Law 96 – 07 adopted * devolution of authority to regions, counties and rural communities in forestry matters backed Forest code of 1993, revised in 1998 . * forestry sector integrated into national socio-economic framework	* federal system of government established 1994. * management authority for forest resources shared between federal government and state governments *ownership of existing institutional, community or private forests goes to initiator.
Financing of nfp	*Logging companies finance elaboration of forest management plans of attributed concession	*Public sector continues to invest in the forest sector.	* Incorporation of all aspects of forestry in the computation of national accounting recommended. *Federal government and state governments contributed to financing the nfp process from 1992 to 1996. * 112.5 million USD earmarked by govt. for nfp implementation 2000 to 2003 (Funds not released).	*Government contributes less than 10% of additional funds required to implement its nfp *90% of the funding of forestry initiatives comes from outside the country, in form of grants. *Rural communities contribute in kind	*Investment in the forestry sector both by GOS and donor community increased substantially until diplomatic and economic sanctions of 1989. *With the advent of nfp, some 16 forestry projects were operating simultaneously in the forestry sector with a total finance of US$ 25.13 million;

			*International community invested about USD 156.5 million between 1991 to 2001.	*NGOs depend on external funding. *Private sector's financial contribution minimal.	*nfp benefited nearly exclusively from domestic finances when external financial support was withheld
Enforcement and implementation of international agreements, supporting technically and institutionally related implementing mechanisms	Principles, Criteria and Indicators for SFM tested under forest certification	* biodiversity maintenance integrated into concrete activities at field level *Adoption of criteria & indicators. *Facilitated translation of the global forestry policies and conventions into operational planning. *Aided positive response to devoluion of power to local communities; poverty reduction; *Decentralisation as a tool in empowering local governing structures and the democratization of decision making	Facilitated attempts at translation of the global forestry policies and conventions into operational planning	Facilitated attempts at translation of the global forestry policies and conventions into operational planning	Facilitated attempts at translation of the global forestry policies and conventions into operational planning
Changes in conditions of forest resources	* low rate of deforestation <1% (nfp only a partial contributing factor)	*Biomass yields improved in Kalahari and Mopane woodlands *Deforestation appears to have stabilized at 0.5%. *Quality and quantity of pastureland improved in the Caprivi region *Game species restocked *Quantity and diversity of valuable thatch grass increased in Caprive.	* More trees planted on-farm through agroforestry programme	*Due to human influence, as well as poor soils and increasing arid climatic conditions (severe drought), efforts deployed under nfp have yielded mitigated results in key indicators such as extent of forest cover, incidences of wild forest fires, protected areas, and forest plantations.	Area of forest reserves, protected area under management plans, plantations and natural forests increased. The deforestation of 5.19 million ha in 17 years (1983 – 2000) still leaves an annual deforestation rate of some 300 000 ha *Sustainability of supply of goods and services from forest resources are more promising as a result of nfp process

7.0 CHANGES IN CONDITIONS OF FOREST RESOURCES

The implementation of nfp, in the 5 case study countries may not have expanded the overall tree cover of the country or decelerate the rate of deforestation (Table 11). It nevertheless, attempted to quantify both parameters. Namibia did not yet witness physical improvements in the condition of forest resources, as it is still too early to manifest, and Ntsame (2001) reports that low rate of deforestation (< 1%) in Gabon may not be due to nfp. The supply of timber did not seem to have improved in Namibia, but capacity to control illegal harvesting has improved. Positive changes in the condition of forest resources in Namibia as a result of nfp process include: improved biomass yields in Kalahari and Mopane woodlands due to 40% reduction on wildfire incidents; stabilization of deforestation at 0.5%; quality and quantity of pastureland improved in the Caprivi region; game species restocked in newly created community-based wildlife conservancy; and quantity and diversity of valuable thatch grass increased in Caprive.

As in Namibia, impact of nfp process in Nigeria is principally on creation of conducive environment for the actualization of reforms recommended by the process, hence impact of nfp implementation on supply of goods & services, as well as in changes in conditions of forest resources are not yet evident. However more trees are estimated to have been planted on-farm through agroforestry programme in Nigeria, just as the area of forest reserves and that under management plans both of plantations and natural forests were increased in Sudan. However the deforestation in Sudan of 5.19 million ha. in 17 years (1983 – 2000) still leaves an annual deforestation rate of some 300 000 ha in Sudan. In general Abdel Nour (2001) asserts that the prospects for sustained supply of goods and services from forest resources are more promising as a result of nfp process in Sudan. It is widely acknowledged in Sudan that the nfp process aided in bringing to light the short-sightedness of previous agricultural policies which called for unqualified horizontal expansion of cropped land area. Over 8 million hectares of Sudanese arable land were converted to cropped land by mid 1980s at the expense of forest cover, range lands and biodiversity hot spots.

There are quite a number of positive results that were not as a direct consequence of implementation of the nfp process, but have been strongly supportive of efforts to promote these useful influences on the conditions of forests across the case study countries. E.g public administration and NGOs in Senegal and Namibia have been assisting local organizations and communities in identifying and addressing local problems, this enhances community development as well as management of forests. In Namibia, establishment of community forest reserves have discouraged encroachment of forestlands

Table 10. Forest management parameters of the five countries in the year 2000

Country	Forest area, 2000 ('000 ha.)	Criteria & indicators for sustainable forest management (process)	Area under Management plan		Forest in protected Area.	Forest area certified	
			000 ha.	% of total Forest	Global Map data (%)	000 ha.	Scheme
Gabon	21 826	ATO	-	-	16	-	-
Namibia	8 040	DZAF	54*	n.a.p	5	54	FSC
Nigeria	13 517	ATO	832*	n.a.p	7	-	-
Senegal	6 205	DZAF	-	-	16	-	-
Sudan	61 627	NE/DZAF	-	-	10	-	-

Source: FAO, (2001). State of the world's forests.

8.0 THE WAY AHEAD

The section focuses on the lessons learnt and their relevance to other countries.

The review has shown that overall progress in formulation and implementation of nfps. have been made in all five countries. It is also important to note that lessons have also been learnt. Building on these experiences and particularly addressing the key issues that have contributed to better quality or weaker quality of nfps seems to be the way to ensure that both formulation and implementation or revisions of current nfps produce the desired outcomes. For example, the analysis has shown that protracted processes (Gabon and Nigeria) in the formulation and implementation of nfps, result in qualitatively weaker nfps while relatively short processes (Namibia, Sudan and Senegal) result in qualitatively better nfps. For those countries that have made significant advances in formulation, they now need to find ways of maintaining the momentum and forge ahead with effective implementation.

Although progress has generally been made in the implementation side, it seems that most countries will face significant setbacks in the implementation phase of their nfps. Key factors necessary for effective implementation will have to be resolved operationally. There needs to be real visible action in addressing such issues as decentralization and other policy issues. It will not be sufficient to simply state in the policy document that decentralisation will be done. Decentralisation and devolution of powers to organized local communities and user groups should be feasible and visible. Governments and the international community in the concerned countries should encourage this to happen. Key issues such as the role of forests and trees in environmental protection, biodiversity maintenance, combating land degradation and desertification have been addressed on paper, but we will need to see these lofty goals achieved.

The nfps will constantly need to be revised and up-dated and so should forest products consumption surveys and national forest inventories. Tree planting, aforestation and reforestation measures will have to be enforced as a way of achieving sustainability. This applies to countries threatened by recurrent drought and desertification as well as to countries with reasonable forest cover.

At the policy and legislative level, the implementation of the nfp process has contributed to building up an iterative forest sector planning process in some countries (Nigeria, Namibia, Sudan and Senegal). But the enforcement of these policies at the local, regional and national levels will be essential to achieving effective forestry management.

Financing the forestry sector remains a serious problem. It has been observed that in the international process, the forest sector has been marginalized. This is partly due to choice, and partly out of exclusion in international trade negotiations. Ways of bringing in the Private sector to invest directly in the forest sector will be required. Private forests should also be encouraged. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), but not just for commercial purposes, but with a strong agenda to enhance conservation and regenerative capacities of the forests should be explored. Community Based Organizations (CBOs) need to be encouraged at the rural level and should be made up of both nationals and foreign-based groups.

Innovative or new sources of finance to support investment in the forestry sector are currently not well developed. Analysis by Whiteman (2002), of the current status of innovative financing in the sector has brought to light three key sources that will need to be tapped upon to significantly ameliorate forest sector finances. These include 1) revenues from new types of products and services from forests; 2) charges collected from other sectors; and 3) new sources of public and private investment. These suggestions should be seen as complementary to traditional methods (taxes, fees on

traditional forest produce such as timber, fuel wood, bushmeat etc.). Mobilisation of all existing information and knowledge of forests and their products should be shared by all actors at all levels.

Mitigating the financial constraint is indeed key to both the successful formulation and implementation of nfps. The way ahead in accomplishing this does not reside in project type initiatives, which are short-lived and therefore inappropriate in addressing effectively the hard issue of structural change in the forest and related land-based sectors. What may be needed are initiatives which are long-lived, sustainable and based on domestic resources and capacities. The establishment of national forestry funds throughout sub-Saharan Africa looks like one of these initiatives which could lead the way forward in effective stewardship of the forests and forest resources of Sub Saharan Africa.

Gender issues need to be studied and addressed. In the review of the country case studies women did not figure prominently in the process. However, Sudan has involved women in its nfp process (Abdel Nour, 2001). As principal users of fuelwood for domestic energy and non-timber forest products, they ought to be involved in the planning and implementation phases of nfps because they are important stakeholders that cannot be ignored. Capacity building especially in the training of professional foresters and efforts to support forest education and forest research should be encouraged. Professional should be given appropriate conditions of service in order to retain them in-country to halt the ongoing brain drain. The continuous search for alternative domestic energy sources for people who depend on fuelwood will be crucial. This is an area that should attract foreign aid. Finally, governments should ensure good governance and take the lead in promoting measures that create conditions for successful nfps.

The African Forestry and Wildlife Commission and the Near East Forestry Commission (both statutory bodies of FAO) in 1998 requested that FAO should carry out the Forestry Outlook Study for Africa (FOSA), one of a series of global and regional outlook studies to examine the broader and longer term prospects for the forest sector. FOSA, completed in 2002, has as its main objectives to signal how the forest sector is likely to evolve in the next two decades to year 2020 if current trends in driving forces persist and business continues as usual; and, then, to portray alternative scenarios founded on the interplay between the different visions that stakeholders hold - offering them policy options and investment strategies through which forestry may contribute towards a better future in terms of poverty alleviation, food security and sustainable development. FOSA was built from outlook reports from 47 African countries including the 5 countries under review. The study revealed that, within the context of current trends, the two key issues that will continue to be relevant to for Africa are poverty alleviation and environmental protection (FAO, 2003).

The FOSA study has therefore confirmed and highlighted further the challenges the nfp process in the different countries in Africa must address. The forestry sector in each of the five case study countries (as well as other African countries) could contribute to the efforts each country is deploying to alleviate poverty and protect the environment. Key actions within the forestry sector to achieve these will depend on the socio-economic and political commitment of each country. The way forward, as identified by the outlook study, is for the nfp process in each country to adapt the following priority action indicated according to the five regions in Africa.

Table 11. Priority actions for poverty alleviation and environmental protection in North, East, Southern, Central, and West Africa.

KEY OUTPUTS - Sub regional Outlooks		
FOSA is essentially a sub-regional study built from constituent country outlooks, and separate analyses of driving forces, outcomes, opportunities and strategies have been developed for each of the African sub-regions. The priority actions geared to poverty alleviation and environmental protection are indicated by the study as:		
Sub-region	**Poverty alleviation**	**Environmental protection**
North Africa	▪ Supporting rural forest industries ▪ Provision of livestock fodder.	▪ Watershed protection. ▪ Protection of agricultural land against desertification.
East Africa	▪ Provision of fuelwood to rural and urban poor. ▪ Emphasis on rural income generation and employment, esp. from wildlife management and non-wood forest products ▪ Improving the technical and entrepreneurial capacity of traditional wood-based industries.	▪ Protection of watersheds. ▪ Integration of tree cropping in all land uses. ▪ Improvement of institutional framework for effective management of protected areas and biodiversity protection.
Southern Africa	▪ Improving the policy and institutional framework to enhance the economic role of the informal sector in forestry. ▪ Increased emphasis on social considerations in implementing commercial forestry. ▪ Refinement and wider application of the community participation in the management of natural resources.	▪ Watershed management. ▪ Improving land use practices to arrest degradation. ▪ Effective use of environmental impact assessment in implementing land use changes, including for plantation establishment.
Central Africa	▪ Improving the institutional framework for local entrepreneurs and communities to play a lead role in forest management and wood processing. ▪ Investing part of the income from forests in social development, especially rural infrastructure.	▪ Wider application of criteria and indicators for sustainable forest management, including reduced impact logging techniques. ▪ Improved management of protected areas.
West Africa	▪ Improved local participation in forest management and wood processing. ▪ Technical and institutional support for small-scale forest enterprises.	▪ Watershed protection and prevention of land degradation. ▪ Improvement of the management of natural forests through application of criteria and indicators for sustainable forest management. ▪ Increasing the coverage of protected area networks.

Source: FAO 2003 Forestry Outlook Study for Africa report

In June 2002 leading international partners and FAO created a National Forest Programme Facility (The Facility). This new partnership supports the implementation of nfps worldwide. One of its major objectives is to provide developing countries direct country-level support, with grant money, to the

development and implementation of nfps with a strong emphasis on the involvement of all stakeholders (National Forest Programme Facility, 2002). Another important feature of the Facility is that it is directed towards developing national capacity to assemble and exchange forestry information and knowledge, with particular accent on addressing poverty alleviation and governance issues. Key beneficiaries of the Facility include: stakeholders actively participating in the nfp processes such as national and local government agencies, local communities, non governmental organisations and other recognised legal and legitimate interest groups; and investors with an interest in the forest sector. The Facility is essentially demand driven. Of the 5 countries under review Nigeria, Namibia, Senegal are participating in the Facility activities and Gabon is working on getting involved. The advent of the facility is thus very timely as it is directly focusing on the two of the identified major obstacles in nfp formulation and implementation - the impediment of financial constraints and weak institutional and individual capacity to implement nfps.

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