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WORKING GROUP**

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**POLICY OPTIONS FOR ADDRESSING LAND USE RELEVANT TO
MIGRATORY LANDBIRDS IN WEST AFRICA**

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1. Summary

This discussion paper has been written to support the discussion of land use change in West Africa at the meeting of the Working Group of the African-Eurasian Migratory Landbirds Action Plan (AEMLAP) in November 2015, in Abidjan. AEMLAP identifies the importance of land use change for migratory landbirds, but also acknowledges the need to work in partnership with others to achieve positive land use. The paper covers:

- Changes to land use in West Africa and why they are an issue for migratory landbirds, other wildlife and people;
- The drivers of land use change in West Africa, including policy drivers; and
- How work on land use in West Africa could be progressed as a priority for AEMLAP implementation up to COP12 in 2017.

2. Why are changes in land use in West Africa important?

This section presents a summary of the evidence around the impacts of land use on migratory landbirds in West Africa, and identifies key reasons why land use change is also important for other wildlife and people.

Afro-Palaearctic migratory landbirds that pass through or over-winter in the Sahel and Guinea-Savannah zones of West Africa are facing some of the steepest declines of all migratory birds, for example, Eurasian Turtle dove, Eurasian Cuckoo and European Roller (Zwarts et al., 2009, Vickery et al., 2014). Alongside climate change, loss and degradation of non-breeding ground habitat is thought to be a major factor in the declines of these landbirds, with 'those wintering in the savannas and wooded savannas of the Sahel-Sudan zone particularly afflicted' (Zwarts et al., 2009).

Adams et al. (2014) found that direct evidence of the impact of land use change on landbirds is, to date, limited. Nevertheless, taking into account the negative impacts of land use change on wider biodiversity, the synergies between resilient natural habitats and human well-being, and the precautionary principle, it is appropriate that

this remains a core area of both research and policy activity. Thus, the Convention on Migratory Species (CMS) Resolution 11.17, which adopted the African-Eurasian Migratory Landbird Action Plan (AEMLAP) at COP11 in November 2014, ‘urges Parties... to address the issue of habitat loss and degradation of migratory landbird species through the development of policies that maintain, manage and restore natural and semi-natural habitats within the wider environment’ (UNEP-CMS, 2014, p.2). AEMLAP identifies a series of actions, at the level of the African-Eurasian flyway, to address habitat loss to land use change (see Annex 1): intensive and traditional agriculture; timber and non-forest products; water management; energy; re-vegetation; and integrated land-use management.

At a West African level, Zwarts et al. (2009) have identified the loss of woody cover, scrub and wetlands, and intensification of farmland and grazing, as key factors in the decline of migratory landbirds. They note that, in many cases, this is due to the growing human population driving demand for wood and non-wood products, more and more productive cropland and livestock, and greater water management, including ‘embankments, dams, the creation of water reservoirs and the increase in irrigation of fields upstream’ (Zwarts et al., 2009, p.498).

Vickery et al. (2014) built on this, summarising the land use changes driving loss of key habitats:

- Wooded savannah: agricultural expansion, fuelwood collection and grazing
- Forest savannah and humid forest: agricultural expansion and timber extraction
- Wetlands: damming, growth of irrigated crops, changes in grazing regimes and conversion of natural floodplain woodlands to plantations of exotic species

Overall, we can say that habitats are being lost to **agriculture** (arable and livestock), **wood extraction** (fuelwood and timber) and **hydrodams**, and that these are likely to be some of the central impacts of land use change on migratory landbirds.

These impacts also have negative impacts on wider biodiversity. The African-Eurasian Waterbird Agreement (AEWA) and the Raptors MOU both identify unsustainable land use practices, including in relation to agriculture and infrastructure, as negatively impacting waterbirds and birds of prey (UNEP-AEWA, 2012; UNEP-CMS, 2008). A recent IUCN report attributed ‘the decline of wildlife in West Africa... to extensive habitat loss... incurred primarily through wide-scale clear-cutting to replace forests for agriculture’ (IUCN, 2015, p.vii). This is further supported by a recent EU report, which identifies agricultural expansion and logging as key drivers of habitat loss through land use change (European Union, 2015). Both reports particularly note the substantial reduction in large mammal populations in West Africa as a result of these threats, including the globally Critically Endangered Dama Gazelle and Cross River Gorilla, and the African elephant and Lion, which are Critically Endangered in West Africa (IUCN, 2015; European Union, 2015).

Land use change can also, of course, have negative impacts on people, in terms of the loss of ecosystem services (including biodiversity), climate change and social equity. The EU report notes that the loss of natural habitat ‘has already led to massive losses of ecological services’ of all types (provisioning, regulating, cultural and supporting), including the ‘decline and pollution of water sources... reduction of carbon fixation leading to accelerated climate change... [and] soil formation’ (European Union, 2015, p.35). A 2013 study of ecosystem services in West Africa showed that land use change impacts led to an overall reduction in ecosystem service provision in Ghana and Cote d’Ivoire between 2000 – 2009 (Mansoor et al., 2013).

Changes in land use have also in some cases been linked to land grabbing, which degrades local communities’ land and resource rights (Anseeuw et al., 2012). More broadly, issues around land use change relate to ongoing concerns around security of tenure, state sovereignty over land, governance in land administration, development of land policies and protection of customary land rights in West Africa (AUC-ECA-AfDB Consortium, 2011).

Nevertheless, changes in land use also can also benefit local communities, in particular in terms of increasing food production. Food availability is only one aspect of food security, but increasing the supply of nutritious food for the 33.7 million undernourished people in West Africa, in a way that does not degrade the natural resource base on which people depend, will continue to be a very high priority in the sub-region (FAO, 2015a).

Similarly, although hydrodams can have significant negative impacts on people (e.g. inadequate resettlement, loss of arable land or the spread of disease), they can also deliver cheap and sustainable power for African communities when appropriately developed, constructed and managed (Oxfam, WWF and WaterAid, 2006; Biney, 2012).

Finally, land use change is one of the two greatest contributors to climate change (MEA, 2005; IPCC, 2014), the impacts of which are likely to affect all wildlife and people in West Africa. The changes are likely to include increases in temperature and in the frequency of external weather events, and potential decreases in rainfall (USAID, 2013). It may also lead to further changes in land use as people attempt to both mitigate and adapt to these effects.

3. How is land use changing in West Africa?

3.1. Agriculture

Analysis of higher resolution satellite images (30m) by Brink and Eva (2009) indicate that between 1975 – 2000 agriculture increased across West Africa¹, with an average increase of 16.35%; at the same time, their analysis shows an average 24.4% loss of natural non-forest habitat across West Africa (apart from the Guinea-Congolia/Sudanian region, which saw a small increase). Phalan et al. (2013) support this picture of agricultural expansion, showing significant increases in cropland in West Africa over 1999 – 2008, both in annual crops (except Mauritania and Togo) and perennial crops; Burkina Faso, Côte d’Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea, Nigeria, and Sierra Leone saw particularly large increases in cropland.² This study also looked at which regions have the potential for the greater cropland increases, finding that areas with high cultivation potential and little current cropland include the savannah woodlands in the Sahel and much of Sierra Leone and Liberia. These areas may therefore be considered particularly at risk of habitat loss to cropland expansion.

Similarly, the livestock industry in West Africa is growing: animal product supply is increasing at a rate of 2%/ year; demand is growing at 4%/ year, with projections that it will rise more than 250% by 2025 (OECD/SWAC and ECOWAS, 2008). With 60 million cattle, 160 million small ruminants and 400 million poultry in 2008, this would mean an extra 12 million cattle by 2018. Habitats are already being lost and degraded due to over-grazing; a recent UN report suggests that the rapidly increasing African demand for livestock products will require expansion of cropland *and* grassland on top of sustainable intensification of livestock farming, and that ‘continuous land conversion in grasslands and natural land’ is likely to be the pattern up to 2050 (Herrero et al., 2014, p.12).

In addition, as agriculture grows, so will its demand for water resources; currently only 12% of potentially irrigable land in West Africa is currently irrigated (ECOWAS, 2012b).

Where African agricultural productivity has increased it has tended to relate to the expansion of agriculture, rather than intensification. Yields in West Africa have been historically low for crops as well as livestock. For example, cereal yields increased by less than 1% annually between 1980 – 2009 (FAO, AfDB, ECOWAS, 2015). However, since the food price crisis in 2008 the sub-region has seen major intensification efforts, mainly in terms of access to fertilizer and improved seeds, which has seen yields begin to rise (FAO, AfDB, ECOWAS, 2015).

3.2. Wood extraction

Vickery et al. (2014) identified tree loss via fuelwood collection, timber extraction and conversion of natural floodplain woodlands to plantations of exotic species. Between 1975 – 2000, forested areas uniformly decreased, with 16 – 19% decreases in every eco-region bar the Sahel (which saw only 1.5% loss) (Brink and Eva, 2009). Continuing this general trend, Hansen et al. (2013) found that between 2000 – 2012, West Africa saw a net loss of 49,775km² of tree cover (50% of which comes from just two countries: Nigeria and Côte d’Ivoire).

¹ I.e. in the Sahel, Sudanian, Guinea-Congolia/Sudania and Guineo-Congolian eco-regions.

² Phalan et al. also note, however, that cropland is an ‘incomplete proxy for impact’, since some crops tend to replace habitat of higher value, such as coffee.

Looking forward, the International Energy Agency's *Africa Energy Outlook* suggests that fuelwood consumption in West Africa is set to rise by more than 50% between 2012 and 2040, from 247 to 389 million tonnes. Fuelwood makes up a significant proportion of primary energy demand in West Africa, and although that proportion will decrease, overall energy demand will grow from 147 – 180 megatonnes of energy equivalent (MtoE) (International Energy Agency (IEA), 2014). In particular, demand for charcoal will increase with the growing urban population, for which fuelwood provides both the raw materials and the means of production (IEA, 2014; Iiyama et al., 2014).

Data from West African countries in the FAO's 2015 *Forest Resources Assessment* suggests that the planting of introduced tree species is increasing in Benin, Guinea, and Senegal, whilst Cape Verde and Liberia it continues as a steady rate. Interestingly, in Mali it has very significantly decreased in recent years, from 477,000 ha in 2005 to 120,000 ha in 2010. Nigeria reported no planted forests of introduced species, but that the area of naturally regenerated forest made up of introduced species has consistently been on the rise since 1990 (FAO, 2015c).

Production forest in West Africa has been slowly declining since 1990, although since 2010 the reported area has remained the same in almost every country in the sub-region (FAO, 2015c).

However, set against this picture of tree loss, there has been some documented rehabilitation of trees and shrubs in Burkina Faso and Niger, with an estimated 200,000 – 300,000ha and 5,000,000ha restored respectively since the 1980s (IFPRI, 2009). Where the technique of Farmer-Managed Natural Regeneration has been used this has supported regeneration of native trees and shrubs. Where 'zai' pits have been used, this has facilitated the growth of native species already present in the soil, but also has given farmers the opportunity to grow desired tree species, which may or may not be native (IFPRI, 2009; Garrity et al., 2010). There are other tree planting and restoration schemes underway in West Africa, of which the most notable may be the Great Green Wall project, which aims to promote sustainable land use across 12 West and East African countries, including through tree planting and reforestation activities.³

3.3. Hydrodams

Growing human populations have growing water supply, energy and irrigation needs, and West Africans have sought to meet some of this need with hydrodams. Skinner et al. (2009) listed 155 large dams (typically over 100 MW) in West Africa, of which 27 were built to deliver hydropower, 75 water supply and 88 irrigation. The majority of these dams were built in the 1970s and 1980s; after 1990, international appetite to fund large dams reduced rapidly.

However, in 2011, ECOWAS *identified 21 large scale hydropower plants* amongst its regional priority projects which will together produce an extra 7,893 MW (ECOWAS, 2011). There are also national large scale hydropower projects: in 2012, Skinner and Koundouno noted that a total of 39 large dams were planned or under construction in the region. The contribution of small scale (up to 30 MW) and medium scale (30 – 100 MW) is also set to rise, with ECOWAS aiming for an additional 2449 MW from small scale by 2030 (ECOWAS, 2012a; ECREE and UNIDO, 2012).

4. What are the drivers of change in land use in West Africa?

There is a wide range of drivers affecting land use in West Africa, interacting at a range of spatial scales. An expert workshop organised by the Cambridge Conservation Initiative (CCI) in 2010 identified a hierarchy of drivers of land use change, related to trees, grazing and agriculture, which ultimately affect Afro-Palaearctic migratory landbirds. Fundamental drivers of change were identified as governance, the world economy, agricultural commodity prices and rainfall variability, followed by increases in rural and urban population, increases in urban wealth, increases *and* decreases in rural wealth, and subsequently demand for fuelwood, timber, food and non-food crops and livestock products in rural and urban areas, increased grazing intensity and agricultural intensification (including use of irrigation, investment in wells and use of agrochemicals), increased demand for agricultural land and changes in agricultural and fire management policies. In addition, NGO/ donor environmental concern led to projects that focused on tree and timber planting and soil conservation (CCI, 2010).

³ <http://terrafrica.org/great-green-wall/>

Based on each of the major types of land use identified in Section 3, this section examines the key policies affecting them, whilst recognising that a number of drivers are not policy-related. In addition, three areas of relevant overarching policy are surveyed for their relevance: development policy; land policy; and environmental policy.

4.1. Agriculture

The CCI research found that major drivers for agriculture and grazing are both increases and decreases in rural household wealth, increases in rural population and also in urban wealth and economic activity. In addition, the CCI research also found that NGO, Government and donors' agricultural development policies were an important factor.

Under the 2003 Maputo Agreement, African heads of state adopted the Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP). CAADP has led – and been led by – significant new investment in African agriculture over the last 15 years, which has aimed to increase agricultural growth (including via foreign and export agriculture) in order to feed a population that is expected to grow to 625 million by 2050 and to alleviate poverty (USAID, 2010). Investment in agriculture is one of the most effective means to reduce poverty in rural areas (DfID, 2014).

CAADP's four overarching pillars are:

1. Extending the area under sustainable land management and reliable water control systems;⁴
2. Improving rural infrastructure and trade-related capacities for market access;
3. Increasing food supply, reducing hunger, and improving responses to food emergency crises; and
4. Improving agriculture research, technology dissemination and adoption.

These objectives are cascaded down through Regional and National Agricultural Investment Programmes (RAIPs and NAIPs), which with development partners are supposed to align their support.

West African states adopted the Regional Agricultural Policy for West Africa in 2005, which focuses on six key areas, following the CAADP framework: improved water management (irrigation and integrated water resources management); improved management of other natural resources (livestock, forests, fisheries); sustainable agricultural development at farm level (integrated soil management, extension, technologies); developing agricultural supply chains and markets; preventing and managing food crises; and institution building (ECOWAS, 2005).

At a state level, West African countries have tended to focus agriculture policy at the farm level, with policies to promote export crops and self-sufficiency in cereals, through input-led intensification (FAO, AfDB, ECOWAS, 2015). NAIPs have been completed for all West African states, but financing remains a significant issue, with between 50 – 95% dependence on external funds (OSIWA, 2014; Mamadou, 2014).

Development partners are therefore central to delivery of CAADP-led agricultural policy in West Africa – as the CCI research suggests. To date these partners have tended to support agricultural intensification for producers of all sizes, value addition and agro-processing and connections to regional and international markets (AECID, 2014). The emphasis on sustainable land management has tended to translate into action related to water management for irrigation, managing transhumance and sustainable intensification (Mamadou, 2014), though definitions are variable, including, *inter alia*, modest reductions in chemical inputs to integrated, input-free approaches to land, water and biodiversity management. Irrigation is a particular priority, as its poor penetration across the continent is widely felt to be one of the key factors holding back the development of African agriculture (CAADP, 2015; FAO, AfDB, ECOWAS, 2015; USAID, 2013).

⁴ This pillar includes: on-farm and small-scale irrigation development including small-scale informal irrigation (private, peri-urban, horticulture etc.), humid lowland development (fadamas, "bas-fonds", dambos, marais, etc.), and land improvement (soil structure, fertility etc.); upgrading and rehabilitation of existing large-scale irrigation systems; and development of new, large-scale schemes (NEPAD, 2002).

Nonetheless, whilst agricultural policy drivers are concerned with intensification, other potent drivers – increases in population and wealth that are leading to greater demand for food, non-food crops, livestock products – are pushing expansion.

4.2. Tree loss

A 2002 study by Geist and Lambin reported that proximate causes of tropical deforestation in Africa were – in order of importance – agricultural expansion, wood extraction and infrastructure expansion (very largely road construction). Underlying these is a further set of drivers, which in Africa are focused on economic, technological and demographic factors.

Geist and Lambin found that wood extraction is dominated by collection of fuelwood and poles for domestic use, but that charcoal production (domestic and industrial) and commercial wood extraction were also factors. The CCI research found that fuelwood collection was driven not just by village level demand for domestic use, but also by increased commercial demand at a regional and urban level; in addition, environment projects driven by NGOs and donors were found to be supporting planting for fuelwood, as well as commercial timber.

Amongst the underlying economic drivers, Geist and Lambin found that sectoral market growth – particularly in relation to timber markets – and demand were important. The CCI research found that there was increased demand for timber at both a rural domestic level and amongst regional and urban communities.

Formal policies were considered as an underlying driver in Geist and Lambin, but were reported to be a weak underlying cause of deforestation in Africa, relevant in only 37% of the studies examined. Similarly, the CCI research found that policy drivers were not important, which the IEA report also supports in relation to fuelwood and charcoal (CCI, 2010; IEA, 2014). They note that these sectors, ‘operate largely outside the formal economy’, giving policymakers ‘few levers’ to affect them, and that ‘effective policies for land use, forest management and sustainable wood production and measures to bring markets for charcoal and fuelwood into the formal economy’ are therefore vitally needed (IEA, 2014, p.69).

Nevertheless, there has always been West Africa forestry policy. Historically, it was driven by the development of colonial-influenced state policies supporting an industrial concession model, focusing on commercial timber development and regulation (LTS International and ONF International, 2011). From 2006 – 2013, however, the West African Forest Dialogue aimed to re-focus forestry policy in the sub-region on wealth generation and poverty alleviation through sustainable forest management, culminating in the 2013 launch of ECOWAS’ Convergence Plan for the Sustainable Management and Utilisation of Forest Ecosystems in West Africa.

The Convergence Plan aims, *inter alia*, to harmonise national forest policies in the sub-region, regulate forest management, reduce forest degradation, increase restoration of forests, agro-sylvo-pastoral areas and agroforestry systems, and to support biodiversity conservation. Overall, the Convergence Plan is concerned with maximising the economic potential of timber, fuelwood and non-timber forest products. But it is also concerned with the sustainable management of forests – and trees outside forests, including in agricultural areas – that will sustain wildlife and the natural resource base from which economic benefits can flow.

4.3. Hydrodams

Hydrodam development is largely driven by the need from within West Africa for energy, irrigation for agriculture and water supply. In 2012, the IEA estimated that 195 million West Africans lacked access to electricity (nearly half of them in Nigeria) (IEA, 2014). In 2010, 35% of West Africans lacked access to drinking water (ECOWAS, 2012b), and only 12% of potentially irrigable land was being irrigated (ECOWAS, 2012b). Only around 4101MW of that potential – 16% – is being exploited (World Energy Council, 2015; Agbonaye et al., 2012), but with the West Africa population forecast to grow by 27% by 2020, to around 400 million, the associated increase in the need for energy, irrigation and water supply means that the estimated 25,000 MW of potential hydropower in West Africa is unlikely to be overlooked (OECD/SWAC, 2009).

At a sub-regional level ECOWAS has two strategies that guide large, and small and medium scale hydropower development. The West African Power Pool *Revised Master Plan* covers large hydropower, and it is this document that sets out the aspiration for 21 large-scale hydropower projects, each over 150MW, which will generate 7,893 MW, 76% of the total 10.3 GW of new capacity set out in the Master Plan. ECOWAS' 2012 *Renewable Energy Policy* identifies the contribution of small scale (up to 30MW) and medium scale (30 – 100 MW) hydropower, with small scale hydropower anticipated to provide an additional 787 MW by 2020 and 2449 MW by 2030 (ECOWAS, 2012a; ECREE and UNIDO, 2012).

The broader policy framework for water resources is contained in the 2001 *Permanent Framework for Coordination and Monitoring of water resources* (PFCM) in West Africa, which aims to improve the management of water resources through integrated water resource management, but without specific targets.

4.4. Development policy

Poverty reduction is an important concern for West Africans, and for their development partners. 11 of the 15 ECOWAS member states are classed as Least Developed Countries, where average GDP per capita is just \$1130.93 per year (World Bank, 2015).

At a national level, 13 of the 15 West African states have developed Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), which were introduced by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund in the 1990s as a condition of debt relief for Highly Indebted Poor Countries. The PRSPs have a joint focus on economic growth and poverty alleviation, aiming to achieve higher incomes with increased employment opportunities in growing economic sectors, particularly agriculture. In ECOWAS, this shared approach to development and economic growth is reflected in the Community's mission to achieve 'economic cooperation and regional integration', ultimately delivering a 'borderless, peaceful, prosperous and cohesive region' (ECOWAS, 2010a).

The development of the agriculture and energy sectors, discussed above, is clearly influenced by this joint poverty alleviation and economic growth agenda, at state, sub-regional and regional levels. Similarly, as ECOWAS' *Vision 2020* sets out, the impetus for tackling environmental challenges such as desertification and deforestation often stems from their impact on the speed and success of regional integration and economic development.

Alongside the PRSPs, developing countries have also been working towards the delivery of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (2000 –2015), which have now been replaced with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (2015 – 2030). The SDGs are expected to drive development aid spending priorities over the next 15 years, and – in contrast to the MDGs – they have been designed to deliver development and environmental priorities hand in hand. They therefore have the potential to drive a holistic approach to the social and environmental consequences of land use. Some of the key goals relating to land use are:

- 2: *End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture*
- 6: *Ensure access to water and sanitation for all*
- 7: *Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all*
- 9: *Build resilient infrastructure, promote sustainable industrialization and foster innovation*
- 13: *Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts*
- 15: *Sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, halt and reverse land degradation, halt biodiversity loss⁵*

4.5. Land policy

At an African level, the African Union has issued a *Framework and Guidelines on land policy in Africa*, which aims to support land policy that reinforces land rights and improves agricultural productivity. Within West Africa, ECOWAS is in the process of developing a Land Tenure Directive that supports these objectives, particularly food security and nutrition.

⁵ www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/

The *Framework and Guidelines on land policy in Africa* found that West African states have a wide variety of different, sometimes overlapping land tenure regimes. Land rights issues (ownership and resource use) and security of tenure are an increasing focus as populations grow and states seek to modernise tenure regimes. In particular, there is a need to provide security of tenure to farmers, so that they can safely invest in improvements to support greater – and more sustainable – productivity. There is also increasing integration between natural resource management and land policy; in some cases land policy is actually contained within environmental or agricultural policies.

However, national land policies and laws are frequently not complete, and there remain significant gaps in alignment with policies and customary rights around natural resource management. The importance of this alignment is demonstrated in recent research from Mozambique, which shows that where communities are involved in the development of plans and policies affecting land uses on which they rely the wellbeing benefits of these services – which ultimately support food security and poverty alleviation – can be more effectively safeguarded (Nhantumbo and Zorrilla Miras, 2015).

4.6. Environmental policy

A key impetus for environmental policy development within West Africa has come from obligations under the three Rio Conventions – on biological diversity (CBD), combating desertification (UNCCD) and climate change (UNFCCC). All the Conventions have specific interests in land use:

- CBD requires, under the Aichi targets, that parties integrate biodiversity values into development policies (target 2), reduce the loss of natural habitats by at least half (target 5), sustainably manage productive areas (target 7) and designate/ protect and manage at least 17% of terrestrial areas (target 11);⁶
- UNCCD's 10 year strategy (2008 – 2018) aims for a reduction in the total area affected by desertification/land degradation and drought, and (as in CBD) sustainable management of productive areas;⁷
- UNFCCC seeks to facilitate financing and technical support for mitigation of and adaptation to climate change in developing countries, including in relation to emissions arising from land use and land use change.

Nonetheless, the relationship between these obligations and land use is complex. For example, biodiversity-friendly farming that supports CBD obligations could reduce yields, leading to greater agricultural expansion into fragile dryland areas. Equally, using hydropower to meet greenhouse gas emissions reductions under UNFCCC could entail a loss of biodiversity in the construction area and downstream.

At a national level, the Conventions require the development of action plans, which often include the mainstreaming of environmental issues into other sectoral policies.⁸ The need for mainstreaming should not be underestimated, nor the breadth of policy areas where this is necessary. As the IUCN note, 'drivers of pressure on wildlife populations occur simultaneously and the effect of a single factor is impossible to disentangle from another'; thus, there is a need for 'much better integration of wildlife issues in agricultural, land use, climate change, poverty reduction, food security, and health policies' (IUCN, 2015, p.87). Since the delivery of those plans depends in many cases on external resources, making the case for mainstreaming 'environmental' policy into productive sectors and budgetary processes is essential, but has often proven challenging (Roe and Mapendembe, 2013).

At the sub-regional level, ECOWAS adopted an Environmental Policy in 2008 that seeks to address land degradation and biodiversity loss, in the context of adaptation to climate change, though it is not widely implemented. It does, however, have a specific remit to support migratory birds. ECOWAS also adopted a sub-regional action programme to combat desertification in 2013, which mainly focuses on coordination

⁶ www.cbd.int/sp/targets/

⁷

www.unccd.int/Lists/SiteDocumentLibrary/10YearStrategy/Decision%20COP8%20adoption%20of%20The%20Strategy.pdf

⁸ CBD requires a National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan; UNCCD requires a National Action Programme; and UNFCCC requires a National Adaptation Plans and National Adaptation Programmes of Action.

and advocacy. The Union Economique et Monétaire Ouest Africaine adopted a Common Environmental Improvement Policy, also in 2008.

5. How could AEMLAP's Working Group develop work on land use in West Africa?

This section presents a proposal for how a programme of work on land use in West Africa could be developed. It is based on the assumption that we will need to work with arguments for land use change that, whilst benefitting migratory landbirds, also benefit people and ecosystem services. Following on from this, we will need to work with existing fora and relevant partners to generate influence within policy processes.

5.1. A West African land use workshop

CMS Resolution 11.17, on AEMLAP, '*Instructs* the Secretariat... to organize regional workshops to address specific issues.'⁹ In this context, and building on the discussions at the AEMLAP Working Group meeting in November 2015, we propose that a workshop should be held in 2016 with the **purpose** of:

- refining land use priorities under AEMLAP, including with specialists in West African land use;
- examining how they can most effectively be tackled – both in terms of policy solutions and those who have the requisite influence to implement them; and
- identifying project proposals to deliver the concluded priority actions.

We propose that **attendees** should be selected on the basis of their expertise in relevant policy issues and their understanding of West African institutions and priorities. In order to ensure that costs remain manageable, we propose that around 30 people should be invited to attend. Attendees are likely to be drawn from: West African national governments; sub-regional government bodies; international institutions; development partners; international financial institutions; NGOs (environmental and development-focused); research institutions; and groupings such as Landscapes for People, Food and Nature; and interested private sector partners.

In terms of a **location**, we propose that the workshop should be held in a West African country already actively involved in these issues, in a way that maximises synergies with other relevant international meetings.

We propose the following **programme** for the workshop:

| Topic | Session | Format | Timing |
|---|---|---|---------------|
| Day 1: how is land use change affecting habitat of importance to migratory landbirds in West Africa, and what are the key drivers of those changes? | 1. Opening of the workshop and day 1 | - | 09.00 – 09.10 |
| | 2. How are changes in land use in West Africa affecting: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • migratory landbirds; • wider biodiversity; and • people? | Presentations + Q&A | 09.10 – 10.10 |
| | Coffee break | - | 10.10 – 10.30 |
| | 3. What is driving the following land use changes in West Africa: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expansion and intensification of arable agriculture; and • Changes to grazing regimes? | Presentations + small group discussions | 10.30 – 12.30 |
| | Lunch | - | 12.30 – 13.30 |

⁹ UNEP/CMS/COP11/Doc.23.1.4/Rev.1 6 November 2014:

http://www.cms.int/sites/default/files/document/COP11_Doc_23_1_4_Rev1_Landbirds_Conservation_African_Eurasian_Region_E.pdf

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|---|---|--|----------------|---|
| | 4. What is driving the following land use changes in West Africa: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increasing demand for fuelwood; and • Hydrodam development? | Presentations + small group discussions | 13.30 15.30 | - |
| | Coffee | - | 15.30 16.00 | - |
| | 5. Where are the policy opportunities amongst the key drivers (as identified in sessions 3 and 4) of the key land use changes affecting migratory landbirds in West Africa? | Workshop | 16.00 17.45 | - |
| | 6. Summary and close of day 1 | - | 17.45 18.00 | - |
| Day 2: who should we be influencing, and how? | 7. Opening of day 2 | - | 09.00 09.10 | - |
| | 8. Summary of the key policy opportunities identified around agriculture, grazing, fuelwood and hydrodam development on day 1 | Presentation | 09.10 09.20 | - |
| | 9. Who are the stakeholders for each of the key opportunities, and how can they be influenced? | Workshop | 09.20 11.00 | - |
| | Coffee | - | 11.00 11.30 | - |
| | 10. Policy solutions for creating positive land use change | Presentations | 11.30 12.30 | - |
| | Lunch | - | 12.30 13.30 | - |
| | 11. Development of action plans to progress work on land use change in West Africa that benefits migratory landbirds, wider biodiversity and people, including the formation of a task force | Workshop | 13.30 16.00 | - |
| | Coffee | - | 16.00 16.30 | - |
| | 12. Summary of workshop and agreement on a programme of work to 2017 | - | 16.30 17.15 | - |
| | 13. Close of workshop | - | 17.15 17.30 | - |

5.2. Identify a group who can effectively progress this agenda

A key task of the workshop (session 11) will be to identify a group, such as a Task Force, to steer the implementation of the actions stemming from the Working Group meeting and workshop. It will need to bring in other key individuals and institutions to effectively progress this agenda in West Africa, by bringing focus at the right levels to the solutions to land use change issues that are driving declines in migratory landbirds, degradation of livelihoods and ecosystem services and exacerbation of climate change impacts.

5.3. Identify funding to support this agenda

A programme of work on land change will require funding, and there will thus be a need to support fundraising. In the first instance, fundraising would be required to support the workshop.

5.4. Submit a Resolution to CMS COP12

An outcome of the West African workshop and any resulting group or Task Force could be to consult with relevant parties around the preparation of a draft resolution to CMS COP12 in 2017 that calls for the adoption of a joint work plan (CMS/AEWA/Raptors MoU/FAO/UNDP etc.) to encourage migrant bird friendly land use in West Africa. Consideration could be given also to getting this adopted subsequently by other frameworks e.g. UNCCD.

6. Discussion questions

Discussion questions are posed here for consideration by the AEMLAP Working Group, to facilitate exploration of the issues discussed and development of recommendations for taking this work forward.

Discussion question 1: does the Working Group agree that:

- a) Addressing land use change in the non-breeding areas should be the priority focus of AEMLAP implementation during the period up to COP13;
- b) The focus of the work should be in West Africa during at least the current triennium; and that
- c) The proposal under UNEP/CMS/Landbirds/WG2/7b, Section 5, would effectively progress this work?

Discussion question 2: does the Working Group agree with the assessment of the land use changes affecting migratory landbirds (UNEP/CMS/Landbirds/WG2/7b, Section 2)? How does their importance vary across the sub-region?

Discussion question 3: what does the Working Group think are the main drivers of land use changes at a national and sub-regional level in West Africa that should be explored at the proposed workshop?

Discussion question 4: who do the Working Group think the key stakeholders would be for the proposed workshop?

Discussion question 5: do Working Group members have suggestions for the location and timing of the workshop (in 2016)?

Action requested:

- i. The African-Eurasian Migratory Landbirds Working Group is requested to take note of this document, provide comments if needed and discuss the proposed way forward and discussion questions.

Annex 1: Land use change actions identified in AEMLAP

Key: *1 – short-term; 2 – medium-term; 3 – long-term

| Type | No | Timeline * | Action | Information needed for West African implementation |
|---------------------------------------|----|------------|--|---|
| Agriculture (Intensive) | 1 | 2 | Develop and implement new policies or review existing policies that maintain and manage natural and semi-natural habitats of value for migratory landbird species within otherwise wide-scale and/or intensively managed, or cropped, agricultural landscapes | Where are habitats of value (wetlands, wooded savannah in the Sahel, and forests in the Guinea-Savannah and humid zones) at greatest risk of negative impact? What specific features of those habitats do migratory landbirds (MLs) require? |
| Agriculture (Intensive) | 2 | 1 | <i>Promote types of biodiversity-friendly farming systems that are favourable to migratory landbird species</i> | Which farming systems (i.e. what features of the farming system) are favourable to MLs? |
| Agriculture (Intensive) | 5 | 2 | Develop land-use planning strategies, using an ecosystem approach | N/A |
| Agriculture (Traditional) | 6 | 2 | Promote agricultural policies that support participatory, sustainable natural resource management practices | Which natural resource management (NRM) practices will most benefit MLs? |
| Agriculture (Traditional) | 7 | 2 | Work with and empower local communities to advocate, develop and implement participatory approaches and incentives aimed at integrated, sustainable management of natural resources | Which NRM practices will most benefit MLs? |
| Timber and non-timber forest products | 10 | 2 | Include the habitat requirements of migratory landbird species in the development and implementation of national integrated woodland management plans | Which indigenous trees or plants are of high value to MLs? |
| Water management | 11 | 1 | <i>Implement, and promote widely, the Ramsar Convention's guidance on wetlands and river basin management (Resolution X.19), especially, but not restricted to, the need to maintain natural river flows that maintain the ecological character of associated wetlands</i> | N/A |
| Water management | 12 | 3 | Regulate anthropogenic threats liable to cause degradation and/or loss of wetlands important for migratory landbird species and initiate rehabilitation or restoration programmes, where feasible and appropriate | N/A |
| Energy | 13 | 1 | <i>Ensure that new energy developments likely to have a significant impact on migratory landbird species adopt early-stage and high-level strategic planning processes involving Strategic Environmental Impact Assessments (SEA) and stakeholder consultation and where possible and appropriate, advocate for alternative renewable energy sources</i> | Which alternative renewable energy sources would be appropriate, and where? |
| Energy | 14 | 2 | Ensure that a strategic approach is adopted with respect to the location of alternative renewable energy developments | What are the key factors for MLs in the location of energy infrastructure? |
| Energy | 15 | 3 | Institute sustainable land-use and energy management policies | N/A |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|----|---|---|---|
| Energy | 16 | 1 | Seek to reduce the dependence on wood fuel, as appropriate, through policies and by supporting initiatives that promote, and make available, alternative renewable sources of energy for heating, lighting and cooking | [As for Action 13] |
| Energy | 17 | 1 | Ensure that planned new hydro-electric reservoirs and other schemes modifying natural hydrology are subject to rigorous Environmental Impact Assessments to ensure that their design mitigates any harm to, and maximises the potential for environmental benefits for, migratory landbird species and their habitats | Where are new hydro-electric reservoirs and other schemes with similar effects planned? |
| Re-vegetation | 19 | 3 | Encourage the use of indigenous trees or other plants that are of high value to migratory landbird species in appropriate afforestation or re-afforestation initiatives | [As for Action 10] |
| Re-vegetation | 20 | 1 | Incorporate into measures being taken to implement the UN Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) considerations of migratory landbird species conservation | [As for Action 10] |
| Integrated land-use management | 21 | 2 | Encourage local implementation of land-use management policies, potentially through appropriate incentive programmes | N/A |

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