



ENVIRONMENTAL REPORTING FOR AFRICAN JOURNALISTS

A Handbook of Key Environmental
Issues and Concepts





Environmental reporting
for African journalists:
Handbook of key
environmental issues and
concepts



Published in December 2006. © 2006 UNEP. ISBN: 978-92-807-2767-8.
UNEP Job number: DPD/0833/NA

Produced by the Division of Environmental Policy Implementation (DEPI)

Divisional Directors: Division of Regional Cooperation - Cristina Boelcke;
Division of Environmental Policy Implementation - Veerle Vandeweerd

Project Supervisors: Akpezi Ogbuigwe, Angele Luh

In House Team: Davies Okoko; Levis Kavagi; Timeyin Uweja; Kwame Ansong-Gyimah; David Bwakali;
Sarah Dorothy Atieno and Rose Ogot

Design and layout: Jennifer Odallo

Cover design and layout concept: Celeste Wamiru

Illustrations: Celeste Wamiru and Amako Obifigbo Chukwunonso

UNEP Review: Angele Luh; Esther Reilink; Fatou Ndoye; Sylvia Bankobeza; Meryem C. Amar; Desta
Mebratu; Verleye Ines; Martin Krebs; Chris Ambala; Aaban Ali Bhutt.

We also acknowledge the extensive review that was carried out by the Africa Network of Environmental
Journalists (ANEJ), Sylvia Wachira and Nkirote Laibon. The photographs included in this handbook are
from the following sources: Peter Manyara, Celeste Wamiru, David Bwakali and EET Team.

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ISBN: 978-92-807-2767-8
Job No.: DPD/0883/NA

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United Nations Environment Programme
Division of Environmental Policy Implementation (DEPI)
P.O. Box 30552, Nairobi, 00100, Kenya
Tel: +254 20 7621234
Faximile: +254 20 7623927
Email: unepub@unep.org
www.unep.org

Printing: UNON Printshop, United Nations Office at Nairobi

Printed on chlorine free paper with plant based ink.

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Foreword

“Knowledge is power. Information is liberating. Education is the premise of progress, in every society, in every family.” These words by Kofi Annan underscore the immense importance of information in our society. An informed society will be better equipped and positioned to tackle the challenges of the twenty-first century.



Environmental information forms the crux of environmental action. Thanks to the prominent role that they play in disseminating information, the mass media can ensure widespread distribution of environmental information and thus catalyse environmental action.

In pursuance of its mission to provide leadership and encourage partnerships and access to environmental information as helping to contribute to sustainable development, UNEP recognizes the need to support journalists in the difficult task of interpreting complex environmental issues. This handbook was written in a user-friendly reference style that will ensure speedy access to the information needed both in the handbook itself and in the further readings suggested. The availability of such specific information and references will enable environmental issues to be widely incorporated into mainstream reporting, thus ensuring that accurate environmental information becomes duly and strategically integrated into the public domain sooner, rather than later; systematically, rather than sporadically.

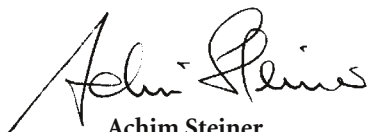
Africa is one of the five priority areas identified by UNEP, accordingly African journalists need to be trained in environmental reporting. Accurate and balanced environmental journalism requires a firm grasp of global, regional and local environmental issues. This handbook is geared towards providing the African journalist with specific background information and guidelines for accurate environmental reporting. It highlights and outlines key issues and the environmental conventions related to them, because of their global significance and the local impact they have. Environmental conventions are particularly important for Africa because of its extreme vulnerability to environmental change. This handbook will provide journalists with a firm grasp of the essentials of these vital conventions and how they play out on the wider environmental field.

The Africa Environment Outlook (AEO) process within UNEP has produced two highly informative and comprehensive integrated environmental assessment reports. The second edition of the AEO report sets out clearly the immense opportunities afforded by Africa's natural resources. The report probes more deeply into the extensive interplay between environmental and economic factors and, in doing so, has set a new benchmark in holistic assessment that looks at both the past and the future. The handbook provides an overview of this cutting-edge AEO process which will enable journalists to appreciate both the bigger picture of the African environment and the emerging wider context of environmental action.

The Bali Strategic Plan for Technology Support and Capacity-building has underlined the need to base the decision-making process on sound information. This vital principle of *information for action* was also stressed by global environmental ministers at their sixth special session in Malmö, Sweden, in May 2000. The Malmö ministerial declaration states in part that “the role of civil society at all levels should be strengthened through freedom of access to environmental information to all.”

The media continue to play a strategic role in raising environmental awareness, channelling environmental information and inspiring environmental action and, as such, is crucial to the work carried out by UNEP. For this reason African journalists, through the Africa Network of Environmental Journalists, were extensively consulted in the production of this handbook and their input has ensured that the handbook truly reflects their concerns and needs.

Because of the dynamic nature of environmental information, environmental reporting must be concerted, consistent and informed. This handbook answers that need and provides journalists with the necessary tools to deliver such reporting.



Achim Steiner,
United Nations Under-Secretary-General and
Executive Director,
United Nations Environment Programme

Preface

Environmental information is like a journey. Sometimes you don't know what's around the corner but you must always proceed responsibly towards that corner. The key environmental issues and concepts that this handbook profiles are meant to assist African journalists and the wider public to navigate responsibly and consistently along this dynamic environmental journey. An ancient Chinese proverb underscores this, 'to get through the hardest journey, we need to take only one step at a time, but we must keep on stepping.'

Since its inception in 1972, the United Nations Environment Programme has undertaken several projects and publications in line with its mission to *provide leadership and encourage partnership in caring for the environment by inspiring, informing and enabling nations and peoples to improve their quality of life without compromising that of future generations.*

UNEP recognises that information dissemination is crucial for the achievement of global goals such as the Millennium Development Goals and the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development. The media and media practitioners play a crucial role in information dissemination and awareness raising about sustainable development and in promoting action for social change.

To help equip African journalists with relevant skills and tools for raising the quality of environmental reporting in both electronic and print media, UNEP has been active in developing programmes and publications for African Journalists. UNEP has held several workshops for African journalists between 2002 and 2006. As a result of these meetings, the African Network of Environmental Journalists (ANEJ) was formed. A website has been created to facilitate communication and access to resources. A resource kit for African journalists has also been published. These activities contributed towards this handbook.

The ability to be both factual and investigative is a cornerstone of journalism. This handbook is designed to provide pointers to help that practice. It encourages and facilitates the application of individual initiatives. It is based on the premise that the users have a natural interest in nature and have the professional task of reporting on the environment and environmental science. However, it is designed to be of general interest to the average journalist as well as all environmental educators and students.

It is our hope that this handbook will greatly enhance the work of African journalists as they continue with their sacred duty of keeping the public informed. Indeed, we must keep on walking this environmental road. I wish you all an enlightening journey as you traverse through this publication.

Cristina Boelcke
Director, Division of Regional Cooperation
United Nations Environment Programme

List of abbreviations

ABS	Access to genetic resources and benefit-t sharing
AEWA	African-Eurasian Waterbird Agreement
AMCEN	African Ministerial Conference on the Environment
AMCOW	African Ministers' Council on Water
ANEJ	African Network of Environmental Journalists
ARSCP	African Roundtable on Sustainable Consumption and Production
BPOA	Barbados Plan of Action
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CCOL	Coordinating Committee of the Ozone Layer
CILSS	Comite Permanent Inter-Etats de Lutte contre la Sécheresse dans le Sahel (Permanent Interstate Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel)
CITES	Convention on International trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora
COP	Conference of Parties
EAC	East African Community
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West Africa States
EIA	Environmental impact assessment
EMG	Environment Management Group
GMO	Genetically modified organisms
IAS	Invasive invasive alien species
ICRI	International Coral Reef Initiative
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority for Development
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IUCN	World Conservation Union
IWRM	Integrated water resource management
MEA	Multilateral environmental agreement
NBI	Nile Basin Initiative

NEAP	National environment action plan
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
ODS	Ozone-depleting substances
PIC	Prior informed consent
POP	Persistent organic pollutant
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SIDS	Small island developing States
UNCCD	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
UNDESD	United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WWF	World Wildlife Fund



Introduction

This handbook seeks to equip African journalists with an information tool for environmental reporting. It covers the following topics:

Africa Environment Outlook

This section provides an overview of Africa's environment, based on that given in the second edition of the Africa Environment Outlook report (AEO-2). This report portrays Africa's environmental resources as an asset for the continent's development, thus highlighting the potential of the region's natural resource base in supporting the development agenda of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and also pointing out the environmental cost of the misuse of these resources.

Key environmental issues

This section provides outlines of key environmental issues, introducing the UNEP divisions that deal with these issues. The idea is to give African journalists an overall picture of diverse environmental issues and concepts.

United Nations and the environment

This section provides information on the United Nations and the major bodies within the United Nations that are concerned with the environment. It also provides information on several environment-related United Nations programmes and projects. Global initiatives such as the Millennium Development Goals and the Decade of Education for Sustainable Development are also discussed here.

Multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs)

This section discusses MEAs and introduces the reader to the MEA drafting process, meetings, negotiations and signatures, and also the ratification procedures. It also describes



how an MEA comes into force, the overall procedure and the decisions made by the conference of parties and the development of protocols. This section also outlines the major global environmental conventions currently in force.

Reporting on the environment

This section provides key pointers on environmental concerns that journalists may wish to report on. It provides brief information on organizations, networks and processes that deal with the management of environmental information. This section also presents some ideas on target audience and focus groups, provides suggestions on how to avoid errors in environmental reporting and discusses some challenges and opportunities in environmental reporting.

Environmental contacts and networks

In order to be effective every journalist depends on access to information and contacts. This section provides a list of relevant contacts that may serve as reliable sources of information. It also lists networks and training opportunities that are available to journalists writing on the environment.

How to use this handbook

The main focus of this handbook is to provide readily available access to key environmental issues and concepts. Careful consideration has been given to the choice of the various topics covered in terms of their importance and relevance to the African continent. Each section deals with a specific aspect of the environment and is designed to provide a quick but detailed reference guide for journalists on each topic.

- If you are a journalist who occasionally works on environmental issues,
- If you are an environmental journalist who always reports on environmental issues,
- If you are a journalist who would like to start reporting on environmental issues,
- If you are keen on environmental issues,

then this handbook is for you! It will help you to answer investigative and analytical questions like the following:

- What are the key issues on the environmental scene?
- Who are the key players in different environmental fields?
- When were landmark environmental decisions made and what are their consequences?
- How are MEAs concluded?
- Why is the environment suffering in some African regions and flourishing in others?
- Where can I get additional information on the environment?

Where relevant, the information in the handbook is preceded by the corresponding question: who, what, why, when, where and how. This will make it easier for the reader to zero in on the section they wish to consult. The appendices provide a list of websites, contact information on environment ministries in Africa and contact information on the African network of environmental journalists.

"We face neither East nor West: we face forward"

*Kwame Nkrumah,
founding President of
Ghana*



I. Africa Environment Outlook (AEO)

What?

The African Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN) initiated the Africa Environment Outlook (AEO) reporting process in 2000. The AEO report is a UNEP flagship report which analyses the current state of the environment and environmental trends in the region, as well as examining emerging issues. This report continues to inspire dialogue in the region and has been used as the primary background document in the preparation of the NEPAD environmental action plan – showing strong links between environmental assessment and policy-making.

The AEO assessment methodology is based on the UNEP Global Environment Outlook (GEO) process. It brings together information and insights that are usually dispersed across disciplines and institutions. It also fosters communication between science and policy-making. This highly participatory process aims to provide comprehensive, credible environmental information in a form that is relevant to policy-making. The structure, which combines comprehensive environmental information with policy analysis, mindful of the overall context of social and economic conditions and development imperatives, is thus ideally suited to this purpose.

When?

AEO was commissioned at the eighth session of AMCEN. The first AEO report was launched during the ninth session of AMCEN and was hailed as an historic advance for the state of the environment in Africa. It was the first ever comprehensive and integrated report on the African environment. The second AEO report was launched during the eleventh session of AMCEN in Brazzaville, Congo.

“The AEO-2 report challenges the myth that Africa is poor. Indeed, it points out that its vast natural wealth can, if sensitively, sustainably and creatively managed, be the basis for an African renaissance – a renaissance that meets and goes beyond the internationally agreed Millennium Development Goals. But this is not inevitable and, as the AEO-2 points out, African nations face stark choices”.

*Achim Steiner, UNEP
Executive Director*

“Safeguarding the environment is a crosscutting United Nations’ activity. It is a guiding principle of all our work in support of sustainable development. It is an essential component of poverty eradication and one of the foundations of peace and security.”

Kofi Annan, United Nations Secretary-General

How?

This report has brought people into the heart of sustainable development, thus underlining the importance of the human element in environmental dynamics. The report probes deeply into the close interconnection between social and economic factors. In doing this, it has set a new benchmark in holistic assessment.

AEO-2 provides an integrated and multilevel analysis of the state of the environment and the opportunities it offers for Africa. It emphasizes the concept of sustainable livelihood, and the importance of environmental initiatives in supporting that concept. It discusses what should and can be done with the remaining environmental assets, in the context of identified constraints, rather than focusing on what has been already lost. Success can be achieved by adoption of the following measures:

- *Adding value* to the resource that still remains in existence;
- *Using natural resources efficiently and sustainably* to derive maximum benefit;
- *Mitigating* constraints and negative effects;
- *Maximizing the total value* of Africa’s natural assets;
- Making a case for *safeguarding and improving* the remaining assets;

Why?

As is evident from its content, AEO-2 has defined Africa’s environmental resources as an asset for the continent’s development. In doing this, it shows that the region’s natural resource base can be used to support the development agenda of NEPAD and it also demonstrates the price to be paid for misuse of that resource base. The report serves as a monitoring and evaluation tool for the implementation of the programmes and activities contained in the action plan of the NEPAD environment initiative.

The AEO-2 report covers the following:

Environment for development

The environment and human development are the principal focuses of sustainable development. The productivity and sustainability of Africa's environment is heavily dependent on how this asset is managed. This, in turn, can affect the availability, stocks and functioning of the remaining assets, either enhancing opportunities or putting livelihoods at risk. The range of livelihoods, with its opportunities for human development and alleviation of extreme poverty and hunger, extends from total dependence on natural resource systems either for subsistence or as part of business, to total dependence on wage earnings, from trade or industry.

This section mainly focuses on the central role that people and livelihoods play in the field of sustainable development, exploring the concept and range of livelihoods to be found in Africa. In this context, the range of opportunities for earning a livelihood in Africa is considered to extend from those who are wholly dependent on natural resource systems for subsistence, to those who are entirely dependent on wage earning, or trade or industries.

This section also examines the interaction between culture and natural resources. In many African societies, not only are natural resources important assets, but they also help define group identity.

This section also reviews different initiatives that are influencing the environmental agenda in the region and the way they are operating at subregional, national and local levels. It has identified common points in the initiatives and highlighted areas of agreement on the priorities.

State of the environment and environmental trends: 20-year retrospective

This section has drawn from AEO-1 and NEPAD programme areas to provide a brief summary of the state of the environment, in the context of opportunities for development.

"However improbable it may sound to the sceptics, Africa will prosper! Whoever we may be, whatever our immediate interest, however much we carry baggage from our past, however much we have been caught by the fashion of cynicism and loss of faith in the capacity of the people, let us err today and say – nothing can stop us now!"

Thabo Mbeki, then Deputy President of South Africa (Mbeki 1996)

“Like winds and sunsets,
wild things were taken
for granted until progress
began to do away with
them”

*Aldo Leopold, US
environmentalist (1887–
1948)*

What?

The areas covered in this chapter are the following:

- Social and economic issues
- Land
- Forests and woodlands
- Atmosphere
- Freshwater
- Biodiversity
- Coastal and marine
- Human settlements
- Health and environment (malaria, TB, HIV/AIDS, infant mortality)
- Energy
- Technology solutions (considered as cross-cutting)
- Natural disasters and environmental performance
- Gender disparities (an interdisciplinary issue relevant to all the themes)
- Interlinkages: The environment and policy web

How?

Each theme identifies potential opportunities for reversing environmental degradation, focussing on adding value to what remains by using it efficiently to achieve maximum poverty alleviation. Economic evaluation of the resources emphasizes the need to safeguard and improve them.

Emerging challenges

What?

Emerging issues can simply be existing issues looked at in a different light. They can also be completely new environmental phenomena. One of the functions of AEO, as a monitoring



tool, is to keep track of environmental problems (or solutions) that may suddenly become significant, and bring them to the attention of policy makers.

Some of the emerging issues dealt with in AEO-2 are set out below.

Genetically modified crops

Modified non-living organisms include products such as drugs, vaccines, and food additives, canned, processed and preserved foods. Biotechnology techniques and products applicable in the health sector that may be of value in developing countries include molecular diagnostics, recombinant vaccines, vaccine and drug-delivery techniques, sequencing pathogens, genomes, microbicides, bioinformatics, recombinant therapeutic proteins, and combinatorial chemistry. Environmental management techniques that may be useful include bioremediation.

There are three critical issues to be considered: first, the implications of the use of modern biotechnology for biosafety as well as for human health and well-being; second, whether or not genetically modified organisms (GMOs) which were engineered using modern biotechnology offer a sustainable food security option; and, third, the extent to which, with its existing capacity, Africa is able to undertake research and effectively to monitor and evaluate genetically modified products and their use.

Another set of questions relating to policy-making processes is the growing influence of the scientific and private sector in policy development and how this can be reconciled with public concerns. Issues of public trust, accountability and transparency, as well as farmers' and consumers' rights, account for much of these.

Invasive alien species

Alien – that is non-native – species have been introduced both accidentally and intentionally. Intentional introductions are, and have been, motivated by economic, environmental and social considerations. Many alien species, including some that are

“...future generations are likely to look back to our time and either thank us or curse us for what we do – or don't do – about GMOs and biosafety. Doing the right thing is not simple.”

CBD and UNEP 2003

“Invasive alien species are emerging as one of the major threats to sustainable development, on a par with global warming and the destruction of life-support systems. These aliens come in the form of plants, animals and microbes that have been introduced into an area from other parts of the world, and have been able to displace indigenous species.”

*Preston and Williams,
Working for Water
Programme, South Africa
2003*

“Never look down to test the ground before taking your next step; only he who keeps his eye fixed on the far horizon will find the right road.”

Dag Hammarskjöld, United Nations Secretary-General 1953-1961

“To live is to choose. But to choose well, you must know who you are and what you stand for, where you want to go and why you want to get there.”

Kofi Annan, Secretary-General of the United Nations

“Safeguarding the environment is... an essential component of poverty eradication and one of the foundations of peace and security.”

Kofi Annan, Secretary-General of the United Nations

invasive, have been of immense economic value for Africa. In general, however, their impact on sustainability of resources (on which livelihoods and development are often based) has been adverse: they have a negative impact on human well-being and opportunities and contribute to increased human vulnerability. Invasive alien species are a serious impediment to the sustainable use of global, regional and local biodiversity; this has implications for freshwater and marine resources, tourism, and forest and woodlands. The proliferation of invasive alien species affects the potential of countries to meet their development and environmental objectives. Resources spent on trying to control invasive alien species could be redirected to other development initiatives, such as the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals. This is an important reason to adopt approaches that control and prevent such introductions.

In Africa there are important ecosystems under threat from invasive alien species; this undermines development and livelihood opportunities, increases human vulnerability and threatens human well-being. The invasive species may outcompete native species, repressing or excluding them, thus fundamentally changing the ecosystem. They may indirectly transform the structure and species composition of the ecosystem by changing the way in which nutrients are cycled through the ecosystem. Entire ecosystems could be placed at risk through the knock-on effects. Given the critical role played by biodiversity in the maintenance of essential ecosystem functions, invasive alien species may cause changes in environmental services such as flood control and water supply, water assimilation, nutrient recycling, conservation and regeneration of soils. Invasive species may also affect native species by introducing pathogens or parasites that may bring them disease or even death.

Chemicals

Chemical substances and their derivatives are widely used in many development and economic fields, including industry, agriculture, mining, water purification, public health (particularly disease eradication), and infrastructure development. The use of chemicals has brought immense benefits to humanity, but at the same time has had negative impacts on human health and safety, (especially for the very poor and the very young), on the integrity of terrestrial and marine ecosystems, and on the quality of air and water. The

unsound management of obsolete chemicals, stockpiles and waste undermines human health and poses threats to human well-being at many levels, including the sustainability of the environment, which provides essential goods and services for the livelihood of millions. It poses a threat to physical security and also reduces the ability of communities to care for themselves and, especially, for their children.

The challenge facing Africa is how to harness the benefits of chemicals, while minimizing the costs. While Africa has made significant progress in developing a regional framework for the management of chemicals throughout their life-cycle – production, transportation, storage, use and disposal – much still needs to be done for this approach to be implemented into national and subregional systems.

Developing a more effective chemical management system will require tackling the specific challenges that Africa faces. There is already an extensive global system for chemical management, and it is important not to duplicate efforts but to create synergies and better systems for implementation. Africa faces challenges related to the availability of information and the communication of this to users; inadequate capacity to monitor the use of chemicals effectively; lack of access to cleaner production systems and technologies for waste management; inadequate capacity to deal with poisoning and contamination. Recognition of the risks that chemicals pose to human health and the environment has led to significant progress being made at international levels to address this through Agenda 21, the World Summit on Sustainable Development, the Rotterdam Convention and the Stockholm Convention.

Environment for peace and regional cooperation

This section looks at some of the links between environment, population, and security, particularly in areas of conflict where there are problems with scarcity, distribution of and access to environmental resources.

Conflict is a major driver of environmental change, and it has significant implications for development and human well-being. Many of the conflicts in the region are internal and



“By our actions we have denigrated our country and jeopardized the future of our children ...indigenous people often do not realise what is happening to them until it is too late. More often than not, they are the victims of the actions of greedy outsiders.”

*Ken Saro-Wiwa,
Nigerian writer, human
rights activist and
environmentalist*

cross-border disagreements that are often related to the use of natural resources. There is a strong negative correlation between conflict and human development: in 2005 most of the countries with the lowest human development index (HDI) rankings were also those which were immersed in conflict or had recently emerged from it.

Since 1970, more than 30 wars have been fought in Africa. Severe military conflict in sub-Saharan Africa is reported to cut life expectancy by between four and six years. Between 1980 and 2000, Africa lost over 50 per cent of its infrastructure to conflict. By the end of 2003, more than half of the total 24 million internally displaced people worldwide were to be found in 20 African States. In 2004, there were almost 2.9 million officially registered refugees in Africa, and many more people living outside their country of origin without legal protection. By 2005, this number had risen to 4.9 million. It is estimated that one in three African city-dwellers lives in life-threatening conditions. In Angola, for example, a combination of war-related factors resulted in rapid and unplanned urbanization. The population of the capital city, Luanda, doubled between 1990 and 2001.

Africa has made considerable progress towards building peace. In 1998, there were 14 countries engaged in armed conflict or civil strife; by August 2005, the United Nations Secretary-General reported that only three countries were engaged in major conflict although many more countries were involved in civil strife of a lower intensity. Most countries have greatly improved their governance system, yet a combination of historical, external and internal factors continue to contribute to conflict.

Outlook

Back to our common future: a renaissance for the environment

The AEO-2 report looks at the future through the lens of four scenarios – *Market forces*, *Policy reform*, *Fortress world*, and *Great transitions*. Analysis of these scenarios provides a framework for understanding the ways in which various issues or sectors impinge on one another and the implications that any particular policy choice will have for the future.

When?

The time frame envisaged is between now and the year 2025; this would fit in with the national development visions and poverty reduction strategies which have already been developed by a number of countries in the region.

How?

This chapter focuses on strategic partnerships, policies and early warning systems or other mechanisms to achieve NEPAD goals. It also highlights the role of science and technology and examines different development paths towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals, based on selected scenarios.

Strengthening implementation and policy

What?

This chapter looks at ways of improving implementation of activities and policy development, keeping in mind the emerging issues within the global context. Special focus is placed on the opportunities available. Some of the issues discussed include:

- Analysis of the costs and benefits of priority policies
- Governance and capacity-building for compliance with MEAs
- The priorities for research and development that are needed to improve policy development
- Partnerships focusing on issues concerned with the empowerment of the private sector, communities and civil society to achieve NEPAD goals.

Conclusions and recommendations

What?

The following are some of the issues highlighted in the conclusion:

- An analysis of the overall environmental performance. Are things improving or getting worse?
- Whether the responses, policy and action, are the most appropriate or could things have been done differently?

How?

AEO-2 recommendations are formulated on the principle that people are central to sustainable development. Some of the success stories highlighted in the analysis give rise to recommendations for actions to be taken. Specific recommendations are made for African small island developing States in the context of the meeting held in Mauritius to review implementation of the Barbados Plan of Action 10 years on (Barbados+10) and its outcome. There are also recommendations for the next set of priorities for Africa.

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II. Key environmental issues

A. Poverty and the environment

Poverty should be studied through a multi-dimensional approach that encompasses a multitude of constituents and determinants of well-being. The absence of these constituents and determinants can be defined as poverty. According to the publication, *Exploring the Links: Human Well-being, Poverty and Ecosystem Services* (UNEP and IISD, 2004), the ten constituents and determinants that are essential for improving well-being and reducing poverty are:

- Adequate nourishment
- Freedom from avoidable disease
- Environmentally clean and safe shelter
- Adequate supply of clean drinking water
- Access to clean air
- Sufficient energy for warmth and cooking
- Use of traditional medicine
- Use of natural elements found in ecosystems for traditional cultural and spiritual practices
- Ability to cope with extreme natural events such as floods, tropical storms and landslides
- Ability to make sustainable management decisions that respect natural resources and enable the achievement of a steady, sustainable income.

The well-being of present and future human populations depends on their attaining ecologically sustainable and socially equitable ways of living. While ecosystems adapt and evolve, humans are vulnerable, especially when ecosystem productivity drops. In order to reduce this vulnerability and increase the resilience of the poor we need:

- To move away from a one-size-fits-all approach towards a more adaptable intervention strategy that embraces, understands and respects the complexity of ecosystems

"If a free society cannot help the many who are poor, it cannot save the few who are rich."

*John F. Kennedy US
President 1961 - 1963*

"A society is judged not so much by the standards attained by its more affluent and privileged members as by the quality of life which it is able to assure for its weakest members."

*Javier Perez de Cuellar,
United Nations Secretary-
General, 1982–1991*

"There can be no peace without equitable development; and there can be no development without sustainable management of the environment in a democratic and peaceful space."

*Wangari Maathai, Nobel
Peace Laureate, 2004*

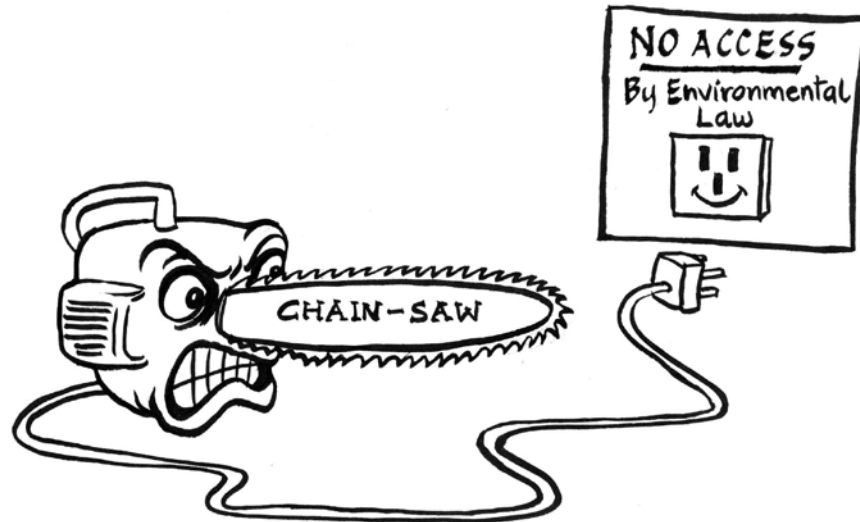
- To ensure that intervention strategies do not fight against the dynamics of the ecosystems but rather work with them.

References

http://www.unep.org/delc/poverty_environment/index.asp

B. Environmental law

Since the establishment of UNEP in 1972, environmental law has always been one of its priorities. The development of adequate environmental law is an essential adjunct to the implementation of the policies, strategies and recommendations of UNEP. In 2000, the Malmö Ministerial Declaration acknowledged that the evolving framework of international environmental law and the development of national law provided a sound basis for addressing major environmental threats.



Environmental law was also covered in Agenda 21, which stated that, “the overall objective of the review and development of international environmental law should be to evaluate and to promote the efficacy of that law and to promote the integration of environment and development policies through effective international agreements or instruments taking into account both universal principles and the particular and differentiated needs and concerns of all countries.”

National and international environmental legislation is complex and vast, comprising thousands of rules that aim to protect the Earth’s living and non-living elements and its ecological processes. The laws of these ecological processes are inescapable and must be acknowledged. One such law is that all human activities have an impact on the environment. Indeed, each individual has an “ecological footprint” that reflects the extent of that person’s use of natural resources and the extent to which that use has contributed to pollution. The ecological footprints of individuals vary considerably both within States and from one region of the world to another.

<http://www.footprintnetwork.org>

Global commitments are vital to the sustainable protection and conservation of environmental features. In Africa, landmark natural resources that are indispensable to life, such as the Nile river, can only be conserved through transboundary legislation and action. Hence environmental law at the global, regional and national level is at once a cornerstone and a guidepost for the environment. Environmental law is widely recognized as an effective tool to catalyse and maintain national and international environmental action.

Montevideo Programme

Since 1982, UNEP has conducted its environmental law activities on the basis of three consecutive issues of the Montevideo Programme for the Development and Periodic Review of Environmental Law. Each sets a ten-year strategy for the involvement of UNEP in the field of environmental law. The Montevideo Programme has provided a long-term strategic approach for the development and implementation of the UNEP international environmental law programme, which responds to the various environmental challenges of each decade.

Publications on Environmental Law include:

- Guidebook for Policy and Legislative Development on Conservation and Sustainable Use of Freshwater Resources.
- UNEP Global Judges Programme.
- Compendium of Environmental Laws of African Countries
- Judicial Handbook on Environmental Law
- International Environmental Law

In 1981, a group of senior government officials, expert in environmental law, developed a long-term, strategic guidance plan for UNEP in the field of environmental law, which was adopted by the Governing Council of UNEP in 1982 and became known as Montevideo Programme I. As part of its mandate, UNEP was to undertake programme activities on the conclusion of international agreements and the development of international principles, guidelines and standards. During the 1980s and 1990s, the Programme and its successor (Montevideo Programme II) adopted by the Governing Council in 1993 formed the basis for any action taken by UNEP concerning the progressive development of environmental law. The content was largely based upon the requirements outlined in Agenda 21 adopted at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in 1992 – the Earth Summit.

UNEP is currently implementing the Montevideo Programme III, the Programme for the Development and Periodic Review of Environmental Law for the first Decade of the Twenty-first Century. The Governing Council adopted the programme in February 2001, by decision 21/23. The Montevideo Programme III includes 20 components, grouped under three major themes:

- (a) Effectiveness of environmental law
 - Implementation, compliance and enforcement
 - Capacity-building
 - Prevention and mitigation of environmental damage
 - Avoidance and settlement of international environmental disputes
 - Strengthening and development of international environmental law
 - Harmonization and coordination
 - Public participation and access to information
 - Information technology and innovative approaches to environmental law
- (b) Conservation and management
 - Freshwater resources
 - Coastal and marine ecosystems

- Soils
- Forests
- Biological diversity
- Pollution prevention and control
- Production and consumption patterns
- Environmental emergencies and natural disasters

(c) Relationship with other fields

- Trade
- Security and the environment
- Military activities and the environment

Cartagena mandate for UNEP

In 2002, at the seventh special session meeting of UNEP in Cartagena, Colombia recommended that the implementation of the existing national and international laws should be a matter of priority. The recommendation went further and stated: “implementation of multilateral environmental agreements should be further enhanced, with appropriate assistance given to developing countries and countries with economies in transition. The UNEP Programme for the Development and Periodic Review of Environmental Law for the First Decade of the Twenty-first Century (Montevideo Programme III) should be fully implemented for addressing legal and institutional means for achieving the environmental dimension of sustainable development. Institutional arrangements to strengthen collaboration between UNEP and other relevant entities, including multilateral environmental agreement entities competent in fields other than the environment should be pursued.”

References

<http://www.unep.org/delc/Law>

<http://www.unep.org/gc/GCSS-VII/Documents/K0260448.doc>

Partnership for the Development of Environmental Law and Institutions in Africa (PADELIA)

PADELIA is a UNEP project which aims at building capacity and strengthening the institutions of African countries for the development, implementation, enforcement and harmonization of environmental laws, taking into account poverty alleviation and sustainable development strategies.

Phase I of the project was initiated in 1994. This phase of the project involved seven countries: Burkina Faso, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Sao Tome and Principe, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania. The first four project countries concentrated on environmental issues of a purely national character while the other three focused on issues of subregional and transboundary scope geared towards the harmonization of laws and regulations in agreed areas.

Phase I, which ended officially in 2000, generated many projects at global, national and subregional levels, including the compilation of compendiums of environmental legislation of different African countries and judicial decisions on matters related to the environment from different jurisdictions worldwide; reports which formed the basis for the development of legislation and framework environmental laws in Burkina Faso, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Sao Tome and Principe and Uganda. In addition, the project countries developed draft texts of sectoral laws. Kenya, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania, which had been selected to facilitate an experiment with a subregional project, are adopting a protocol on the environment and natural resources.

Phase II of the project covers 13 countries which are grouped into three subregions: the Sahel subregion comprising Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger and Senegal; the SADC subregion comprising Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi and Swaziland (a phase I country) and the East African subregion comprising Kenya, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania. Other countries which do not fall under the subregions are Mozambique and Sao Tome and Principe. PADELIA, therefore, works with the national Governments in the project countries and other partners, including donors and the cooperating agencies the World Conservation

Union (IUCN) and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) in the implementation of the project activities.

The project activities are categorized into five broad areas: review and development of environmental laws; institutional strengthening; capacity-building to develop and implement environmental laws; promotion of compliance with and enforcement of environmental law, and the promotion of environmental law awareness and information. Its main features include the linking of all its activities to poverty reduction strategies and sustainable development; it is country-based and highly participatory in nature in that beneficiary countries identify their own problems, determine their priorities, build a national consensus and employ national expertise to implement activities, thus ensuring national ownership of the results.

It also encourages capacity-building whereby nationals are trained to identify problems requiring legal intervention and to prepare their own laws and other legal instruments. At the regional level, the project has been working with African universities to promote the introduction of environmental law into the curriculum of their law faculties.

PADELIA has been regarded as a driving force for environmental law in Africa. The establishment of the Association of Environmental Law Lecturers in African Universities is a clear indication of the increase in popularity of the subject of environmental law through the activities of PADELIA.

C. Environmental partnerships

A Kiswahili proverb rightly states that unity means power while disunity means weakness. UNEP has always enjoyed a special relationship with civil society organizations in tackling environmental issues. This unity was already evident even when UNEP was conceived; the Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment, which led to the creation of UNEP in 1972, owed much to the enthusiasm, dedication and commitment of non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Since then, this mutually beneficial partnership has borne many fruits. Most of the MEAs (Basel Convention, Montreal Protocol, Convention on Biological

“Reversing global environmental decline demands the full and effective participation of all sectors of society.”

*Klaus Töpfer, UNEP
Executive Director,
1998–2006*

“Business, labor and civil society organizations have skills and resources that are vital in helping to build a more robust global community.”

Kofi Annan, United Nations Secretary-General

Diversity, Framework Convention on Climate Change, etc.) were developed thanks to the lobbying efforts of NGOs.

It is crucial that civil society take an effective role within the various programmes and in governance if the environmental pillar of sustainable development is to be strengthened and Agenda 21 firmly implemented. Agenda 21 makes it mandatory to integrate all civil society stakeholders in sustainable development processes. These different major groups bring on board many valuable experiences and ideas that need to be taken into account in order to foster long-term, broad-based support for the work of UNEP. Even more important, such partnerships provide opportunities for multi-stakeholder participation in the design, implementation and monitoring of activities, and dissemination of vital environmental projects.



The current UNEP pattern for stakeholder involvement at the policy level is based on accreditation, as per rule 69 of the rules of procedure of the Governing Council. As of 1 July 2006, 173 organizations are accredited to the UNEP Governing Council.

UNEP recognizes the importance of civil society in environmental sustainability and is actively working to ensure that civil society organizations are able to play a constructive role in the formulation and implementation of policy and programmes for sustainable development. The involvement of UNEP with civil society aims to establish and strengthen partnerships with prominent civil society groups, with a view to enhancing the effectiveness of the development and delivery of its programme of work in Africa; to develop and promote understanding of the major environmental challenges in the region, as a means of making people's livelihoods more productive and environmentally sustainable; to promote and support the work, activities and initiatives of regional and subregional environmental forums, with the aim of maximizing their involvement in the preparation and implementation of the decisions of the Governing Council/Global Ministerial Environment Forum.

The Malmö Ministerial Declaration clearly acknowledged the role of civil society when it noted that "Civil society plays a critically important role in addressing environmental issues" (2000 Malmö Declaration 2000 and Governing Council decision SSVII.5 adopted in 2002). Since 2000, UNEP has been organizing a yearly Global Civil Society Forum, in conjunction with the UNEP Governing Council/Global Ministerial Environment Forum. This forum is the main entry point for civil society participation at governance level. The Forum not only provides a platform to enable civil society organizations to engage with UNEP but also contributes to building the capacities of civil society organizations in international environmental negotiations and processes.

References

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Rule 69 of the rules of procedure of the UNEP Governing Council, "Observers of international non-governmental organizations", stipulates in its paragraph 2, with regard to civil society organizations:

- "International non-governmental organizations having an interest in the field of the environment, referred to in section IV, paragraph 5, of General Assembly resolution 2997 (XXVII), may designate representatives to sit as observers at public meetings of the Governing Council and its subsidiary organs, if any. The Governing Council shall from time to time adopt and revise when necessary a list of such organizations.

Upon the invitation of the President or chairman, as the case may be, and subject to the approval of the Governing Council or the subsidiary organ concerned, international non-governmental organizations may take oral statements on matters within the scope of their activities."

With regard to "having an interest in the field of environment", the rules provide as follows:

- "Written statements provided by international non-governmental organizations referred to in paragraph 1 above, related to items on the agenda of the Governing Council or of its subsidiary organs, shall be circulated by the secretariat to members of the Governing Council

D. Health and the environment

Human health and environmental health are inextricably linked together. An erosion of environmental health often leads to an erosion of human health. Poor environmental management exacerbates the incidence and negative health impacts of many natural occurrences such as floods, droughts and cyclones. Degraded environments also place a strain on the ability to meet needs for medicines, food and energy – all central to health.

Environmental hazards account for a significant portion of the health risks facing the poor, and children bear the brunt of this. Although children constitute only 10 per cent of the world's population, they suffer 40 per cent of the environment-related burden of disease (WRI and others 2005). This burden of disease is closely linked to inadequate environmental management practices and the lack of opportunities available to poor people.

As a statement of their full acknowledgement of the links between health and the environment, Canada, the United States of America, UNEP and WHO launched the Health and Environment Initiative (HELI) at the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, South Africa.

HELI encourages countries to see health and environment links as integral to economic development. Understanding the links between environmental hazards and health is fundamental to the development of a good public health, environment and economic policy. A wide range of scientific knowledge exists on the links between environmental threats and human health.

That knowledge base also provides us with methods for evaluating and assessing the health impacts of hazards, from water contamination, pesticide misuse and improper waste disposal, to air pollution emitted by cooking fires, industry, and vehicles. That knowledge, unfortunately, does not have a direct bearing on decision-making. Consequently, the social, economic and environmental costs are enormous in terms of death, illness and disability; loss of income and productivity; health care expenditures; the quality of our ecosystems and their impact on human well-being.

The objectives of HELI are as follows:

- To identify key policy decisions affecting the environment and health
- To disseminate scientific knowledge on the links between the environment and health
- To promote the use of decision-support methodologies
- To share experience on policy interventions
- To strengthen the capacity of Governments and the importance of health in decision-making.

References

AMCEN/UNEP (2006). Africa Environment Outlook: Our Environment, Our Wealth
Earthprint Limited, London.

http://www.unep.org/delc/Themes/health_environment.asp

E. Gender and the environment

In Africa, women interact with the environment every day as they carry clean water, fetch firewood, and grow food. Such close proximity with nature leaves them with a wealth of indigenous knowledge that has endured for generations. It is no wonder that Kofi Annan, Secretary-General of the United Nations, has said “Investing in women is the best strategy for sustainable development.” The role of women in the management and use of natural resources cannot be overvalued.

Gender differences and inequalities influence the extent and nature of almost every form of environmental encounter in use and impact. Accordingly, there is a need for broad-based, sustainable development initiatives that will give men and women the opportunity to build their capacity, lessen their vulnerability and diversify their income sources.

Among the environmental problems affecting women are deforestation, water pollution and air pollution. Women are often exposed to these environmental hazards during their labour-intensive interactions with the environment. It is very important for society to recognize

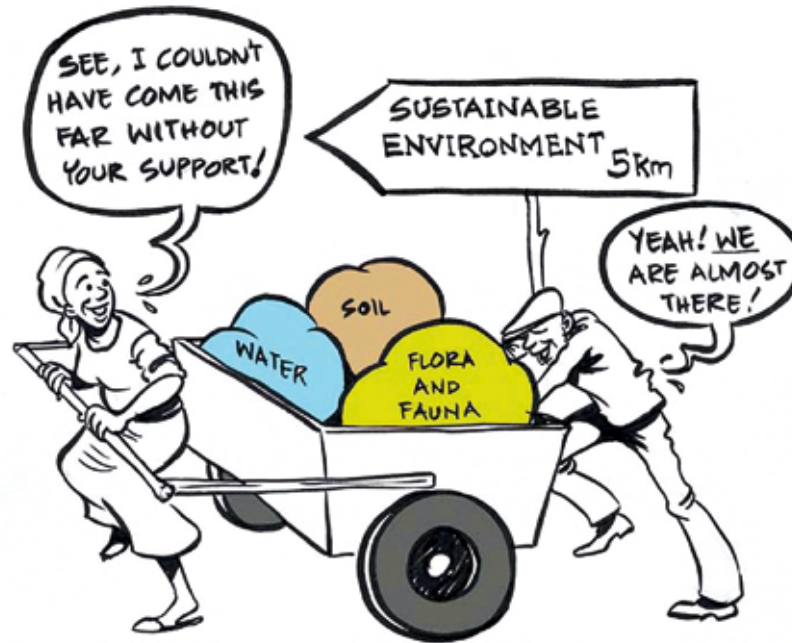
or of the subsidiary organ concerned in the quantities and in the languages in which the statements were made available to the secretariat for distribution.”

The first Global Women’s Assembly on Environment: Women as the Voice for the Environment (WAVE) was held at the headquarters of UNEP in Nairobi, Kenya, from 11 to 13 October 2004. The meeting was attended by some 150 participants from 65 countries.

“Gender equality is more than a goal in itself. It is a precondition for meeting the challenge of reducing poverty, promoting sustainable development and building good governance.”

Kofi Annan, United Nations Secretary-General

the full impact of environmental degradation on women. This understanding will help to prevent impoverishment, lighten the burden on women and improve their health status.



It is of crucial importance that women be able to participate fully in environmental management. This participation should include the involvement of local women as resource persons and experts on the relevant environmental panels and other forums dealing with the environment in particular and sustainable development in general.

References

UNEP Global Women's Assembly on Environment: Women as the voice for the environment (WAVE). Action plan recommendations and project ideas. Available on: <http://www.unep.org/delc/Civil%5FSociety/WAVE/>

F. Youth and the environment

Today's global youth population, ranging in age from 15 to 24 years, is an estimated 1.03 billion, or 18 per cent of the people inhabiting the Earth. The majority of these young men and women live in developing countries, and their numbers are expected to increase well into the twenty-first century. The median age of Africa is 18, making Africa the most youthful continent in the world. Africa's young people therefore have a critical role to play in environmental affairs. Their imagination, ideals and energies are vital for sustainable development on the continent.



The problems of young men and women, as well as their vision and aspirations, are an essential element of the challenges facing today's societies and future generations. The

"No one is born a good citizen; no nation is born a democracy. Rather, both are processes that continue to evolve over a lifetime. Young people must be included from birth. A society that cuts off from its youth severs its lifeline."

Kofi Annan, United Nations Secretary-General

"The one common undertaking and universal instrument of the great majority of the human race is the United Nations. A patient, constructive long-term use of its potentialities can bring a real and secure peace to the world."

Trygve Lie, first United Nations Secretary-General, 1946-1952

General Assembly:

The United Nations General Assembly is one of the six principal organs of the United Nations. It is made up of all United Nations Member States and meets in regular yearly sessions under a president elected from among the representatives.

“We have too much in common, too great a sharing of interests and too much that we might lose together, for ourselves and succeeding generations, never to weaken in our efforts to turn simple human values into the firm foundation on which we may live together in peace”

*Dag Hammarskjöld,
second United Nations
Secretary-General
(1953–1961)*

deterioration of the natural environment is one of the principal concerns of young people worldwide as it has direct implications for their well-being now and in the future. While every segment of society is responsible for maintaining the environmental integrity of the community, youth have a special interest in a healthy environment because they will be the ones to inherit it. The involvement of youth in environment and development decision-making is critical to the implementation of policies of sustainable development.

It is the vision of UNEP to “foster a generation of environmentally conscious citizens who will better influence decision-making processes and act responsibly to create a sustainable world.” To this end it has established Tunza, a long-term strategy for youth, named from the Swahili word for “care”. The implementation of the Tunza strategy in the region aims at including all schools, children and youth-related organizations working with UNEP in a revamped umbrella network for young people and the environment.

In May 2006, UNEP organized a youth conference for Africa in Brazzaville, Congo, as a parallel event during the eleventh session of AMCEN. The conference gave birth to the Africa Youth Environment Network and also witnessed the launch of Africa Environment Outlook for Youth, published by UNEP. This book was exclusively written by young people from 41 African countries.

The AEO-for-Youth publication combined the scientific information in AEO with illustrations, brief case studies, poems, photos, quotations and opinions on environmental issues submitted by African youngsters in a youth-friendly format. The AEO-for-Youth network is now an integral part of the broader youth environment network.

Sustained and informed youth participation in environmental matters can be achieved through a concerted strategic effort. As African youth struggle for a better tomorrow, their efforts are often hampered by a series of challenges such as conflict, famine, acute unemployment and AIDS. Faced with such challenges, young people find it difficult to slot the environment into their list of priorities. This trend, however, is changing as young people in Africa reach out to one another and to UNEP, and other organizations.

As part of this strategy, UNEP organizes bi-annual Tunza global youth conferences that bring together youth from all over the world to deliberate together on environmental issues. During these conferences, Tunza youth advisors are elected whose main role is to advise UNEP on youth issues.

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<http://www.un.org/events/youth98/backinfo/ywpa2000.htm>

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G. Environmental education and training

The role of education goes beyond *informing*, to *prompting* behavioural change. Education is not just a transfer of information, but also a transfer of values. This proactive role of education places it at the heart of the UNEP mandate of *inspiring, informing and enabling* nations and peoples to improve their quality of life without compromising that of future generations.

In December 2002, resolution 57/254 on the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005–2014) was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly. The overall goal of the Decade is to integrate the values inherent in sustainable development into all aspects of learning to encourage changes in behaviour that allow for a more sustainable and just society for all. The Decade affirms the pivotal role of education in sustainable development.

“Education is the most powerful weapon, which you can use to change the world.”

Nelson Mandela African Statesman and South Africa’s President 1994 - 1999

“The sanctity of all life on earth should find expression in all our actions: In understanding that human wealth and economic development ultimately derive from and depend upon the resources of the Earth; in seeing economic development and care for the environment as compatible, interdependent and necessary; in knowing that economic development can help solve environmental problems only if it is accompanied by an attitude of responsibility

and stewardship for the Earth; and in knowing that the key to socially sustainable development is the participation, organization, education and empowerment of people."

*Elizabeth Dowdeswell,
UNEP Executive Director,
1993–1998*

"I dream of the realization of the unity of Africa, whereby its leaders combine in their efforts to solve the problems of this continent. I dream of our vast deserts, of our forests, of all our great wildernesses."

*Nelson Mandela,
African statesman and
South Africa's President
1994–1999*



The Education and Training Unit of UNEP promotes attitudes and value systems that influence environmentally ethical behaviour. Environmental education seeks to develop understanding and skills that enable people to participate as active and informed citizens in the development of an ecologically sustainable and socially just society.

UNEP environmental education and training activities seek to promote innovative, action-oriented, and value-based education for sustainable development by ensuring that environmental considerations are taken into account. These activities are geared towards developing and strengthening environmental education and training initiatives to address all institutions, Governments, segments, and ages in society. In addition to producing a number of publications and products related to environmental education, the Environmental

Education and Training Unit has conducted training for 45 African journalists on the Millennium Development Goals and environmental reporting. It has also formulated and implemented a programme for educators and students and other key stakeholders, known as Mainstreaming Environment and Sustainability in Africa (MESA).

References

<http://www.unep.org/training>





III. United Nations and the environment

When?

The United Nations came into being in October 1945 with 51 States signing the United Nations Charter.

What?

Currently the United Nations consists of 192 Member States, which have committed themselves to preserving peace through international cooperation and collective security. Member States accept obligations under the United Nations Charter, an international treaty that sets out basic principles of international relations. Chapter I of the United Nations Charter sets forth the purposes of the United Nations, including the important provisions of the maintenance of international peace and security.

The purposes of the United Nations are:

1. To maintain international peace and security and, to that end: to take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to the peace, and for the suppression of acts of aggression or other breaches of the peace, and to bring about by peaceful means, and in conformity with the principles of justice and international law, adjustment or settlement of international disputes or situations which might lead to a breach of the peace;
2. To develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strengthen universal peace;
3. To achieve international cooperation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character, and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion; and
4. To be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends.

"If policies remain unchanged, political will found wanting and sufficient funding proves to be elusive, then Africa may take a far more unsustainable track that will see an erosion of its nature-based wealth and a slide into ever deeper poverty."

*Achim Steiner, UNEP
Executive Director*

"Industry and global institutions must appreciate that ensuring economic justice, equity and ecological integrity are of greater value than profits at any cost."

*Wangari Maathai, Nobel
Peace Laureate 2004*

“All our efforts to defeat poverty and pursue sustainable development will be in vain if environmental degradation and natural resource depletion continue unabated”

Kofi Annan, United Nations Secretary-General

“The world’s poorest people are the most dependent on fertile soil, clean water and healthy ecosystems for their livelihoods. Investing in sound environmental management to improve these resources provides direct economic benefits for the poor along with the tools they need to lift themselves out of poverty.”

Klaus Töpfer, UNEP Executive Director, 1998–2006

<http://www.un.org/aboutun/charter/chapter1.htm>

The United Nations has six main organs. Five of them are based at United Nations headquarters in New York. They are: the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council and the Secretariat. The sixth organ – the International Court of Justice – is based in the Hague in the Netherlands.

The United Nations facilitates awareness-raising about the environment and the development and implementation of MEAs.

www.un.org

A. Environment Management Group (EMG)

The environment is a crosscutting issue that is of direct concern to all United Nations organizations, programmes and projects. EMG aims to identify and tackle, through collective action, specific problems and issues on the international environment and human settlements agenda that require enhanced inter-agency cooperation within a given time-frame. To this end, the Group endeavours to secure the effective and collaborative involvement of the relevant United Nations system agencies, programmes and organs, and other potential partners. It also seeks to provide a forum for an early discussion and sharing of information on emerging problems and issues in the field of environment and human settlements, geared at finding, through dialogue and collective efforts, an effective and coordinated approach to their resolution.

http://www.unemg.org

B. United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)

When?

The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) was established by the United Nations General Assembly in 1972 following the first United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm in June 1972.

Why?

The mission of UNEP is to “provide leadership and encourage partnerships in caring for the environment by inspiring, informing and enabling nations to improve their quality of life without compromising that of the future generations.”

The mandate of UNEP was reinforced further by the 2005 United Nations World Summit which, amongst other things, recognized the need for more efficient environmental activities in the United Nations system, including enhanced coordination, better policy advice and guidance, improved scientific knowledge, assessment and cooperation and more compliance with treaties.

What does UNEP do?

- Assessing global, regional and national environmental conditions and trends
- Developing international agreements and national environmental instruments
- Supporting implementation of those agreements and instruments
- Strengthening institutions for sound management of the environment
- Integrating economic development and environmental protection
- Facilitating the transfer of knowledge and technology for sustainable development
- Encouraging new partnerships and mind-sets within civil society and the private sector

www.unep.org

UNEP has five priority areas:

1. Environmental assessment and early warning
2. Development of policy instruments
3. Enhanced coordination with environmental conventions
4. Technology transfer
5. Support to Africa

“To be effective, investments must be implemented and driven at the grassroots level by communities, local governments and the private sector. The poor must have secure rights and access to natural resources and a greater voice in decisions over the management of the land, water and biological resources that support their livelihoods’

*Kemal Dervis,
Administrator of UNDP*



How does UNEP work?

UNEP has eight divisions to promote and facilitate sound environmental management for sustainable development:

Division of Early Warning and Assessment

The international community needs to be able to evaluate, predict and respond to existing and emerging needs if it is to be able effectively to tackle the environmental issues of the twenty-first century. UNEP provides access to environmental data and information and helps Governments to use environmental information for planning for sustainable development.

The flagship assessment process within UNEP is the Global Environment Outlook (GEO), produced in cooperation with a network of national, subregional, regional and global partners. These partners feed into the GEO process and into other assessments including the Global International Waters Assessment and the Millennium Ecosystems Assessment.

UNEP helps Governments to anticipate, respond to and manage disasters which have been caused by environmental factors, or which have profound effects on the environment. UNEP also assesses the environmental consequences of armed conflict, and provides post-conflict clean-up and guidance on damage limitation.

www.unep.org/dewa/index.asp

Division of Environmental Policy Implementation

UNEP works to develop policy guidelines on major environmental issues such as the increasing scarcity of fresh water, the degradation of the marine environment and the pollution of the atmosphere. UNEP has also initiated a ministerial-level intergovernmental process to strengthen environmental governance and reinvigorate global commitment to sustainable development.

“For too long economics and environment have seemed like players on rival teams. There have been a lot of nasty challenges and far too many own goals. We need to make these two sides of the development coin team players, players on the same side.”

Achim Steiner, UNEP Executive Director.

UNEP works with Governments, the private sector and civil society to protect natural resources worldwide. As well as supporting assessments and developing institutional and legal capacity, UNEP promotes dialogue and cooperation among stakeholders, the exchange of best practices and success stories, the transfer of knowledge and technology, and the establishment of demonstration projects.

www.unep.org/depi

Division of Technology, Industry and Economics

UNEP encourages decision-makers in Governments, local authorities and industry to develop and implement policies, strategies and practices that are cleaner and safer; make efficient use of natural resources; ensure environmentally sound management of chemicals; reduce pollution and risks to humans and the environment; enable the implementation of conventions and international agreements, and take account of environmental costs.

The strategy employed by UNEP is to influence informed decision-making through partnerships with other international organizations, governmental authorities, business and industry bodies and non-governmental organizations. This strategy also involves offering support for the implementation of conventions and building capacity in developing countries.

www.unep.fr

Division of Regional Cooperation

UNEP is represented across the globe by six regional offices:

- Africa: Nairobi, Kenya (www.unep.org/roa)
- Asia and the Pacific: Bangkok, Thailand (www.roap.unep.org)
- Europe: Geneva, Switzerland (www.unep.ch/roe)
- Latin America and the Caribbean: Mexico City, Mexico (www.pnuma.org)
- North America: Washington DC, United States of America (www.rona.unep.org)
- West Asia: Manama, Bahrain (www.unep.org/bh).

"A renaissance in environmental policy does not come in a vacuum. It emerges as a result of collective efforts of Governments, civil society organizations and private business. It needs the long-term commitment and vision of men and women. It needs people who are and continue to be Champions of the Earth."

Klaus Töpfer, Executive Director UNEP, 1998–2006

“When spider webs unite,
they can tie up a lion.”

Ethiopian proverb

“Attaining the Millennium
Development Goals will
depend increasingly on
the ability of Governments
and their local authorities
and civil society partners
to come up with concrete
solutions to make our cities
and towns more equitable
and inclusive.”

*Mrs Anna Tibaijuka,
Executive Director,
UN-Habitat*

“Peace we want because
there is another war to
fight against poverty,
disease and ignorance.”

*Indira Gandhi,
India’s Prime Minister
1966 – 1977,
1980 - 1984*

Through the regional offices, UNEP seeks:

- To gather information and data that will bring regional perspectives to the development of UNEP policies and programmes;
- To present UNEP global policies to the regions and enlist support for those policies at all levels;
- To implement and further develop the relevant parts of its global programmes through initiating, coordinating, and catalysing regional and subregional cooperation and action in response to environmental problems and emergencies;
- To assist in the development of policies and programmes on global and regional environmental issues between and within Governments in the regions;
- To provide advisory services to help Governments translate global commitments into national action for the protection and enhancement of the environment;
- To raise public awareness of environmental problems and bring consistency to environmental action;
- To promote cooperation between UNEP, non-governmental organizations and the private sector; and
- To broaden the UNEP constituency.

www.unep.org/drc

Division of Environmental Law and Conventions

One of the most significant achievements of UNEP has been its role in facilitating the work of the multilateral environment agreements (MEAs). UNEP hosts several environmental convention secretariats including:

- Ozone Secretariat
- Multilateral Fund of the Montreal Protocol
- Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES)
- Convention on Biological Diversity
- Convention on Migratory Species

- Basel Convention on the Transboundary Movement of Hazardous and Other Wastes
- Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants
- Rotterdam Convention on Prior Informed Consent.*

* Co-hosted with the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)

MEAs are of enormous importance on the global environmental scene. As a key player on this scene, UNEP seeks:

- To identify and encourage important links between MEAs and develop joint activities between them;
- To increase collaboration between the various UNEP divisions and MEAs;
- To encourage the harmonization of information systems, information exchanges and access to information between MEAs;
- To encourage a coordinated approach to capacity-building among MEAs;
- To support the implementation and enforcement of the MEAs by their parties.

www.unep.org/dec

Division of Communications and Public Information

UNEP has a wide-ranging programme directed at children, youth, sport and the environment. Conferences, campaigns, painting competitions and other events, together with environmental literature and a website, are used to educate children and young adults about sustainable living. UNEP also operates environmental education and training programmes for all sections of society.

UNEP publications, communication with the media, special events such as World Environment Day and Clean Up the World, and environmental awards such as Champions of the Earth, the UNEP Sasakawa Prize and the photographic competition Focus on Your World, all help to keep the environment in the forefront of the news.

“Clean up the World mobilizes people around a powerful idea – taking the challenge of environment and sustainable development to our front doors, our backyards, and everywhere else around the globe. It comes with another idea that UNEP strongly believes in: that what we consider waste and rubbish today could become a resource for tomorrow”
Achim Steiner, Executive Director, UNEP.

United Nations Millennium

Development Goals:

A set of eight international development goals for 2015, adopted by the international community in the United Nations Millennium Declaration in September 2000, and endorsed by IMF, World Bank and OECD. They are: eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; promote gender equality and empower women; reduce child mortality improve maternal health; combat HIV and AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability; develop a global partnership for development.

World Environment Day was established by the United Nations General Assembly in 1972, to mark the opening of the Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment. World Environment Day, which is celebrated each year on 5 June, is one of the principal channels through which the United Nations encourages political attention and action and stimulates worldwide awareness of the environmental challenges facing us. The many and varied activities include street rallies, parades, concerts, essay and poster competitions in schools, tree-planting, campaigns to promote recycling and clean-up efforts, seminars, round-tables and meetings. World Environment Day is also a multi-media event that inspires thousands of journalists to write and report on the environment through television documentaries, photo exhibitions and websites.

The UNEP Regional Office for Africa organizes art, essay and photo competitions involving school children throughout Kenya, in collaboration with the Kenya organization for Environmental Education. The objective of this competition is to offer a platform for school children to communicate their feelings about the impacts of human activities on their environment. The competition builds on partnerships with schools and community organizations to spread environmental awareness and good practices in caring for our planet.

Another major event is the tree-planting exercise at the Aberdares range in Kenya. For the last five years, UNEP has contributed to the rehabilitation of Kenya's degraded catchment areas in the Aberdare range forest. This is part of the responsible consumer initiative, through which UNEP plants a quantity of indigenous trees that matches the number of reams of paper that are used at its headquarters in Nairobi.

Clean Up the World is a community-based environmental programme that inspires and empowers individuals and communities from every corner of the globe to clean up, repair and conserve their environment. Clean up the World has demonstrated that people across the planet are willing to act to help protect and care for their environment. The campaign has touched a nerve in people from every walk of life, every social and economic group, every age group and culture.



Every year since 1993, the Clean up the World campaign, held in conjunction with UNEP, mobilizes millions of volunteers in more than 120 countries around the globe, making it one of the largest community-based environment projects in the world. Through encouraging people to adopt a direct approach to environmental management by taking responsibility for their own environment and raising awareness about the crippling impact of waste on our lives, our health and our future, Clean up the World allows communities to develop a sense of ownership of their environment. Clean Up the World also acts as the vehicle for a broad range of environmental activities including reforestation projects, environmental education, erosion control, tree-planting, concerts for the environment, and the establishment of compost and recycling centres.

<http://www.cleantuptheworld.org/en>

Champions of the Earth

Champions of the Earth is an international environment award established in 2004. It is presented each year by UNEP to seven outstanding environmental leaders, or groups, who have made a significant and recognized contribution globally or regionally to the protection and sustainable management of the earth's environment. The Champions of the Earth should be instrumental in bringing environmental issues to the forefront of political action

UNEP Sasakawa Prize

The UNEP Sasakawa Prize is awarded every year to individuals who have an established track record of environmental achievement and the potential to make outstanding contributions to the protection and management of the environment consistent with the policies and objectives of UNEP. For more than 20 years, the UNEP Sasakawa Prize has been a mark of excellence in the environmental field. Between 1984 and 1993 the UNEP Sasakawa Prize was awarded to 30 individuals. This prize, worth \$200,000, encourages environmental efforts that are sustainable and capable of being duplicated in the long term. It rewards innovation, groundbreaking research and ideas, and extraordinary grassroots initiatives from around the world.

www.unep.org/dcpi





Division of Global Environment Facility Coordination

The Global Environment Facility (GEF) was established as a joint international effort to help solve global environmental problems. The GEF trust fund was established by a World Bank resolution on 14 March 1991, while the facility was formally established in October 1991. UNDP, UNEP and the World Bank are the implementing agencies.

GEF provides new and additional grants and concessional funding to meet the incremental costs of measures to achieve global environmental benefits in six focal areas, namely:

- Protection of biological diversity
- Reduction of greenhouse gases
- Protection of international waters
- Prevention and reduction of releases of persistent organic pollutants (POPs)
- Reduction of land degradation, primarily desertification and deforestation
- Protection of the ozone layer.

There are currently 176 States involved in the Facility.

<http://gefweb.org>

<http://dgef.unep.org>

UNEP milestones

- 1972: the establishment of UNEP following the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment
- 1973: Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES)
- 1975: Mediterranean Action Plan: the first of 13 regional action plans under the UNEP Regional Seas Programme
- 1979: Convention on Migratory Species
- 1985: Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer
- 1987: Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer

“Happiness is not in the mere possession of money; it lies in the joy of achievement, in the thrill of creative effort.”

*Franklin D Roosevelt,
US President 1933 - 1945*

- 1988: Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) established to assess information related to human-induced climate change
- 1989: Basel Convention on the Transboundary Movement of Hazardous Wastes
- 1991: Establishment of the Global Environment Facility
- 1992: Rio Declaration and Agenda 21 issued by the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Earth Summit)
- 1992: Framework Convention on Climate Change
- 1992: Convention on Biological Diversity
- 1994: Convention to Combat Desertification
- 1995: Global Programme of Action (GPA) launched to protect the marine environment from land-based sources of pollution
- 1998: Rotterdam Convention on Prior Informed Consent (PIC)
- 1999: Launch of the United Nations Global Compact
- 2000: Adoption of the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety on the issue of genetically modified organisms
- 2000: Malmö Declaration: a call to action by the first Global Ministerial Environment Forum
- 2001: Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs)
- 2001: Third IPCC assessment report detailing the extent of human-induced global warming.
- 2002: World Summit on Sustainable Development reaffirming the central role taken by UNEP in international efforts to achieve sustainable development
- 2005: Adoption of the Bali Strategic Plan for Technology Support and Capacity-building by the UNEP Governing Council mandating national level support to developing countries
- 2005: Implementation of the Kyoto Protocol on climate change
- Millennium Ecosystem Assessment highlighting the importance of ecosystems to human well-being, and the extent of ecosystem decline.
- Agreement of the 2005 World Summit to explore a more coherent institutional framework system for international environmental governance

UNEP-INFOTERRA

INFOTERRA is the global environmental information exchange network of the United Nations Environment Programme. The network operates through a system of government-designated national focal points, which at present number 177. An INFOTERRA national focal point is essentially a national environmental information centre, usually located in the ministry or agency responsible for environmental protection. The primary function of each centre is to provide a national environmental information service.

INFOTERRA was given its mandate at the 1972 Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment which recommended the establishment of a mechanism for the exchange of environmental information and experiences between countries. In response to this recommendation, UNEP established the INFOTERRA network (initially known as IRS – the International Referral System) and Governments were requested to designate a national focal point to coordinate INFOTERRA activities at country level. The 1992 Rio Conference on Environment and Development (Earth Summit) reiterated the importance of information for decision-making and asked for the INFOTERRA network to be strengthened with a view to improving information availability (Agenda 21, chapter 40).

At national level, INFOTERRA focal points provide a wide range of environmental information products and services, including environmental bibliographies; directories of sources of information; question and answer services; environmental awareness leaflets and access to internet services.

The INFOTERRA secretariat at UNEP headquarters, Nairobi, supports the national focal points by providing technical services and publishing reference tools such as the EnVoc multilingual thesaurus of environmental terms; the International Directory of Sources; training manuals; sourcebooks and promotional materials. A capacity-building programme provides assistance to focal points in developing countries.

www.unep.org/infoterra

C. Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (FAO)

FAO was founded in 1943 by 44 Governments. It leads international efforts to defeat hunger while focusing on the environment. FAO acts as a neutral forum where all States meet as equals to negotiate agreements and debate policy. FAO is also a source of knowledge and information. It helps developing countries and countries with economies in transition to modernize and improve agriculture, forestry and fisheries and it covers a wide range of environmental activities such as environmental assessment, environmental information technology and environmental monitoring.

Plant genetic resources for food and agriculture are crucial in feeding the world's population. They are the raw material that farmers and plant breeders use to improve the quality and productivity of our crops. The future of agriculture depends on international cooperation and on the open exchange of the crops and their genes that farmers all over the world have developed and exchanged over 10,000 years. No country is sufficient unto itself; all depend on crops and the genetic diversity within these crops from other countries and regions.

In November 2001 FAO spearheaded the adoption of the International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture. This legally binding treaty, which is in harmony with the Convention on Biological Diversity, covers all plant genetic resources relevant to food and agriculture. The treaty is vital in ensuring the continued availability of the plant genetic resources that countries will need to feed their people.

The FAO International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture provides an agreed international framework for the conservation and sustainable use of plant genetic resources for food and agriculture, in harmony with the Convention on Biological Diversity. FAO is also part of the United Nations Forum on Forests (UNFF), a forum that seeks to facilitate the implementation of the Intergovernmental Panel on Forests (IPF) and the Intergovernmental Forum on Forests (IFF).

Collaborative Partnership on Forests

FAO provides secretariat services for the Collaborative Partnership on Forests, an innovative partnership of 14 major forest-related international organizations, institutions and convention secretariats. It was established in April 2001, following the recommendation of the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations (ECOSOC). The other 13 members are the following:

- Centre for International Forestry Research (CIFOR)
- FAO
- International Tropical Timber Organization (ITTO)
- International Union of Forest Research Organizations (IUFRO)
- Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)
- Secretariat of the Global Environmental Facility (GEF)
- Secretariat of the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD)
- Secretariat of the United Nations Forum on Forests (UNFF)
- Secretariat of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
- United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)
- World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF)
- World Bank
- World Conservation Union (IUCN).

The objectives of the Collaborative Partnership on Forests are to support the work of the United Nations Forum on Forests (UNFF) and its member countries and to enhance cooperation and coordination on forest issues.

An important aspect of environmental and natural resources management is the availability of genuine (static or dynamic) geo-referenced data and information on these resources. Remote sensing, geographic information systems (GIS), agro- meteorological and other environmental observations can assist in acquiring and processing such data, which can

then be used to deal with a variety of key issues related to environmental and natural resources management, such as food production and food security, coastal zone monitoring, desertification, biological diversity and energy and climate change impact. Geo-referenced data from other sources, for example, social and economic data, can also be combined with such environmental data to provide more extensive analyses.

FAO geo-information, monitoring and assessment activities include all aspects of geo-information data acquisition, analysis and dissemination, including the activities themselves and the tools and techniques used in those activities. Two examples of these activities are the so-called “Africover project” and the ARTEMIS environmental monitoring information system. There are also others such as the standardization of geographical data, the use of various software tools such as WinDisp, and the website METART, where data from the ARTEMIS system can be viewed and analysed in what is virtually real time. Specific data sets, such as global climatic maps and other agro-meteorological and GIS databases, are also available.

www.fao.org

www.fao.org/forestry/site/2082/en

D. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

UNDP was founded in 1965 and is the United Nations global development implementation agency. It works in partnerships with Governments and people. There are UNDP offices in 166 countries, working with these countries to help them find their own solutions to global and national development challenges.

The UNDP global knowledge network provides capacity development and policy support throughout every country in Africa, in areas ranging from democratic governance and peace-building to private sector development and integration into world trade. The programmes reflect the African countries’ own priorities and are carried out through a wide range of partnerships with government leaders, civil society and the private sector.

Through its interaction with Governments, civil society organizations and development partners, UNDP plays a major role in the formulation of poverty reduction strategy papers

“Natural hazards are a part of life. But hazards only become disasters when people’s lives and livelihoods are swept away.... let us remind ourselves that we can and must reduce the impact of disasters by building sustainable communities that have long-term capacity to live with risk.”

*Kofi Annan
Secretary-General of the
United Nations*

“In order to be prepared and to take action to meet the risk posed by disasters, it is imperative to be informed of the risks involved, and of possible options to mitigate the risk.”

Michel Jarraud
Secretary-General of
WMO

(PRSPs), and in monitoring of implementation of these papers, as well as monitoring progress towards the achievement of the MDGs. UNDP supports the efforts of African countries to eradicate poverty by building coalitions with the poor themselves, and also with African Governments, think-tanks, those involved in African development, and African integration institutions.

Environment protection and regeneration are a strategic component of the UNDP commitment to poverty reduction in Africa. One of the aims of UNDP is to build capacity to deal with environmental issues in the context of development. The issues of energy, the environment, climate change, loss of biodiversity and ozone layer depletion cannot be tackled unilaterally. The focus must be on promoting sustainable environment management and energy development through capacity-building in the formulation of national policy and regulatory frameworks and in management and policy implementation.

www.undp.org

E. United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat)

UN-Habitat, the United Nations agency for human settlements, was founded in 1978 after the Habitat I meeting in Vancouver, Canada. It is mandated by the United Nations General Assembly to promote socially and environmentally sustainable towns and cities with the goal of providing adequate shelter for all. UN-Habitat runs two major worldwide campaigns – the Global Campaign on Urban Governance, and the Global Campaign for Secure Tenure. Through these campaigns and in other ways as well, the agency focuses on a range of issues and special projects which it helps implement.

The Shelter and Sustainable Human Settlements Development Division of UN-Habitat coordinates the agency’s global advocacy functions. The departments within it that focus on urban environmental issues include the Urban Development Branch, which runs the UN-Habitat Global Campaign on Urban Governance, the Safer Cities programme, the Sustainable Cities programme and a programme called Localizing Agenda 21, which seeks to ensure that crucial environmental issues are brought into urban development planning.

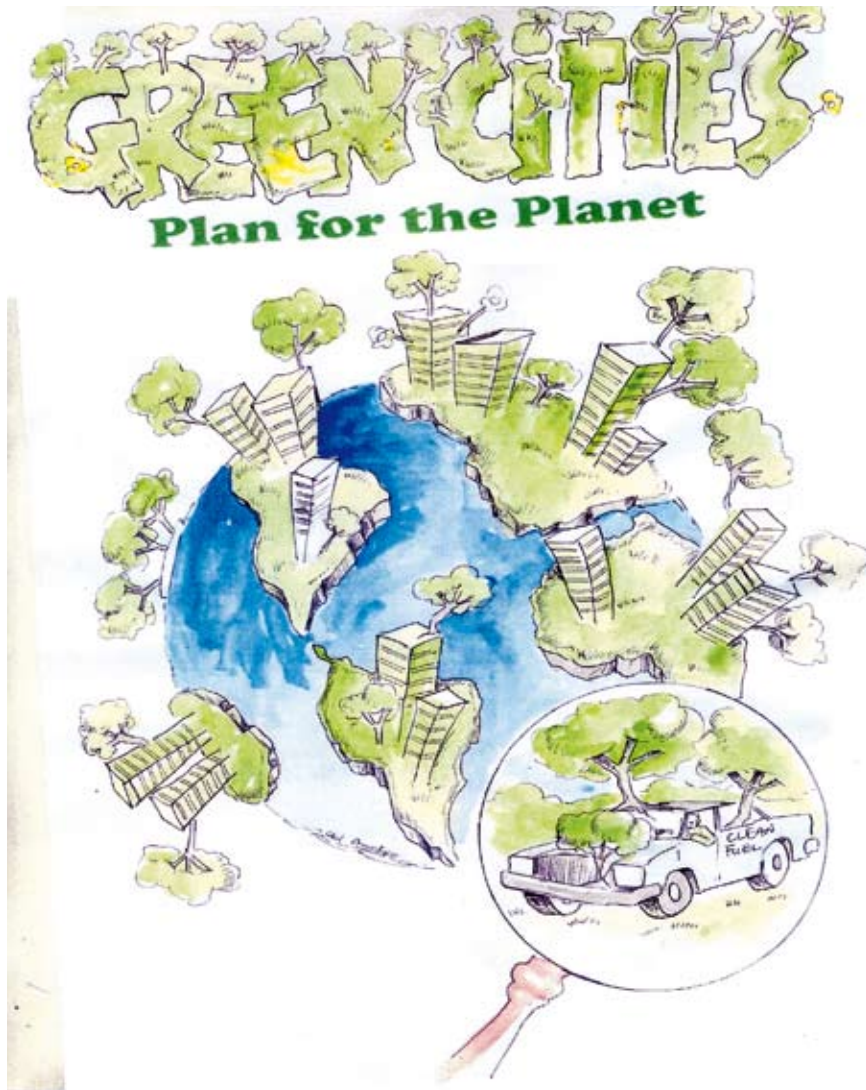
The Sustainable Cities Programme (SCP) and Localizing Agenda 21 help cities perform their vital role in social and economic development by promoting better environmental policies and programmes aimed at reducing pollution and improving urban environmental management.

SCP is a joint UN-Habitat-UNEP facility established in the early 1990s to build capacities in urban environmental planning and management. The programme is directed at urban local authorities and their partners. It encourages participation from a wide range of stakeholders. SCP and its sister programme, Localizing Agenda 21, are now operating in over 30 countries worldwide. SCP was founded in the early 1990s to support the missions of UN-Habitat and UNEP. Its first phase concluded in 2001, and the second phase covers the period 2002–2007. It aims to provide municipalities and local partners with a facility to package urban environmental planning and management approaches, technologies and expertise in this area.

The environmental planning and management approach taken by SPC promotes a city management process that is based on the belief that sustainable cities are engines of growth and are fundamental to social and economic development. Environmental degradation adversely affects economic efficiency and social equity, and hence obstructs the development potential of cities. Environmental degradation, however, is not inevitable; what is required is a proactive management approach built on an understanding of the complex interactions between development and the environment.

www.unhabitat.org

The United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005-2014) was launched on March 1, 2005 at United Nations Headquarters in New York taking as its main objective the task of encouraging the Governments of member States to include the concept of sustainable development in their education policies and in every aspect of learning in order to foster changes in behaviour that can create more sustainable future in terms of environmental integrity, economic viability, and a just society for present and future generations.



F. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was founded in November 1945. The work of UNESCO is in the fields of education, natural sciences, social and human sciences, culture, communication and information. It has long been involved in activities related to sustainable development, contributing to many of the activities generated by Earth Summit in Rio in 1992. The contribution of UNESCO to the Earth Summit was based on its mandate in the fields of education, science, culture and communication. UNESCO places high priority on reorienting educational systems and curricula towards dealing with issues of sustainable development, central to which are the areas of environmental degradation, acquiring and sharing knowledge, rural development and changes in production and consumption patterns. UNESCO covers such diverse fields as biodiversity and ecology, fresh water, oceans, earth sciences, coastal regions, small islands and natural disaster reduction.

The ecology-related programmes within UNESCO have an interdisciplinary research agenda spanning the ecological, social and economic dimensions of biodiversity loss and reduction. Its geosciences programmes target problems within society that are related to hydro-geology, paleo-ecosystems, and climate change. It also promotes the role of earth sciences and global earth observation technology in sustainable development.

The Man and Biosphere programme (MAB) was launched in 1970 and initiated work in 14 project areas covering different types of ecosystems, ranging from mountains to sea, from rural to urban, as well as dealing with more social aspects such as environmental perception. The work of MAB over the years has concentrated on the development of the World Network of Biosphere Reserves (WNBR). The biosphere reserve concept was developed initially in 1974 and was substantially revised in 1995 when the UNESCO General Conference adopted the Statutory Framework and the Seville Strategy for Biosphere Reserves. Today, with more than 480 sites in over 100 countries, WNBR provides context-specific opportunities to combine scientific knowledge and governance modalities to reduce biodiversity loss, improve livelihoods, enhance social, economic and cultural conditions for environmental sustainability, thus contributing to the pursuit of the Millennium Development Goals, in particular Goal 7 on environmental sustainability.

<http://www.unesco.ru/eng/pages/bythemes/mab.php>

UNESCO also seeks to encourage the identification, protection and preservation of cultural and natural heritage around the world considered to be of outstanding value to humanity. This is embodied in an international treaty called the Convention concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, adopted by UNESCO in 1972.

www.unesco.org

G. United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)

UNIDO was set up in 1966 and became a specialized agency of the United Nations in 1985. As part of the United Nations common system, UNIDO has responsibility for promoting industrialization throughout the developing world. UNIDO helps developing countries and countries with economies in transition in their fight against marginalization in today's globalized world. It mobilizes knowledge, skills, information and technology to promote productive employment, a competitive economy and a sound environment. UNIDO strives to improve living conditions and promote global prosperity through offering tailor-made solutions for the sustainable industrial development of developing countries and countries with economies in transition. It aims to fight poverty and marginalization through sustainable industrial development. UNIDO has a number of successful environmentally focused projects in Africa, including a national programme on cleaner production, a programme on water pollution control and biodiversity protection in the Gulf of Guinea, a project on environmentally sound industrial development in Madagascar and another on cleaner leather production in Africa.

www.unido.org

H. World Meteorological Organization (WMO)

WMO grew out of the International Meteorological Organization (IMO), which was founded in 1873. Established in 1950, WMO became the specialized agency of the United Nations for meteorology (weather and climate), operational hydrology and related geophysical sciences. WMO is the voice of authority within the United Nations system on the state and behaviour of the earth's atmosphere, its interaction with the oceans, the climate it produces and the resulting distribution of water resources.

To this end, the WMO Atmospheric Research and Environment Programme coordinates and stimulates research on the composition of the atmosphere, the physics and chemistry of clouds, weather modification techniques, tropical meteorology processes and weather forecasting, focusing on extreme weather events and their social and economic impacts. In addition it co-ordinates the global monitoring of greenhouse gases, the ozone layer, major atmospheric pollutants, and urban environment and meteorological studies. Natural disaster risk reduction is central to the mission of WMO, and the national meteorological and hydrological services of its 187 members.

WMO, through its scientific and technical programmes, its network of global meteorological centres, regional specialized meteorological centres and national meteorological and hydrological services, provides scientific and technical services for observing, detecting, monitoring, predicting and providing early warnings of a wide range of weather, climate and water related hazards. Through its coordinated approach and working together with its partners, WMO is able to provide effective and timely responses to the information needs and requirements of the disaster risk management community.

Today, about three-quarters of all natural disasters are in some way related to weather, climate, water and their extremes. Research in the meteorological and hydrological sciences, however, shows that the impacts of natural hazards can be reduced through prevention and preparedness.

WMO is an intergovernmental organization with a membership of 187 countries and territories. Together with UNEP, it forms the secretariat of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).

www.wmo.ch

www.ipcc.ch

I. World Health Organization (WHO)

WHO is the United Nations specialized agency for health. It was established on 7 April 1948. The objective of WHO is to enable all the world's people to attain the highest possible level of health. Health is defined in the WHO constitution as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.



WHO is governed by 192 member States through the World Health Assembly, which itself is composed of representatives from WHO member States. The main tasks of the World Health Assembly are to approve the WHO programme and the budget for the following biennium and to decide major policy questions.

The Health and Environment Linkages Initiative (HELI) is a global effort by WHO and UNEP to support action by policy makers within developing countries on environmental threats to health. Environmental hazards are responsible for an estimated 25 per cent of the total burden of disease worldwide, and nearly 35 per cent in regions such as sub-Saharan Africa.

HELI encourages countries to treat health and environment linkages as integral to economic development. HELI believes that what may be termed ecosystem services are essential to

human health and well-being; these services include climate regulation, the provision and replenishment of air, water, food and energy sources, and the creation of healthy living and working environments. HELI activities include the establishment of pilot projects within individual countries and the refinement of assessment tools to support decision-making.

www.who.int

J. World Food Programme (WFP)

Scheduled to go into operation in 1963 as a three-year experimental programme, WFP was plunged into the deep end as an earthquake hit Iran in September 1962, followed by a hurricane in Thailand in October. At the same time newly independent Algeria was resettling 5 million refugees. All this brought home the crucial importance of dealing with the problem of hunger. The number of food emergencies has been rising over the past two decades, from an average of 15 per year during the 1980s to more than 30 per year since the turn of the millennium. Whether the cause is natural or of human origin, the fact remains that hunger is one of the major threats to survival.

Natural disasters such as floods, tropical storms and long periods of drought are on the increase, with calamitous consequences for food security in poor, developing countries. Drought is now the single most common cause of food shortages in the world; in many countries natural conditions that are already harsh are made worse by climate change. In addition, poor farming practices, deforestation, overcropping and overgrazing are exhausting the earth's fertility and spreading the causes of hunger. Increasingly, the world's fertile farmland is under threat from erosion, salination and desertification.

WFP reaches out to the hungry through emergency operations that are based on comprehensive assessments of their food needs, working with over 1,100 international and local NGOs to distribute food aid. WFP firmly believes that, as there is an abundance of food to feed the world's population, the cycle of poverty and hunger can be broken by the distribution of food aid.

www.wfp.org

K. United Nations campaigns and inter-agency networking

Millennium Declaration

The historic Millennium Declaration resulted from the largest ever gathering of world leaders, which began on 6 September 2000 in New York. The Declaration contains a statement of values, principles and objectives for the international agenda for the twenty-first century. It also sets deadlines for many collective actions, including the Millennium Development Goals.

www.un.org/millennium

Millennium Development Goals

The United Nations Millennium Development Goals are a set of goals that 192 members of the United Nations have committed themselves to achieving by the year 2015. These goals deal with issues such as sustainable development, human population, education, equity and the elimination of poverty, hunger and disease. While Goal 7 is directly related to environmental management and conservation, environmental sustainability is also a prerequisite for the full attainment of all the other goals. Achievement of these goals will reverse the trends of environmental degradation and ensure closer adherence to MEA statutes and a more informed appreciation of their ideology.

www.un.org/millenniumgoals

United Nations Development Group

The United Nations Development Group is an instrument for United Nations reform, created by the Secretary-General in 1997 to improve the effectiveness of United Nations development at country level. The group brings together the operational agencies, including UNEP, that are concerned with development.

The United Nations Development Group develops policies and procedures that allow member agencies to work together in analysing country issues, planning support strategies,

implementing support programmes, monitoring results and promoting change. These initiatives increase the input of the United Nations in helping countries achieve all the Millennium Development Goals, including that of poverty reduction.

www.undg.org

United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005–2014)

The United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development strives to incorporate key concepts of development into the educational policies and programmes of the United Nations, other international agencies, ministries, NGOs, community-based organizations, research institutions, the media and the private sector. The principles of environmental education form an essential element of education for sustainable development.

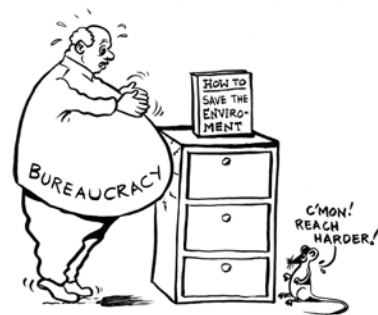
<http://portal.unesco.org/education>

International Decade for Action, “Water For Life” (2005–2015)

Water is essential for life; it is crucial for sustainable development, including the preservation of our natural environment and the alleviation of poverty and hunger. Water is indispensable for human health and well-being.

The United Nations General Assembly in December 2003 proclaimed the years 2005–2015 as the International Decade for Action “Water for Life”. The primary goal of the Water for Life decade is to promote efforts to ensure that international commitments on water and water-related issues are fulfilled by 2015. These commitments include the Millennium Development Goals of halving, by 2015, the number of people without access to safe drinking water and to put an end to the unsustainable exploitation of water resources. At the World Summit in Johannesburg in 2002 two further objectives were set: to develop integrated water resource management and water efficiency plans by 2005 and to halve, by 2015, the number of people who do not have access to basic sanitation.

A major effort is required in this decade to fulfil these commitments and extend access to these essential services to those people, most of them poor, who are currently deprived of them.



Women play a central role in water provision and management, so special emphasis should be placed on ensuring their participation and involvement in these development efforts. Among the issues that are central for the Water for Life decade are: scarcity of water, access to sanitation and health, water in the context of gender, capacity-building, financing, valuation, management of integrated water resources, transboundary water issues, environment and biodiversity, disaster prevention, food and agriculture, pollution and energy.

www.un.org/waterforlifedecade



IV. Development banks and institutions financing environmental activities

A. World Bank

The World Bank is a vital source of financial and technical assistance to developing countries around the world. It is made up of two unique development institutions owned by 184 member countries – the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the International Development Association (IDA). Each institution plays a different but supportive role in the bank’s mission of global poverty reduction and the improvement of living standards. IBRD focuses on middle income and creditworthy poor countries, while IDA focuses on the poorest countries in the world. The Bank provides low-interest loans, interest-free credit and grants to developing countries for education, health, infrastructure, communications and many other purposes.

In 2001, the World Bank board of directors endorsed an environment strategy to guide the Bank’s actions in the environment area, particularly over the next five years. The strategy entitled “Making sustainable commitments: an environment strategy for the World Bank,” outlines how the World Bank will work with client countries to help them meet their environmental challenges and ensure that Bank projects and programmes incorporate principles of environmental sustainability. The strategy recognizes that sustainable development, which balances economic development, social cohesion, and environmental protection, is fundamental to the World Bank’s core objective of lasting poverty alleviation. (This strategy can be downloaded from the World Bank website)

As one of the three implementing agencies of GEF, the World Bank assists its member countries conserve and sustainably use their biological diversity, reduce their emissions of greenhouse gases, manage shared water bodies and reduce their emissions of ozone-depleting substances by accessing GEF resources to cover the incremental costs of additional actions on these global issues.

www.worldbank.org



B. African Development Bank

The African Development Bank is a major financial mechanism for the promotion of development in Africa. It was established by the Organization of African Unity (OAU) in 1964 to promote economic and social development in the region.

The mainstreaming of environmental sustainability in the development of Africa has been a priority of the bank. Its board approved the new bank group policy on the environment, which incorporates and redefines the former policy on environmentally sustainable development in Africa. The new policy acknowledges that, to sustain economic growth in Africa, there is an urgent need to preserve and enhance the ecological capital that enriches such growth. Two guidelines relevant to the new policy on the environment were completed and disseminated in 2004, namely the Strategic Impact Assessment Guidelines and the Integrated Environmental and Social Assessment Guidelines (these guidelines can be downloaded from the bank's website).

www.afdb.org

C. Multilateral Fund for the Implementation of the Montreal Protocol

The Multilateral Fund for the Implementation of the Montreal Protocol provides funds to help developing countries comply with their obligations under the Protocol to phase out the use of ozone-depleting substances (ODS) by 2010. ODS are used in refrigeration, foam extrusion, industrial cleaning, fire extinguishing and fumigation. Countries eligible for this assistance are those with an annual per capita consumption of ODS of less than 0.3 kg a year, as defined in Article 5 of the Protocol. They are referred to as Article 5 countries.

The Montreal Protocol was agreed in 1987 after scientists showed that certain human-made substances were contributing to the depletion of the Earth's ozone layer, which protects life below from damaging ultraviolet radiation. The Multilateral Fund was established by the London Amendment to the Protocol in 1990.

The phase-out of ODS will enable the ozone layer to repair itself. The Fund was the first financial mechanism to be borne from an international treaty. It embodies the principle

agreed at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in 1992 that countries have a common but differentiated responsibility to protect and manage the global commons.

In 1986, industrialized countries consumed 86 per cent of the most important ODS, the chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs). They agreed to contribute to the Fund in order to help Article 5 countries achieve the Protocol's goals. Article 5 countries committed themselves to joining the global effort to restore the depleted ozone layer. This global consensus forms the basis of the operation of the Multilateral Fund that confines the liability of the Fund to costs essential to the elimination of the use and production of ODS. An important aspect of the Fund is that it funds only the additional (the so-called "incremental") costs incurred in converting to non-ODS technologies.

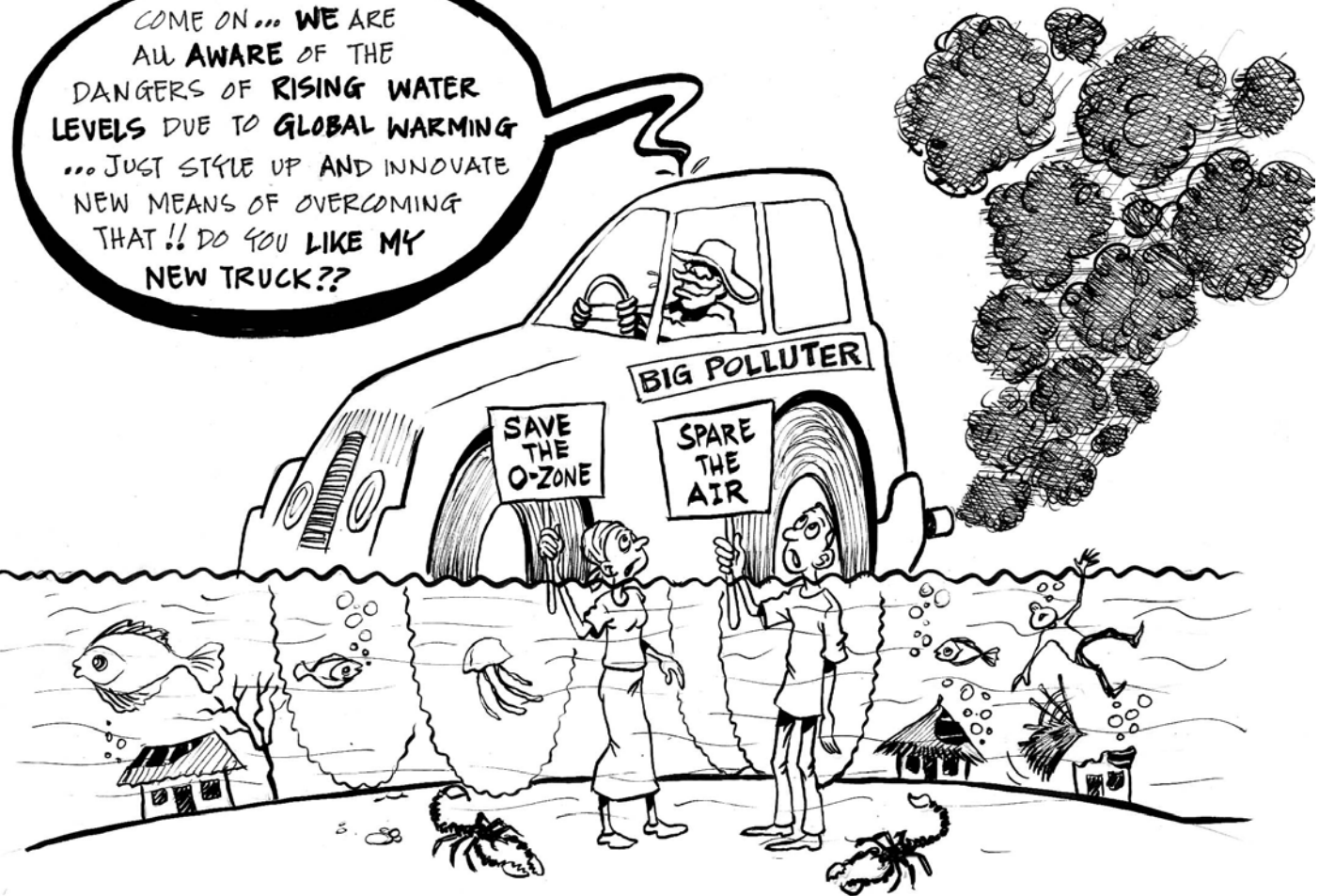
The Fund is managed by an Executive Committee with an equal representation of seven industrialized and seven Article 5 countries, which are elected annually by the Meeting of the Parties. The Committee reports annually to the Meeting of the Parties on its operations. Financial and technical assistance is provided in the form of grants or concessional loans and is delivered primarily through four implementing agencies, UNEP, UNDP, UNIDO and the World Bank.

Up to 20 per cent of the contributions of contributing Parties can also be delivered through their bilateral agencies in the form of eligible projects and activities.

The Fund is replenished on a three-year basis by the donors. Pledges amounted to US\$ 2.1 billion over the period 1991–2005. Funds are used, for example, to finance the conversion of existing manufacturing processes, train personnel, pay royalties and patent rights on new technologies, and establish national ozone offices.

www.multilateralfund.org

COME ON... WE ARE
ALL AWARE OF THE
DANGERS OF RISING WATER
LEVELS DUE TO GLOBAL WARMING
... JUST STYLE UP AND INNOVATE
NEW MEANS OF OVERCOMING
THAT!! DO YOU LIKE MY
NEW TRUCK??



V. International environment-focused organizations

There are many other organizations working for the better management of the environment. Some of these organizations work exclusively on environmental issues, while others are more committed to development issues, where environment management is regarded as key to overall development. These are mainly intergovernmental organizations. Some private multinational companies also have environment management programmes.

Two prominent examples of such non-governmental organizations include are the World Conservation Union (IUCN) and the World Wildlife Fund (WWF). Notable among the intergovernmental development organizations in this category are: the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), the South African Development Community (SADC), the Economic Community of West Africa States (ECOWAS), Club du Sahel, the Permanent Interstate Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel, the African Union, NEPAD, the East African Community, the Arab Maghreb Union (AMU), the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS) and the Indian Ocean Commission, among others.

Recommended Reading

Environmental Education, Ethics and Action: A Workbook to Get Started



This book objectively challenges the link between ethics and our everyday activities. It takes ethics out of philosophy departments and puts it squarely onto the streets, into the villages, towns and cities, and connects ethics to all life on Earth. The book's primary audience is teacher trainers, college instructors, university professors and others responsible for professional development in education. It is also aimed at environmental educators who want to take their teaching more deeply into the questions that lie at the heart of sustainable living.

Available in four (4) languages - English, French, Italian, and Spanish

Environmental Education, Ethics, and Action: A Workbook to Get Started.

Jickling, B., Lotz-Sisitka, H., O'Donoghue, R., Ogbuigwe, A. (2006)

Nairobi : UNEP.

ISBN: 92-807-2656-0

Translations:

English to French by Gilles Bédard;

English to Spanish by María José Hernández Ramos;

English to Italian by Filippo Laurenti.

VI. African Network of Environmental Journalists (ANEJ)

ANEJ, whose motto is “the voice of the African environment”, was conceived at the first workshop for African environmental journalists, held at UNEP headquarters in Nairobi, from 26 to 28 November 2002.


ANEJ was set up with the aim of mainstreaming environmental reporting in Africa; enhancing the capacity of African journalists to deal with new and emerging environmental challenges; providing extra leverage for the dissemination of information on environmental issues in the region, promoting web-based journalism on environment and sustainable development in Africa and influencing the decision-making process relating to environmental policies in Africa.

Its mission is to “promote public understanding of environmental issues in Africa by improving the quality, accuracy, and intensity of environmental reporting”. Towards achieving this status, ANEJ has promoted the culture of networking among African environmental journalists from all over Africa, to enable them both to share and to disseminate information, giving it more visibility and raising its profile. ANEJ also provides critical support to journalists of all media in their efforts to give responsible coverage to complex environment issues.

www.africannej.com

“Like the gentle Savannah breeze, journalists wander and wonder as they dispense information across the hills and plains, refreshing and exposing.”

Bwak, Kenyan Poet



FOR WHAT WE ARE
ABOUT TO RECIEVE, MAY THE
LORD LET IT NOT CONTAIN
BIRD FLU, PESTICIDES,
BACTERIA , NITRATES
OR...

VII. Multilateral environmental agreements

Environmental conventions and protocols

Why?

Scientific evidence has shown that continued patterns of unsustainable production and consumption, irresponsible dumping and pollution, continued depletion of biodiversity, a high population growth rate and general increasing environmental degradation, are the direct result of entirely controllable human activities. In order to control these activities and to safeguard the very future of the planet, it is paramount that Governments of the world agree on policies to mitigate their harmful global effects.

MEAs have been developed, adopted and ratified under the auspices of the United Nations or other organizations since they provide a means of ensuring commitment by a country to the reversal of negative environmental trends. MEAs require that countries develop specific implementation mechanisms and fulfil obligations involving reporting, training, public education, and other activities.

What?

MEAs are binding agreements between States for the development of international norms and standards for protecting the environment. Once a convention is adopted by Governments at an international conference, States can then sign and ratify the convention.

Global MEAs are complemented by subregional and regional agreements such as the Africa Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources, the Convention for Cooperation in the Protection and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the West and Central African Region (Abidjan Convention), and the Lusaka Agreement on Cooperative Enforcement Operations Directed at Illegal Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora (<http://www.lusakaagreement.org/>).

“Multilateralism is the democracy of international society”

*Boutros-Boutros Ghali,
United Nations Secretary-
General 1992 - 1996*

Multilateral: Among a large number of countries. Contrasts with bilateral and plurilateral

Ratify: The process of adopting an international treaty, or a constitution or other nationally binding document

MEAs are generally described as conventions or protocols. Conventions are international policy statements agreed to by Governments, while protocols are MEAs that address actionable points from a convention. Conventions may have certain limitations that

need to be addressed by actions; Protocols are more binding and a country becomes subject to a protocol once it ratifies it.

“We are called to assist the earth to heal her wounds, and in the process heal our own – indeed, to embrace the whole creation in all its diversity, beauty and wonder.”

Wangari Maathai, Nobel Peace Laureate, 2004

The MEA themes lie at the heart of global environmental issues such as carbon dioxide reduction, eco-efficiency, biological diversity, land degradation, energy systems and technology innovation.

Process of developing multilateral environment agreements

How?

The decision to open negotiations for the adoption of an MEA is usually prompted by compelling information from a number of different sources of information on an issue that requires a global response.

For instance, in response to the problem of potential global climate change WMO and UNEP established the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in 1988. The first assessment report of IPCC served as the basis for the negotiation of the Framework Convention on Climate Change and the Kyoto Protocol. For its part, the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety originated within the Convention on Biological Diversity.

Drafting a convention

What?

Negotiations for an MEA or a protocol to an MEA are multi-party in nature. Every State and, in the case of a protocol to an MEA, every party to the MEA can participate in those negotiations on an equal footing. This means that the negotiations – which are based on a mandate of the United Nations General Assembly, a ministerial conference or a decision of the relevant conference of parties – are wide-ranging in terms of the interests that are raised and protected.

Making a convention or protocol work

How?

Upon acceptance by States of the final text of a convention or of a protocol to an existing instrument by its parties, the document is opened for signature and ratification. This stage in the life of a convention or protocol is quite delicate. For instance, States may agree to an MEA or a protocol thereto but then not ratify it at a later stage and in this case the MEA or its protocol has no effect or, at best, only enters into effect after a considerable time lag

during which time the environmental problem which the MEA or the protocol is designed to remedy might have worsened considerably.

Similarly, a number of States may have ratified an MEA or a protocol thereto but since the terms for the entry into force of the MEA may require the attainment of a threshold (e.g., a minimum number of ratifications by countries), the MEA may be rendered quite ineffective.

MEAs at the country level

The fundamental principle of international treaty law is *pacta sunt servanda* (“agreements must be observed”). States generally are only bound by those agreements to which they agree to be bound. A State may become party to an MEA for many reasons: because it is in the State’s best interest, because the State wants to be a responsible international actor, because it wants access to financial or technical resources, because it is encouraged to do so by other States, etc.

Regardless of the reason, once the State is a party to an MEA, it is bound by the terms of that agreement. Typically, this includes both substantive provisions (to take certain measures to protect the environment) and procedural provisions.

To implement the requirements of an MEA, States often have to adopt implementing legislation. Some States require that their laws and institutions conform to the terms of an MEA before the State can become a party to the agreement. Other States often become a party to the agreement first, and then proceed with the legal and institutional reforms. Why would States pursue the latter course? One reason is that, while most MEAs make provision for some form of technical or financial assistance to implement the MEA, such assistance often is given only to those States that are parties (see UNEP 2006, *Manual on Compliance with and Enforcement of Multilateral Environmental Agreements*, p. 52 ff.)

Environmental Degradation: Processes induced by human behaviour and activities (sometimes combined with natural hazards) that damage the natural-resource base or adversely alter natural processes or ecosystems. Potential effects are varied and may contribute to an increase in vulnerability and the frequency and intensity of natural hazards.

The COP is the policy organ of the MEA and its decisions guide the secretariat in carrying out activities for the convention.

Note

Please refer to the *UNEP Manual on Compliance with and Enforcement of Multilateral Environmental Agreements* for comprehensive information on MEAs and their compliance. The online version can be found at this link: http://www.unep.org/dec/docs/UNEP_Manual.pdf

A. Biodiversity conventions

Overview

Biodiversity can be considered at three major levels:

- The genetic variation within populations;
- The number, relative abundance and uniqueness of species; and
- The variety, extent and condition of ecosystems.

Biodiversity and the ecosystems they support are the living basis for sustainable development. They generate a wide range of goods and services on which the world economy depends. Activities that reduce biodiversity jeopardize economic development and often the survival of many who depend on biodiversity for their livelihood, such as the poor in the rural areas of developing countries. The strong linkages that exist between biodiversity conservation and poverty alleviation are not always recognized or understood.

Human-imposed threats to biodiversity demand immediate attention. The ecosystem approach, as laid out in the decisions under the Convention on Biological Diversity, should be implemented for progress to be achieved in conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity.

Biodiversity conventions can be geared towards the conservation of individual species, their migration routes and habitats, or may have a more overarching approach to conservation

“The war we have to wage today has only one goal and that is to make the world safe for diversity.”

U Thant, United Nations Secretary-General, 1961 – 1971



and sustainable use of biodiversity in a broader sense. This is increasingly vital, because biodiversity offers multiple opportunities for development and improving human well-being. It is the basis for essential environmental services upon which life on earth depends. Thus, its conservation and sustainable use are of critical importance.

Biodiversity MEAs

Global

- Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES)
- Convention on Migratory Species
- Convention on Biological Diversity
- Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety
- Ramsar Convention on Wetlands of International Importance, Especially as Waterfowl Habitat
- World Heritage Convention
- International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources
- International Plant Protection Convention
- International Convention for the Regulation of Whaling

Regional

- Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA)
- Agreement on the Conservation of Small Cetaceans of the Baltic and North Seas (ASCOBANS)
- Agreement on the Conservation of the Black Seas, Mediterranean and Contiguous Atlantic Area (ACCOBAMS)
- African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources
- Regional seas conventions
- Lusaka Agreement on Cooperative Enforcement Operations Directed at Illegal Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora
- Convention for the Protection, Management, and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the East African Region (Nairobi Convention)

Biosafety: The assessment of the impact and safety of genetically improved or modified organisms and the development of protective policies and procedures for adoption to ensure this.

Endangered species:

Animals, plants or other living organisms threatened with extinction by anthropogenic (human-caused) or other natural changes in their environment. Most of the biodiversity conventions have their own lists of endangered species. CBD describes endangered species while IUCN has compiled a so-called “Red List” of threatened species.

Precautionary principle:

Principle adopted by the United Nations Conference on the

- Convention for Cooperation in the Protection and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the West and Central African Region (Abidjan Convention)
- Convention for the Establishment of the Lake Victoria Fisheries Organization
- Protocol Concerning Protected Areas and Wild Fauna and Flora in the Eastern African Region

<http://svs-uneplibmdb.net/?q=node/2>

Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)

One of the key agreements adopted at the Rio Summit was the Convention on Biological Diversity. It has three objectives:

- Conservation of biodiversity,
- Sustainable use of its components, and
- Equitable sharing of benefits arising from the use of biodiversity.

This covenant reached by the vast majority of the world’s Governments sets out commitments to safeguard the foundations of the world’s ecology as its economies continue on the path of development.

The Convention is comprehensive in its goals, and deals with an issue so vital to the very future of humanity that it stands as a landmark in international law. It recognizes – for the first time – that conservation of biological diversity is “a common concern of humankind” and is an integral part of the development process. It also recognized the national sovereignty of countries over their own biological diversity.

The agreement covers all ecosystems, species and genetic resources. It links traditional conservation efforts to the economic goal of using biological resources sustainably. It sets principles for the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising from the use of genetic resources. It also covers the rapidly expanding field of biotechnology, covering technology development and transfer, benefit-sharing and biosafety. This has been further developed in the Cartagena Protocol.



Importantly, the Convention is legally binding: countries that join it are obliged to implement its provisions.¹ However, it has no compliance mechanism nor sanctions possibilities, which make it more of a “framework” convention that relies on the further development of instruments that can be enforced. The first such instrument is the Cartagena Protocol.

<http://www.biodiv.org>

Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety

On 29 January 2000, the Conference of the Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity adopted a supplementary agreement to the Convention known as the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety. The Protocol seeks to protect biological diversity – and human health – from the potential risks posed by living modified organisms resulting from modern biotechnology. It establishes an advanced information agreement (AIA) procedure for ensuring that countries are provided with the information necessary to make informed decisions before agreeing to the import of such organisms into their territory. The Protocol contains reference to a **precautionary approach** and goes beyond the precaution language in Principle 15 of the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development. The Protocol also establishes a Biosafety Clearing House to facilitate the exchange of information on living modified organisms and to assist countries in the implementation of the Protocol².

www.biodiv.org/biosafety

Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES)

Overview

Endangerment of wild fauna and flora is a broad issue, which involves the habitats and environments where species live and interact with one another (ecosystems). Although some

1 Source: www.biodiv.org

2 Source: www.biodiv.org/biosafety/

Environment and Development (1992) that, in order to protect the environment, a precautionary approach should be widely applied, meaning that where there are threats of serious or irreversible damage to the environment, lack of full scientific certainty should not be used as a reason for postponing cost-effective measures to prevent environmental degradation. Application of the precautionary principle means that a lower level of proof of harm can be used in policy-making whenever the consequences of waiting for a higher levels of proof might be very costly or irreversible.

Ecosystem approach
The ecosystem approach is a strategy for the integrated management

of land, water and living resources that promotes conservation and sustainable use in an equitable way.

Exotic: A term used to describe a plant or animal species that is not native to the habitat into which it is introduced.

Extinction: The irreversible condition whereby a species or other group of organisms has no living representatives in the wild, which follows the death of the last surviving individual of that species or group.



measures are being taken to mitigate specific cases of endangerment, the universal problem cannot be solved until humans protect the natural environments where endangered species dwell. There are many reasons why a particular species may become endangered, the main ones being; habitat destruction, introduction of harmful invasive alien (“exotic” does not cover it) species and overexploitation of a particular species. Endangerment does not only affect the single species but affects the entire ecosystem, which is directly or indirectly dependent on the endangered species.³

According to conservation analysts, the international wildlife trade is estimated to be worth billions of dollars annually and to include hundreds of millions of plant and animal specimens. The trade is diverse, ranging from live animals and plants to a vast array of wildlife products derived from them, including food products, exotic leather goods, wooden musical instruments, timber, tourist curios and medicines. Levels of exploitation of some animal and plant species are high and the trade in them, together with other factors, such as habitat loss, is capable of heavily depleting their populations and even bringing some species close to extinction. Many wildlife species in trade are not endangered, but the existence of an agreement to ensure the sustainability of the trade is important in order to safeguard these resources for the future.

CITES Convention

The trade in wild animals and plants crosses borders between countries. Accordingly, efforts to regulate it require international cooperation to safeguard certain species from over-exploitation. CITES was conceived in the spirit of such cooperation. The aim of CITES is to ensure that international trade in specimens of wild animals and plants does not threaten their survival. The convention came into force in July 1975.

CITES works by subjecting international trade in specimens of selected species to certain controls. All imports, exports, re-exports, and also introduction from the sea, of species covered by the Convention have to be authorized through a licensing system. Each party

3 Copyright 19972002 by Lauren Kurpis www.endangeredspecie.com

to the Convention must designate one or more management authorities in charge of administering that licensing system and one or more scientific authorities to advise them on the effects of trade on the status of the species.

The species covered by CITES are listed in three appendices, according to the degree of protection that they need.

Appendices I and II

Appendix I includes species threatened with extinction. Trade in specimens of these species is permitted only in exceptional circumstances. Appendix II includes species not necessarily threatened with extinction, but in which trade must be controlled in order to avoid use incompatible with their survival.

The Conference of the Parties, which is the supreme decision-making body of the Convention and comprises all its member States, has agreed in resolution Conf. 9.24 on a set of biological and trade criteria to help determine whether a species should be included in appendix I or II. At each regular meeting of the Conference of the Parties, parties submit proposals based on those criteria to amend these two appendices. Those amendment proposals are discussed and then submitted to a vote. The Convention also makes provision for amendments by a postal procedure between meetings of the Conference of the Parties, but this procedure is rarely used.

Appendix III

This appendix contains species that are protected in at least one country, which has sought assistance from other CITES parties in controlling the trade. Changes to appendix III follow a distinct procedure from changes to appendices I and II, as each party is entitled to make unilateral amendments to it.

www.cites.org

Migratory species:

Birds or other animals which make annual movements from one place to another. Migrations may be of any distance, from very great to very short, depending upon the species.



Ramsar Convention

The Convention on Wetlands of International Importance, Especially as Waterfowl Habitat, signed in Ramsar, Islamic Republic of Iran, in 1971, is an intergovernmental treaty which provides the framework for national action and international cooperation for the conservation and wise use of wetlands and their resources. There are presently 153 contracting parties to the Convention, with 1,626 wetland sites, totalling 145.6 million hectares, designated for inclusion in the Ramsar List of Wetlands of International Importance.

What?

The Convention's mission is "the conservation and wise use of all wetlands through local, regional and national actions and international cooperation, as a contribution towards achieving sustainable development throughout the world". The Convention uses a broad definition of the types of wetlands covered in its mission, including swamps and marshes, lakes and rivers, wet grasslands and peatlands, oases, estuaries, deltas and tidal flats, near-shore marine areas, mangroves and coral reefs, and human-made sites such as fish ponds, rice paddies, reservoirs, and salt pans.

Wetlands

Wetlands provide fundamental ecological services and are regulators of water regimes and sources of biodiversity at all levels – species, genetic and ecosystem. They also play an important role in the adaptation and mitigation of climate change. They are windows on interactions between cultural and biological diversity. They also constitute a resource of great economic, scientific and recreational value for the global community. Progressive encroachment on, and loss of, wetlands cause serious and sometimes irreparable damage to their provision of ecosystem services. They should thus be restored and rehabilitated, whenever possible.

How?

- The Conference of the Contracting Parties meets every three years and promotes policies and technical guidelines to further the application of the Convention.
- The Standing Committee, made up of parties representing the six Ramsar regions of the world, meets annually to guide the Convention between meetings of the Conference of the Parties.
The Scientific and Technical Review Panel provides guidance on key issues related to the application of the Convention.
- The Ramsar secretariat, which shares premises with IUCN in Gland, Switzerland, manages the day-to-day activities of the Convention.
- The MedWet Initiative, with its outposted coordination unit in Athens, Greece, provides a model for regional cooperation for implementation of the Convention. Nationally, each Contracting Party designates an administrative authority as its focal point for implementation of the Convention.
- Countries are encouraged to establish national wetland committees, involving all government institutions dealing with water resources, development planning, protected areas, biodiversity, tourism, education, development assistance, etc. Participation by NGOs and civil society is also encouraged.
- Ramsar sites facing problems in maintaining their ecological character can be placed by the country concerned on a special list, known as the “Montreux Record”, and technical assistance to help solve the problems can be provided.
- Eligible countries can apply for financial assistance in the form of a Ramsar small grants fund and other funding from the Convention’s Future Fund to implement wetland conservation and sound-use projects.

The Convention works closely with other environment-related global and regional conventions. It has joint work plans or other collaborative arrangements with the Framework Convention on Climate Change and the Biological Diversity, Desertification, Migratory Species and World Heritage conventions, as well as the UNESCO Man and the Biosphere programme. The secretariat also works with funding institutions such as the World Bank and GEF and with river basin management authorities such as those for Lake Chad and the Niger Basin.

The Convention has four formally recognized international organization partners – BirdLife International, IUCN, Wetlands International and the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) – which help contracting parties in implementing the Convention and offer assistance to those countries on the road to accession.

www.ramsar.org

UNESCO World Heritage Convention

UNESCO seeks to encourage the identification, protection and preservation of cultural and natural heritage around the world considered to be of outstanding value to humanity. This is embodied in an international treaty called the Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage, adopted by UNESCO in 1972. The most significant feature of the 1972 World Heritage Convention is that it links together in a single document the concepts of nature conservation and the preservation of cultural properties. The Convention recognizes the way in which people interact with nature, and the fundamental need to preserve the balance between the two.

whc.unesco.org

Lusaka Agreement on Cooperative Enforcement Operations Directed at Illegal Trade in Wild Flora and Fauna

Recognizing the problems of intense poaching, which has resulted in the severe depletion of certain wildlife populations in African States, and that this poaching is caused by illegal trade, and that poaching cannot be curtailed until such illegal trade is eliminated, African heads of States from East and Southern Africa met, developed and adopted the Lusaka Agreement in 1994.

The agreement is a regional agreement under CITES, that later came into force in December 1996. The task force set up under the agreement became operational in 1999. The agreement has, so far, six Governments which are party to it. These are Congo, Kenya, Lesotho, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia.

World Heritage: A term applied to sites of outstanding universal natural or cultural significance which are included on the World Heritage List. A UNESCO World Heritage Site is a specific site (such as a forest, mountain range, lake, desert, building, complex, or city) that has been nominated for the international World Heritage programme administered by UNESCO

The Lusaka agreement is directed at illegal trade in wild flora and fauna and was born of the desire to combat cross-border wildlife crime. The task force set up under the agreement has the mandate of enhancing cooperation between wildlife law enforcement agencies in different countries.

www.internationalwildlifelaw.org/lusaka.pdf

Convention on Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS)

Overview

The journey that is traversed by birds during migration covers many different countries in different continents. This migration is a natural phenomenon that involves movement of given species between areas that they inhabit at different times of the year. CMS aims to conserve terrestrial, marine and avian migratory species throughout their range.

Migratory movements tend to be regular and largely predictable. They may take place over large fronts or along thin, traditional routes; in one single, continuous journey or as a series of legs interspersed with rests. Migratory species of animals are, on average, more at risk of becoming endangered than non-migratory species. This results from their greater requirements: they need suitable habitat along their migratory routes both for reproduction and also during the off-season.

In an ever-changing world, human pressure is high on some of those habitats, and also often on the animals themselves (hunting, incidental catch, etc.). As a result, many migratory species that were once common are becoming increasingly rare. Even though migratory species of wild animals represent only a fraction of the total biodiversity, they are a very significant portion of the world's genetic resources. They have evolved in intricate interrelationships with resident plant and other animal species. They also play a unique role as indicators for the interdependence of and linkages between ecosystems and for ecological change.

“They may hop and gallop and fly from hill to plain to valley but they still need a place to call home. That place is every hill and plain and valley that they tread upon.”

Bwak, Kenyan Poet

Eurasia: Relating to, or coming from, Europe and Asia

Flora & Fauna:

Fauna is a collective term for animal life. The corresponding term for plants is flora. Technically, the proper term for fauna plus flora is biota-(the term “fauna” never covers plant species!) Flora and Fauna can also refer to a descriptive catalogue of the plants and animals of any geographical area, geological period, etc.

Convention on Migratory Species

CMS aims to conserve terrestrial, marine and avian migratory species throughout their range. It is an intergovernmental treaty, concluded under the auspices of UNEP, concerned with the conservation of migratory wildlife and their habitats on a global scale. Since the Convention’s entry into force, its membership has grown steadily to include 97 (as of 1 May 2006) parties from Africa, Central and South America, Asia, Europe and Oceania.

Migratory species threatened with extinction are listed in appendix I of the Convention. CMS parties strive towards strict protection of these animals, conserving or restoring the places where they live, mitigating obstacles to migration and controlling other factors that might endanger them. Besides establishing obligations for each State joining the Convention, CMS promotes concerted action among the range States of many of these species.

Migratory species that need or would significantly benefit from international cooperation are listed in appendix II of the Convention. For this reason, the Convention encourages the range States to conclude global or regional agreements. In this respect, CMS acts as a framework convention. The agreements may range from legally binding treaties (called Agreements) to less formal instruments, such as memorandums of understanding, and can be adapted to the requirements of particular regions. The development of models tailored according to the conservation needs throughout the migratory range is a unique capacity to CMS.

Several Agreements have been concluded to date under the auspices of CMS. They aim to conserve different species including the following:

- Cetaceans of the Mediterranean Sea, Black Sea and contiguous Atlantic area
- African-Eurasian migratory waterbirds

In addition, several memorandums of understanding have been concluded to date under the auspices of CMS. They also aim to conserve different species including the following:



- Slender-billed curlew
- Marine turtles of the Atlantic coast of Africa
- Marine turtles of the Indian Ocean and South-East Asia
- Bukhara deer
- Aquatic warbler
- West-African populations of the African elephant
- Saiga antelope

Countries that are not party to CMS can still become party to one of its agreements, in contrast, for example, to the Cartagena Protocol, which can only be joined by parties to CBD, the mother convention. A secretariat under the auspices of UNEP provides administrative support to the convention. The convention's decision-making organ is the Conference of the Parties. A standing committee provides policy and administrative guidance between the regular meetings of the Conference of the Parties. A scientific council, consisting of experts appointed by individual member States and by the Conference of the Parties, gives advice on technical and scientific matters.

www.cms.int

African Convention on the Protection of Nature and Natural Resources (Algiers Convention)

Overview

Biological diversity is the variety of life on Earth, from the simplest bacterial gene to the vast, complex rainforests of Central Africa. Indeed, Africa's vast expanses are clothed in a rich biodiversity that injects beauty and life across the continent. In terms of its biodiversity, the Karoo, shared between South Africa and Namibia, is the richest desert in the world, with almost five thousand endemic species. The Guinean forest has the highest mammalian diversity of all the world's 25 hotspots. Equally remarkable are the Eastern Arc Mountain Forests of Eastern Africa. They are 30 million years old and are thought to have evolved in isolation for at least 10 million years.

Algiers Convention

Five years after the Organization for African Unity (OAU) was established, African countries adopted the African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources, in Algiers in September 1968. The main objective of the Algiers Convention was to encourage individual and joint action for the conservation, use and development of soil, water, flora and fauna, for the present and future welfare of humankind.

The main principle of the Algiers Convention is set out as follows: “The contracting States shall undertake to adopt the measures necessary to ensure conservation, utilization and development of soil, water, floral and faunal resources in accordance with scientific principles and with due regard to the best interests of the people.”

Under the Algiers Convention parties undertake:

- To adopt effective measures to conserve and improve the soil; and to control erosion and land use;
- To establish policies to conserve, use and develop water resources; to prevent pollution; and to control water use;
- To protect flora and ensure its best use; to ensure good management of forests; and to control burning, land clearance and overgrazing;
- To conserve fauna resources and use them wisely; to manage populations and habitats; to control hunting, capture and fishing; and to prohibit the use of poisons, explosives and automatic weapons in hunting;
- Tightly to control the traffic in trophies, in order to prevent trade in illegally killed and illegally obtained trophies; and
- To reconcile customary rights with the convention.

This convention was later revised by the Maputo Convention in 2003. The Maputo Convention builds on the Algiers Convention and brings it into line with the challenges of the twenty-first century, with the renewed commitment of African countries to conserve Africa’s natural riches. The Maputo Convention has not yet entered into force, however, as

the threshold of 15 countries has not been reached. The full text of this Convention can be downloaded from the African Union website.

www.africa-union.org

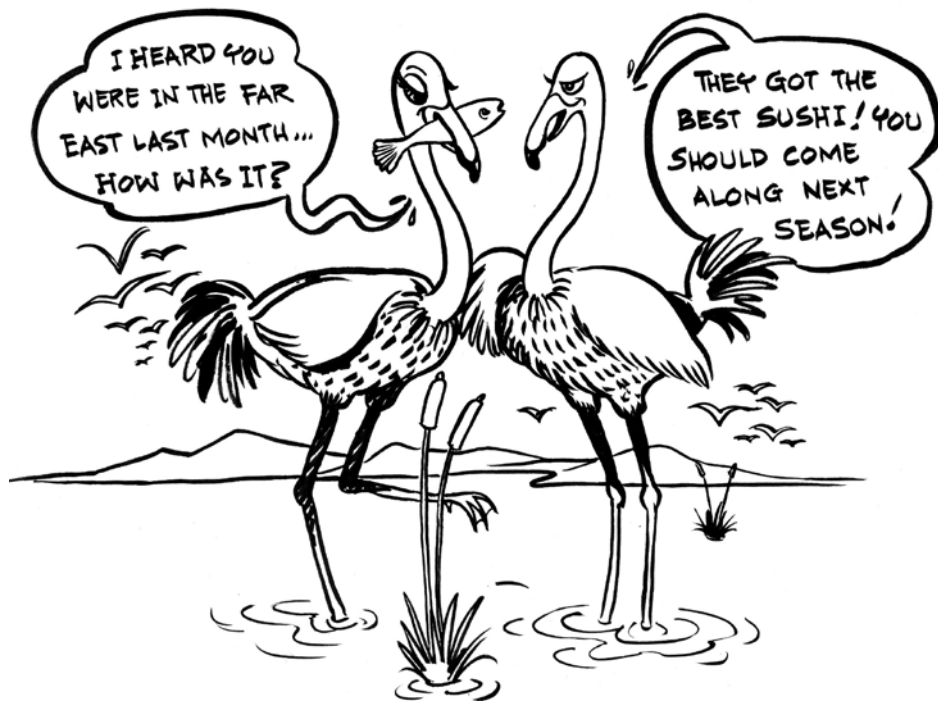
Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA)

Overview

The African phase in the migration routes of migratory birds is essential for their well-being and for the survival of their species. A place like the Niger Delta in Western Africa is well known as a wintering and staging area for millions of migratory birds. The transboundary nature of avian migratory journeys call for a transboundary approach for their sustainable conservation. Such an approach will ensure a safe passage of birds from one country to another, one continent to another.

AEWA Convention

This convention is the largest of its kind developed so far under CMS. It entered into force in November 1999. The Agreement provides for coordinated and concerted action to be taken by the range States throughout the migration system of the waterbirds to which it applies. Parties to the agreement are called upon to engage in a wide range of conservation actions, which are described in a comprehensive action plan (2003–2005). This detailed plan addresses such key issues as: species and habitat conservation, management of human activities, research and monitoring, education and information, and implementation.



AEWA covers 235 species of birds ecologically dependent on wetlands for at least part of their annual cycle, including many species of divers, grebes, pelicans, cormorants, herons, storks, rails, ibises, spoonbills, flamingos, ducks, swans, geese, cranes, waders, gulls, terns and the South African penguin.

The geographical area covered by AEWa includes 117 countries from Europe, parts of Asia and Canada, the Middle East and Africa and stretches from the northern reaches of Canada and the Russian Federation to the southernmost tip of Africa. Of those 117 range States currently 54 countries (as of 1 June 2006) have become contracting parties to AEWa.

<http://www.unep-awea.org>

B. Atmosphere conventions

Overview

Unlike land and marine resources, atmospheric resources are found in all African countries, although at varying levels, distribution and frequency. Atmospheric resources provide life-supporting goods and services. The air contains oxygen, carbon dioxide and nitrogen that are essential for life and livelihoods. The clouds, with their accompanying lightning phenomenon and rainfall, play a critical role in supporting life on earth. Rainfall is a source of water for people, animals and plants, and for rain-fed agriculture. The ozone layer, found in the stratosphere, protects human beings from harmful ultraviolet radiation. The sun's rays provide light and energy. The sun, wind and rivers are sources of energy for direct use or electricity generation.

The following agreements are closely interlinked in protecting the environment by eliminating or stabilizing anthropogenic emissions that threaten to interfere with the atmosphere:

- Vienna Convention on the Protection of the Ozone Layer and its Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer
- United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change and its Kyoto Protocol

While the former focuses on the impacts that ozone depletion can have on human health, the latter addresses concerns that climate change may have on ecosystem stability, food production and economic development.

Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer

The ozone layer is the protective layer in the atmosphere, about 15 miles above the ground, that absorbs some of the sun's ultraviolet rays, thereby reducing the amount of potentially harmful radiation that reaches the earth's surface.



“The Vienna Convention is the first convention to tackle an issue that for the time being seems far in the future and is of unknown proportions. This convention is the essence of “anticipatory response” that so many environmental issues call for: to deal with the *threat* of the problem before we have to deal with the problem itself.”

*Mostafa Tolba, UNEP
Executive Director,
1975 -1992*

Stratosphere: The layer of atmosphere that lies about 15–50 kilometres above the Earth’s surface.

In the stratosphere, small quantities of ozone are constantly being formed by the action of sunlight on oxygen. At the same time, ozone is being broken down by natural processes. The total amount of ozone usually stays constant because its formation and destruction occur at about the same rate. Human activity has recently changed that natural balance. Certain manufactured substances, such as chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) and hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HFCs), can destroy stratospheric ozone much faster than it is formed. Ozone-depleting substances usually contain chlorine or bromine. CFCs are not the only ozone-depleting substances, but they are the most abundant. Some ozone-depleting substances are naturally occurring compounds.

It is important, however, to note that not all ozone is good for health and the environment. Tropospheric ozone, which is found at ground level and created mainly by emissions from automobiles and pollution from factories, is responsible for a large part of the photochemical smog known as “city-smog”. It causes respiratory diseases and is a major problem in many cities.

This ozone has no connection with the stratospheric ozone that is found in the atmosphere at high altitude and protects us from ultraviolet radiation. The Vienna Convention and Montreal Protocol only deal with stratospheric ozone.

Tropospheric ozone plays an important role in climate change discussions as concentrations of it have risen by around 30 per cent since the pre-industrial era, and it is now considered by IPCC to be the third most important greenhouse gas after carbon dioxide and methane. An additional complication of ozone is that it also interacts with and is modulated by concentrations of methane, which affects the length of time that these compounds remain in the air.

When?

The issue of ozone depletion was first discussed by the UNEP Governing Council in 1976. A meeting of experts on the ozone layer was convened in 1977, after which UNEP and the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) set up the Coordinating

Committee of the Ozone Layer (CCOL) to conduct periodic assessments of ozone depletion. Intergovernmental negotiations for an international agreement to phase out ozone-depleting substances started in 1981 and concluded with the adoption of the Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer in March 1985.

The Vienna Convention encourages intergovernmental cooperation on research, systematic observation of the ozone layer, monitoring of CFC production, and the exchange of information.

The main thrust of the convention was to encourage research and overall cooperation among countries and exchange of information. Even so it took four years to prepare and agree. Twenty countries signed it in Vienna, but most did not rush to ratify it. The convention made provision for future protocols and specified procedures for amendment and dispute settlement.

The Vienna Convention set an important precedent. For the first time countries agreed in principle to tackle a global environmental problem before its effects were felt, or even scientifically proved.

www.unep.org/ozone

Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer

Following the discovery of the Antarctic ozone hole in late 1985, Governments recognized the need for stronger measures to reduce the production and consumption of a number of CFCs and several halons. The Montreal Protocol on Substances that deplete the Ozone Layer was adopted on 16 September 1987 at the headquarters of the International Civil Aviation Organization in Montreal. The protocol came into force in January 1989, when it was ratified by 29 countries and the European Community. Since then it has been ratified by several more countries.

The protocol was designed so that the phase-out schedules could be revised on the basis of periodic scientific and technological assessments. Following such assessments, the protocol

Nations agreed in Vienna to take “appropriate measures to protect human health and the environment against adverse effects resulting or likely to result from human activities which modify or are likely to modify the Ozone Layer”, thus the Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer was born.

Antarctica is a continent surrounding the Earth’s South Pole. It is the coldest place on earth and is almost entirely covered by ice. It is not to be confused with the Arctic, which is located near the Earth’s North Pole on the opposite side of the planet.

Halons: CFCs which contain one or more bromine atoms. These are commercially used in fire extinguishers and also sold under different refrigerant trade names such as Freon. Similar to CFCs, these compounds can migrate to the stratosphere and destroy ozone.

Chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs): A family of inert, nontoxic, and easily liquefied chemicals used in refrigeration, air conditioning, packaging, insulation, or as solvents and aerosol propellants. Because CFCs are not destroyed in the lower atmosphere they drift into the upper atmosphere where their chlorine components destroy ozone.

was adjusted to accelerate the phase-out schedules. It has also been amended to introduce other kinds of control measures and to add new controlled substances to the list.

www.unep.org/ozone

Ozone-friendly agricultural products

In 2006, more than 5,000 farms and organizations, from more than 30 countries in the world, joined forces with UNEP to accelerate the phase-out of an agricultural pesticide that damages the ozone layer. Methyl bromide has been used by farmers to kill pests in the soil before planting crops like tomatoes, strawberries, melons and flowers. But in 1992 it was officially controlled as an ozone-depleting substance and is scheduled to be phased out under the Montreal Protocol.

The new International Partnership for Phasing-out Methyl Bromide brings together many farms and companies that have shown leadership in protecting the ozone layer.

The partnership aims to accelerate the worldwide switch from methyl bromide to ozone-friendly alternatives. It plans to establish a business-to-business (B2B) net-based service, linking grocery stores seeking goods produced without methyl bromide with farmers and suppliers who do not use methyl bromide. This will link with agricultural certification organizations so that companies can confidently purchase flowers, strawberries, tomatoes, melons, and other products that are certified as grown without methyl bromide.

Farms and companies that join the partnership have already stopped using methyl bromide or will pledge to halt their use of the pesticide by September 2007, in celebration of the twentieth anniversary of the Montreal Protocol.

Multilateral Fund for the Implementation of the Montreal Protocol

The Multilateral Fund was established by a decision of the Second Meeting of the Parties to the Montreal Protocol (London, June 1990) and began its operation in 1991. The main objective of the Multilateral Fund is to assist developing country parties to the Montreal

Protocol whose annual per capita consumption and production of ozone-depleting substances (ODS) is less than 0.3 kg to comply with the control measures under the protocol. The Multilateral Fund is dedicated to reversing the deterioration of the Earth's ozone layer. Its success was highlighted in June 2005 at the meeting of the fund's Executive Committee in Montreal, where it was reported that projects financed by the fund have so far eliminated the annual consumption of 243,207 tonnes of ODS.

www.multilateralfund.org

Atmosphere MEAs

Global

- United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
- Kyoto Protocol
- Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer
- Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

Overview

The term “climate change” is sometimes used to refer to all forms of climatic inconsistency. Because the Earth's climate is never static, however, the term is more properly used to imply a significant change from one climatic condition to another. In some cases, “climate change” has been used synonymously with the term, “global warming”. Global warming refers to an average increase in the Earth's temperature, which in turn causes changes in climate. A warmer Earth may lead to changes in rainfall patterns, a rise in sea level, and a wide range of impacts on plants, wildlife, and humans. In the usage of the Framework Convention on Climate Change, climate change refers to a change in climate that is attributable directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the atmospheric composition.

The greenhouse effect phenomenon is a natural process which keeps the earth warm enough to sustain life. Gases within the atmosphere trap the sun's heat, reflecting it back to the Earth. The Earth has just the right balance of these gases to flourish; any fluctuation in the levels of these gases

causes an effect known as “global warming” or “global cooling”.

Ozone: Formed in the stratosphere from the conversion of oxygen molecules by solar radiation. Ozone absorbs much ultraviolet radiation and prevents it from reaching earth.

African context

Although not a big polluter, Africa is quite vulnerable to climate change. Human vulnerability revolves around two issues – exposure to environmental hazards and the coping capability of people to these hazards. People who have more capability to cope with extreme events or stresses are at lesser risk and are, therefore, more secure. Most African countries fall in the category of high risk and low coping capacity. Over the past 30 years, many African countries have faced increasing risk from floods, earthquakes, lava flows, fires, droughts, civil strife, and armed conflicts. These disasters have increased poverty, intensified serious health problems, and resulted in hunger. In addition, they have displaced populations across national borders and internally, contributing to further environmental degradation, and leading to more vulnerability and insecurity

<http://www.unep.org/themes/climatechange>

Framework Convention on Climate Change

In the early 1990s most countries joined an international treaty, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, to begin to consider what can be done to reduce global warming and to cope with whatever temperature increases are inevitable. In 1997 Governments agreed to an addition to the treaty, called the Kyoto Protocol, which has more powerful compliance and enforcement measures (the Framework Convention on Climate Change has the same legally binding force as the Convention on Biological Diversity but, like the latter, it has no powers of enforcement, hence the need to adopt the Kyoto Protocol). The protocol entered into force on February 16, 2005.

The Framework Convention on Climate Change sets an overall framework for intergovernmental efforts to tackle the challenge posed by climate change. It recognizes that the climate system is a shared resource whose stability can be affected by industrial and other emissions of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases.



Under the convention, Governments:

- Gather and share information on greenhouse gas emissions, national policies and best practices
- Launch national strategies for addressing greenhouse emissions and adapting to expected impacts, including the provision of financial and technological support to developing countries
- Cooperate in preparing for adaptation to the impacts of climate change

The Framework Convention on Climate Change is still in a relatively early phase of implementation, with much of its future success depending on the effective operation of its Kyoto Protocol.

www.unfccc.int

Kyoto Protocol

When?

The Framework Convention on Climate Change took effect in 1994, and by 1995 Governments had begun negotiations on the Kyoto Protocol, which entered into force on 16 February 2005.

What and how?

The Kyoto Protocol shares the Convention's objective, principles and institutions, but significantly strengthens the Convention by committing annex I Parties – the developed country parties – to individual, legally binding targets to limit or reduce their greenhouse gas emissions. Only parties to the Convention that have also become parties to the protocol will be bound by the protocol's commitments. To date, 165 countries have ratified the protocol. Of these, 35 countries are required to reduce greenhouse gas emissions below levels specified for each of them in the treaty. The individual targets for annex I parties are listed in the Kyoto Protocol's annex B. These add up to a total cut in greenhouse-gas emissions of at least 5 per cent from 1990 levels in the commitment period 2008–2012.

Annex I Parties include the industrialized countries that were members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in 1992, plus countries with economies in transition, including the Russian Federation, the Baltic States, and several Central and Eastern European States.

Annex II Parties consist of the OECD members listed in Annex I, but not the Parties with economies in transition. They are required to provide financial resources to enable developing countries to undertake emissions reduction activities under the convention and to help them adapt to adverse effects of climate change. In addition, they have to "take all practicable

steps” to promote the development and transfer of environmentally friendly technologies to Parties with economies in transition and developing countries. Funding provided by Annex II Parties is channelled mostly through the Convention’s financial mechanism.

Non-Annex I Parties are mostly developing countries. Certain groups of developing countries are recognized by the convention as being especially vulnerable to the adverse impacts of climate change, including countries with low-lying coastal areas and those prone to desertification and drought. Others (such as countries that rely heavily on income from fossil fuel production and commerce) feel more vulnerable to the

The effectiveness of the Protocol may, however, be jeopardized by the fast growing emissions of some developing States, which have no obligations to reduce or to limit their greenhouse-gas emissions. Future mandatory targets are expected to be established for “commitment periods” after 2012. These are to be negotiated well in advance of the periods concerned. Commitments under the protocol vary from country to country. To compensate for the sting of “binding targets,” as they are called, the agreement offers flexibility in how countries may meet their targets: By means of the clean-development mechanism they may invest in foreign projects that result in greenhouse-gas cuts.

www.unfccc.int

Clean-development mechanisms and carbon

Global warming has spawned a new form of commerce: the carbon trade. This new economic activity involves the buying and selling of so-called “environmental services”. Such “services”, which include the removal of greenhouse gases from the atmosphere, are identified and purchased by eco-consulting firms and then sold to individual or corporate clients to offset their polluting emissions.

While some NGOs and so-called “green” businesses favour the carbon trade and view it as a win-win solution that reconciles environmental protection with economic prosperity, some environmentalists and grassroots organizations claim that it is no answer to environmental problems and that it does not address the causes of global warming.

The carbon trade works like this: an eco-consultancy that brokers environmental services conducts an eco-audit of a client and comes up with a presumably accurate estimate of how much carbon the client’s activities release to the atmosphere. Carbon is the common denominator in all polluting gases that cause global warming.

At the other end of the operation, the firm scouts the world in search of environmental services that could offset its client’s emissions. These services are usually forests and tree-planting projects and are known in the business as “carbon assets” or “carbon sinks”, because

trees remove carbon from the atmosphere and sequester it in their wood. The activity of these sinks is often called carbon sequestration.

Using a variety of methodologies, the environmental services broker arrives at an estimate of how much carbon a particular sink sequesters and then assigns it a monetary value and sells it to a client. The client then subtracts from its carbon account the carbon sequestered by its newly purchased carbon sink. The client is said to be carbon-neutral or climate-neutral when its carbon assets equal its carbon emissions.

The carbon trade is supported by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), a prestigious scientific body that advises the Framework Convention on Climate Change. It is also authorized by the Kyoto Protocol's Clean Development Mechanism (CDM).

Contrary to what many environmentalists believe, the protocol does not seek substantial reductions in greenhouse gas emissions. The industrialized countries that sign on to it commit themselves to reducing their emissions to 5.2 per cent below 1990 levels. IPCC stated, however, that, in order to prevent a global disaster, these reductions must be 60 per cent below 1990 levels. http://unfccc.int/kyoto_mechanisms/items/1673.php

Trade

The Kyoto Protocol broke new ground by defining three innovative flexibility mechanisms to lower the overall costs of achieving its emissions targets. These mechanisms enable parties to gain access to cost-effective opportunities to reduce emissions or to remove carbon from the atmosphere in other countries. While the cost of limiting emissions varies considerably from region to region, the benefit for the atmosphere is the same, wherever the action is taken.

The Clean Development Mechanism has been designed to be innovative and market-based, so that developed countries may invest in bankable projects in developing countries. Emissions resulting from the project should be lower than what would have occurred had the prevalent technology been used. Emission reductions are expected to be real, measurable, and long enduring.

potential economic impacts of climate change response measures.

The convention emphasizes activities that promise to answer the special needs and concerns of these vulnerable countries, such as investment, insurance and technology transfer. The 48 Parties, classified as least developed countries (LDCs) by the United Nations, are given special consideration under the Convention on account of their limited capacity to respond to climate change and adapt to its adverse effects. Parties are urged to take full account of the special situation of LDCs when considering funding and technology-transfer activities.

Carbon trade is an idea presented in response to the Kyoto Protocol that involves the trading of greenhouse-gas emission rights between countries. For example, if country A exceeds its capacity of greenhouse gases and country B has a surplus of capacity, a monetary agreement could be made that would see country A pay country B for the right to use its surplus capacity.

This trade must be undertaken while maintaining overall environmental integrity to avoid substituting one evil for another (as, for example, in the case cited above, when replacing a wetland with forests might cause both a release of carbon gases and the loss of biodiversity).

www.teriin.org/climate/cdm.htm

C. Chemicals and hazardous wastes conventions

Overview

The use of chemicals has brought immense benefits to humankind. At the same time it has had negative impacts on human health and safety, particularly for the poorest and youngest people, on the integrity of terrestrial and marine ecosystems, and on air and water quality. The unsound management and use of chemicals poses threats to human well-being at many levels: it threatens the sustainability of the environment, which provides the goods and services essential for people's livelihoods; it undermines human health; it threatens physical security; and it reduces the ability of communities to care for themselves and, especially, for children.

Chemicals present both known and unknown risks. Some chemicals, including heavy metals, persistent organic pollutants (POPs) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) present known risks. Lead and mercury, for example, have serious and irreversible impacts on the mental development of children. Over the past half-century there has been an accelerated release of artificial chemicals into the environment, many of which are long-lived and transformed into by-products whose behaviours, synergies and impacts are not well known.

Certain chemical additives persist in human organisms over time: this phenomenon is known as "bio-accumulation". For example, DDT can be found in human breast-milk, as it accumulates through the foodchain.



New research indicates that many chemicals widely in use, including in household and personal care products, that are assumed to be safe by consumers and downstream users, pose significant threats to people and biodiversity. As chemical production increases globally, wildlife contamination has become even more pervasive, and troubling health threats are ever more apparent. Establishing and implementing systems for the sound management of chemicals must be a priority for Africa. A key challenge is how to account for this aspect of uncertainty.

The overarching objective of the chemicals and hazardous wastes conventions is the protection of human health and the environment from pollution by specific chemicals and hazardous substances. In the case of the Rotterdam Convention, it specifically addresses certain banned or severely restricted chemicals, as well as severely hazardous pesticide formulations, subject to international trade. The Rotterdam Convention establishes the principle that export of a chemical covered by the convention can only take place with the prior informed consent of the importing party. An importing Party is thus able to make an informed decision as to whether it can handle the risks connected with a chemical substance.

The Stockholm Convention has as its priorities the phasing out of an initial list of 12 chemicals – known as persistent organic pollutants, or POPs, and commonly referred to as the “dirty dozen”, their interim restriction to certain acceptable purposes, phasing out the production and use of DDT, and the reduction or elimination of unintentionally produced chemicals (dioxin and furans). The convention also makes provision for the inclusion of further POPs, and will require parties with new chemical programmes to prevent the introduction of new POPs onto the marketplace.

The scope of the Basel Convention covers a broad range of hazardous wastes, including chemical wastes, subject to transboundary movements. It aims to reduce these movements to a minimum by minimizing the quantity and hazardousness of the wastes generated and by promoting the treatment and disposal of hazardous wastes and other wastes as close as possible to their source of generation.

These three global MEAs are complemented by regional agreements such as the Bamako Convention on the Ban of the Import Into Africa and the Control of Transboundary Movement and Management of Hazardous Wastes Within Africa, a hazardous waste management convention adopted in 1991, and the Convention to Ban the Importation into Forum Island Countries of Hazardous and Radioactive Wastes and to Control the Transboundary Movement and Management of Hazardous Wastes Within the South Pacific Region (Waigani Convention), adopted in 1995, as well as the 2004 Protocol to the Barcelona Convention for the Protection of the Mediterranean Sea against Pollution.

MEAs on chemicals and hazardous wastes

Global and regional

- Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and Their Disposal (1989)
- Rotterdam Convention on the Prior Informed Consent Procedure for Certain Hazardous Chemicals and Pesticides in International Trade (1998)
- Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants (2001)
- Bamako Convention on the Ban on the Import into Africa and the Control of Transboundary Movement and Management of Hazardous Wastes within Africa (1991)

Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movement of Hazardous Wastes and Their Disposal

In the late 1980s, a tightening of environmental regulations in industrialized countries led to a dramatic rise in the cost of hazardous waste disposal. Searching for cheaper ways to get rid of the wastes, so-called “toxic traders” began shipping hazardous waste to developing countries and to Eastern Europe. When this activity was revealed, international outrage led to the drafting and adoption of the Basel Convention. The Convention was first devoted principally to setting up a framework for controlling the transboundary movements of

hazardous wastes, that is, the movement of hazardous wastes across international frontiers. It also developed the criteria for “environmentally sound management”. A control system, based on prior written notification, was also put into place.

Currently the convention emphasizes full implementation and enforcement of treaty commitments. The other area of focus will be the minimization of hazardous waste generation, recognizing that the long-term solution to the stockpiling of hazardous wastes is a reduction in the generation of those wastes –in terms of both quantity and hazardousness. A central goal of the Basel Convention is “environmentally sound management”, the aim of which is to protect human health and the environment by minimizing hazardous waste production whenever possible. Environmentally sound management means addressing the issue through a so-called “integrated life-cycle approach”, which involves strong controls from the generation of a hazardous waste to its storage, transport, treatment, reuse, recycling, recovery and final disposal.

One of the guiding principles of the Basel Convention is that, in order to minimize the threat, hazardous wastes should be dealt with as close to where they are produced as possible. Accordingly, under the convention, transboundary movements of hazardous wastes or other wastes can take place only upon prior written notification by the State of export to the competent authorities of the States of import and transit, if appropriate. Each shipment of hazardous waste or other waste must be accompanied by a movement document from the point at which a transboundary movement begins to the point of disposal. Hazardous waste shipments made without such documents are illegal. In addition, there are outright bans on the export of these wastes to certain countries.

Transboundary movements can take place, however, if the State of export does not have the capability of managing or disposing of the hazardous waste in an environmentally sound manner.

Each country that is a party to the Convention is required to report information on the generation and movement of hazardous wastes. Every year, a questionnaire is sent out

Hazardous waste:

Waste which, because of its quantity, concentration or characteristics, poses a present or potential hazard to human health or the environment when improperly treated, stored, transported, dispersed of or otherwise managed.

Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs) are chemical substances that persist in the environment or bioaccumulate through the food web, and pose a risk of causing adverse effects to human health and the environment

to member countries, requesting information on the generation, export and import of hazardous wastes covered by the convention.

www.basel.int

Rotterdam Convention on the Prior Informed Consent Procedure for Certain Hazardous Chemicals and Pesticides in International Trade

Owing to the dramatic growth in chemical production and trade, concerns have been raised about the potential risks posed by hazardous chemicals and pesticides. Concerns were raised that countries lacking adequate infrastructure to monitor the import and use of these chemicals are particularly vulnerable. In response to these concerns, UNEP and FAO started developing and promoting voluntary information exchange programmes in the mid-1980s. FAO launched its “International Code of Conduct on the Distribution and Use of Pesticides” in 1985 and UNEP established the London Guidelines for the Exchange of Information on Chemicals in International Trade in 1987. In 1989, the two organizations jointly introduced the voluntary prior informed consent (PIC) procedure into these two instruments. The Rotterdam Convention was adopted in September 1998 and it entered into force in February 2004.

The Rotterdam Convention is an agreement designed to promote shared responsibility and cooperative efforts among Parties in the international trade of certain hazardous chemicals, in order to protect human health and the environment from potential harm and to contribute to their environmentally sound use by facilitating information exchange about their characteristics, providing for a national decision-making process on their import and export and disseminating these decisions to Parties. The convention enables the world to monitor and control the trade in certain hazardous chemicals.

www.pic.int

Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants

Energy does not move in cyclical fashion through ecosystems, but certain chemicals do. For example, the cycle followed by inorganic nutrients takes them not just through organisms, but also into the atmosphere, the oceans, and even rocks. Since these compounds circulate

through both the biological and the geological world, the cycles they follow are known as “biogeochemical cycles” or “natural cycles”. The major biogeochemical cycles pass through the media of water, carbon, oxygen, nitrogen and phosphorous. While each compound has its own specific cycle, all the cycles have certain features in common. Examples of such features are reservoirs, those parts of the cycle where the compound is held in large quantities for long periods of time, and exchange pools, in which, on the other hand, the compound is held for only a short time.

Faced by the evidence of long-range transport of these substances to regions where they have never been used or produced and the consequent threats that they pose to the environment of the entire planet, the international community has repeatedly called for urgent global action to reduce and eliminate releases of these chemicals.

The Stockholm Convention is a global treaty developed to protect human health and the environment from persistent organic pollutants. POPs are chemicals that remain intact in the environment for long periods, become widely distributed geographically, accumulate in the fatty tissue of living organisms and are toxic to humans and wildlife. POPs circulate globally and can cause damage wherever they travel. In implementing the convention, Governments will take measures to eliminate or reduce the release of POPs into the environment. Article 9 of the Stockholm Convention requires each party to establish a national focal point for information exchange.

For the purpose of its work, the convention secretariat requests Governments to designate a national focal point, regardless of their signatory or party status. To assist in coordinating efforts in this area, UNEP has developed a master list of actions that address POPs and their releases. This master list consists of actions aimed at reducing or eliminating releases of POPs. The master list facilitates coordination and cooperation between and among activities at the national, regional and international levels in countries and organizations, thereby helping to avoid duplication of efforts and ensuring the efficient use of resources.

www.pops.int

Bamako Convention

The Bamako Convention on the Ban on the Import into Africa and the Control of Transboundary Movement and Management of Hazardous Wastes within Africa is a treaty of African nations prohibiting the import of any hazardous (including radioactive) waste. The convention was negotiated by 12 countries of the Organization of African Unity at Bamako, Mali, in January, 1991.

Impetus for the development of the Bamako Convention came from the failure of the Basel Convention to prohibit trade of hazardous waste to less developed countries, and from the realization that many developed countries were exporting toxic wastes to Africa. The Bamako Convention uses a format and language similar to that of the Basel Convention, but is much stronger in prohibiting all imports of hazardous waste, and in not allowing the exceptions, such as those for radioactive materials, admitted by the Basel Convention.

All parties are obliged to prohibit the import of all hazardous wastes, for any reason, into Africa from non-contracting parties (article 4, paragraph 1). The categories of wastes listed in Annex I to the convention, a waste possessing any of the characteristics listed in Annex II to the convention, and any waste considered to be hazardous by the domestic laws of the State of import, export or transit are considered hazardous wastes for the purposes of the Bamako Convention.

Under the Bamako Convention the dumping of hazardous wastes is prohibited in the following terms (article 4, paragraph 2): “Parties in conformity with related international conventions and instruments shall, in the exercise of their jurisdiction within their internal waters, territorial seas, exclusive economic zones and continental shelf, adopt legal, administrative and other appropriate measures to control all carriers from non-Parties, and prohibit the dumping at sea of hazardous wastes, including their incineration at sea and their disposal in the seabed and the sub-seabed; any dumping of hazardous wastes at sea, including incineration at sea as well as seabed and sub-seabed disposal, by Contracting Parties, whether in internal waters, territorial seas, exclusive economic zones or high seas shall be deemed to be illegal.”

It follows from this provision, read in conjunction with Annex I to the convention, that the dumping of radioactive wastes, industrial wastes, sewage and sewage sludge is prohibited. The Bamako Convention places a duty on its parties to monitor their respective waterways to ensure that no dumping occurs. Each State party must report annually to the secretariat all the hazardous wastes generated each year. The entire text of the Bamako Convention can be downloaded at this link:

http://www.ban.org/Library/bamako_treaty.html

D. Land conventions

Overview

Africa is the second largest region in the world, accounting for 20 per cent of the world's landmass (2,963,313,000 hectares). Most Africans live in rural areas, where they practice small-scale cultivation or pastoralism. Consequently, the direct dependence on land creates production pressures and competition for resources. In many parts of Africa, disproportionately large areas fertile land are used for the cultivation of commercial crops. This means that less land is available for food production and the continent is more dependent on food imports.

The African landscape is a rich and dynamic mosaic of resources, including forests and woodlands, arable land, mountains, deserts, coastal lands and freshwater systems, that has vast potential for development and improving human well-being if managed sustainably. In many parts of the world, and primarily in Africa, one of the principal dangers facing the land, under the pressure of overuse, is desertification: in response to this challenge, the international community developed and adopted the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification, the major global convention on the problem of desertification.

"We abuse land because we regard it as a commodity belonging to us. When we see land as a community to which we belong, we may begin to use it with love and respect."

*Aldo Leopold, US
Environmentalist
(1887 – 1948)*



Land MEAs

Global

United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification in Countries Experiencing Serious Drought and/or Desertification, Particularly in Africa

The main objective of the Convention to Combat Desertification is to resist the spread of desertification and to mitigate the effects of drought, particularly in Africa. This objective is to be achieved through effective action at all levels, supported by international cooperation and partnership arrangements, in the framework of an integrated approach which is consistent with Agenda 21, with a view to contributing to the achievement of sustainable development in affected areas.

Over the last decade, the Sahelian and sub-Saharan zones have experienced increasing difficulties in producing sufficient food for their populations. The major constraints are

By acceding to UNCCD, a State would become a party to the main international instrument dealing with the urgent global problem of land degradation. As a party, that country would have full powers, including voting, at sessions of the Conference of the Parties.

declining overall precipitation, the degradation and depletion of natural resources due to over-cultivation, extensive fuel-wood gathering and inappropriate land management systems, as Africa's population, more than that of any other continent, is highly dependent on land. The problem is further exacerbated by unfavourable economic and agricultural policies. In many areas desertification has led to significant losses of biomass and soil fertility, thereby jeopardizing agricultural production and sustainable yields.

Ending endemic hunger is one of the most pressing challenges faced by African communities, their Governments and the international community. Many countries in Africa suffer from exceptional food shortages, and millions of people still face the threat of famine and starvation. Even without famine and starvation, malnutrition is widespread. About half of the region's population suffers from some level of food deprivation, with serious consequences for health and productivity. Ending this food and agriculture crisis depends critically on peace, increased agriculture productivity, especially in African low income and food deficit countries, self-reliance in food, and redistribute policies aimed at improving the living conditions of the rural poor.

Land degradation is a serious problem throughout Africa, threatening economic and physical survival. Key issues include escalating soil erosion, declining fertility, salinization, soil compaction, agrochemical pollution and desertification. An estimated 500 million hectares of land have been affected by soil degradation since about 1950, including as much as 65 per cent of agricultural land. Soil losses in South Africa alone are estimated to be as high as 400 million tones annually; moreover, soil erosion affects other economic sectors such as energy and water supply. In a continent where too many people are already malnourished, there could well be a dramatic 50 per cent drop in crop yields within the next forty years if the degradation of cultivated lands were to continue at present rates.

The wealth of Africa depends on her ability to conserve and manage her land resources. It is generally accepted that, in addition to decreased food production, soil degradation also causes droughts and ecological imbalance, leading to a decline in the quality of life. In Africa, the negative impact of land degradation on food production is most clearly manifested in stagnating and declining yields and increasing poverty.

In the future, desertification is going to be a great challenge for countries not only in Africa but throughout the world. In all, 110 countries, with many millions of people directly affected, are now having to cope with the problem of spreading deserts. It is to be hoped that Governments and the United Nations will be able to come up with new ideas and ways to bring an end to desertification.

There are very few regional agreements on the question of arid lands and land degradation. Of these, the most notable are the Agreement for the Establishment of the Arab Centre for the Studies of Dry and Barren Land (1970) and the Convention Establishing a Permanent Inter-State Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel (CILSS) (1973). Given the focus on sustainable development and the strong substantive linkages between climate change, desertification and drought and loss of biodiversity, the Convention to Combat Desertification works closely with the Framework Convention on Climate Change and the Convention on Biological Diversity.

The international community has long recognized that desertification is a major economic, social and environmental problem facing many countries all over the world. The Convention to Combat Desertification was adopted in June 1994 and was open for signature from October 1994 to October 1995. Signatory States must ratify the Convention before it comes into force for them but non-signatory States have the option of acceding to the Convention at any time, and a number of countries have already done so.

The Convention entered into force in December 1996, thus opening an important new phase in the battle against desertification. Governments, for example, are regularly reviewing the action programmes and giving priority to awareness raising, education, and training, both in developing and developed countries. The obligations set out in the convention relate principally to international cooperation in implementing the Convention in all areas, particularly those involving collection, analysis and exchange of information; research; technology transfer; capacity-building; awareness building; the promotion of an integrated approach in developing national strategies to combat desertification and assistance in ensuring that adequate financial resources are available for programmes to combat desertification and mitigate the effects of drought.



In real terms, status as a signatory party would also allow a State:

- To show solidarity with affected countries in facing such an urgent and growing issue of global dimensions;
- To benefit from cooperation with other affected countries, and with developed countries, in designing and implementing its own programmes to combat desertification and mitigate the effects of drought;
- To improve access to relevant technologies and data;
- To benefit by participation as a party in the work of the Committee on Science and Technology;
- To take part in the network to support the implementation of the Convention mandated by article 25; and

- To nominate scientists for inclusion on the roster of experts from which ad hoc panels will be established to deal with specific scientific and technical issues.

Signatory parties are entitled to participate in the networking of relevant institutions, agencies and bodies. These networks may be expanded to include aspects of land degradation that are of particular concern to States ratifying or acceding.

www.unccd.int

E. MEAs on seas and inland water


Overview

The Eastern African region, also referred to as the Western Indian Ocean, is home to some of the world's most valuable coastal and marine ecosystems. The region's mangrove forests, seagrass beds, seashores, lagoons and coral reefs provide essential habitats for a rich biodiversity of species. It is conservatively estimated that the region supports more than 11,000 species of plants and animals, 15 per cent of which are found nowhere else on Earth.

More than 20 per cent of the world's tropical inshore fish species are found exclusively in the region, as are nesting sites for 70 per cent of the world's marine turtles. The livelihood and recreation needs of some 30 million people depend on these resources. Compared to many regions, the Eastern African region is still largely unspoiled.

A variety of human activities, however, are contributing to the rapid degradation of the marine and coastal environment of this region. These activities include unplanned urbanization, the discharge of untreated municipal waste water and industrial effluent, destructive fishing practices, overexploitation of resources and alteration and destruction of the habitat.

By far the largest cluster of MEAs, the 17 regional seas conventions and action plans are a global mosaic of agreements with one over-arching objective: the protection and sustainable use of marine and coastal resources. In the early years, shortly after the Stockholm



"While money may make the world go round, what makes money go round is ultimately the trillions of dollars generated by the planet's goods and services from the air cleaning and climate change countering processes of forests to the fisheries and the coast line protection power of coral reefs."

*Achim Steiner,
UNEP Executive Director*

Conference, the regional seas programmes focused on marine pollution control. In the ensuing 25 years they have evolved into multi-sectoral agreements dealing with integrated coastal area management which in several cases means links to the management of contiguous freshwater basins; land-based sources of pollution; conservation and sustainable use of living marine resources and the impact of offshore exploration and exploitation of oil and gas.

The Barcelona Convention (1976), the oldest of these agreements, fostered the establishment of the Mediterranean Commission for Sustainable Development which is serviced by the Secretariat of the Convention.

This group also includes the Global Programme of Action for the Protection of the Marine Environment from Land-Based Activities (GPA) and the International Coral Reef Initiative (ICRI), both of which were adopted in 1995. The purpose of ICRI is to galvanize Governments and a wide range of stakeholders into improving management practices, increasing capacity and political support and sharing information on the health of coral reefs and related ecosystems, including mangroves and sea grass beds. In both agreements, the regional seas conventions and action plans operate at regional level as stepping stones towards the implementation of the global agreements. In another sense the Global Programme of Action is closely linked to the chemicals-related conventions on issues such as agrochemicals, persistent organic pollutants and heavy metals. Similarly the work of ICRI is closely associated with the biodiversity-related conventions, specifically CBD, CITES and Ramsar.

MEAs on seas and inland water

Global

- United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS)

Regional

- Abidjan Convention for Cooperation in the Protection and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the West and Central African Region

Sustainable: A resource or system that meets present needs without compromising those of future generations.

- Nairobi Convention for the Protection, Management and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the Eastern Africa Region
- Convention for the Establishment of the Lake Victoria Fisheries Organization
- SADC Protocol on Shared Watercourses
- Barcelona Convention for Protection of the Mediterranean Sea Against Pollution

United Nations Convention on the Law of the Seas (UNCLOS)

The law of the sea developed from the struggle between coastal States seeking to expand their control over marine areas adjacent to their coastlines. By the end of the eighteenth century, it was understood that States had sovereignty over their territorial sea. The maximum breadth of the territorial sea was generally considered to be three miles – the distance that a shore-based cannon could reach and that a coastal State could therefore control.

After the Second World War, the international community requested that the United Nations International Law Commission consider codifying the existing laws relating to the oceans. The commission began working towards this in 1949 and prepared four draft conventions, which were adopted at the first United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea:

First United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS I), held from 24 February to 29 April 1958. UNCLOS I adopted the four conventions which are commonly known as the 1958 Geneva Conventions:

- Convention on the Territorial Sea and Contiguous Zone;
- Convention on the High Seas;
- Convention on Fishing and Conservation of the Living Resources of the High Seas;
- Convention on the Continental Shelf.

While considered a positive step, the conventions did not go so far as to establish the maximum breadth of the territorial sea.

Second United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS II), held from 17 March to 26 April 1960. UNCLOS II did not result in any international agreements. The conference failed to fix a uniform breadth for the territorial sea or establish consensus on sovereign fishing rights.

Third United Nations Conference on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS III), held from 1973 to 1982. UNCLOS III worked on the issues brought up at the previous conferences. Over 160 countries participated in the nine-year convention, which finally came into force on 14 November 1994, 21 years after the first meeting of UNCLOS III and one year after ratification by the sixtieth State. The first 60 ratifications were almost all made by developing States.

One major feature of the Convention was the definition of maritime zones: the territorial sea, the contiguous zone, the exclusive economic zone, the continental shelf, the high sea, the international sea-bed area and archipelagic waters. The Convention also made provision for the passage of ships, protection of the marine environment, freedom of scientific research, and exploitation of resources.

The Convention is an unprecedented attempt by the international community to regulate the resources of the sea and uses of the ocean in all their aspects, thus bringing stability to the very source of life of mankind. Across the globe, Governments have taken steps to exercise their jurisdiction over these extended areas of adjacent ocean. They are taking steps to exercise their rights over neighbouring seas and to assess the resources of their waters and the resources of the floor of the continental shelf. The States involved have nearly always acted in accordance with the Convention, particularly after it came into force, and its rapid acceptance by the international community has formed the basis for all actions undertaken with regard to the oceans and the law of the sea.

http://www.un.org/Depts/los/convention_agreements/convention_overview_convention.htm

<http://www.continentalshelf.org/index.cfm?pageID=10>

European Union: A family of democratic European countries, committed to working together for peace and prosperity. The following 25 Member States (as of May 2004) belong to the Union: Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Germany, Greece, Finland, France, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom.

Note

Because UNCLOS regulates all issues related to the sea and its use, it is not generally regarded as an MEA.

Convention for Cooperation in the Protection and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the West and Central African Region (Abidjan Convention)

The Abidjan Convention is an agreement concluded by countries of the west and central African region for the protection, management and development of its marine and coastal environment. The Convention covers the marine environment, coastal zones and related inland waters falling within the jurisdiction of the States of the west and central African region, from Mauritania to Namibia, which have become contracting parties to the Convention. The aim of the Convention is to protect and manage the marine environment and coastal areas of the western African region.

www.unep.org/delc/law

Convention for the Protection, Management and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the Eastern African Region (Nairobi Convention)

The Nairobi Convention is a comprehensive umbrella agreement applicable to the eastern African region for the protection, management and development of its marine and coastal environment. It lists the sources of pollution that require control, identifies the environment management issues that need cooperative efforts and also deals with specially protected areas, cooperation in cases of emergencies, environmental impact assessment and technical cooperation. The aim of the convention is to protect and manage the marine environment and coastal areas of the eastern African region.

Mediterranean Action Plan (MAP) and the Convention for Protection of the Mediterranean Sea against Pollution (Barcelona Convention)

The Mediterranean Action Plan (MAP) was adopted in Barcelona, Spain, in 1975 by 16 Mediterranean States and the then European Community, under the auspices of UNEP. Its legal framework is based on the Barcelona Convention adopted in 1976 and revised in 1995, and six protocols covering specific aspects of environmental protection.

Participating Countries in the Nairobi Convention:

Comoros, France (La Reunion), Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, Seychelles, Somalia, the United Republic of Tanzania and South Africa (joined in 2003)

Environmental Impact Assessment:

The analysis of biological, physical, social and economic factors to determine the environmental and social consequences of a proposed development action.

Since its adoption by all the Mediterranean States and the European Community, the Action Plan has served as the basis for the development of a comprehensive environment and development programme in the region involving the Mediterranean coastal States, specialist organizations within the United Nations system and intergovernmental and non-governmental programmes and organizations. MAP covers coastal zone management, pollution assessment and control, protection of ecosystems and preservation of biodiversity. In 1995, it was revised to become a more action-oriented programme and an instrument for sustainable development in the region.

African countries that are parties to this agreement include Algeria, Egypt, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Morocco and Tunisia.

www.unep.org/regionalseas

Convention for the Establishment of the Lake Victoria Fisheries Organization

The Lake Victoria Fisheries Organization was established to foster cooperation amongst the contracting parties in issues to do with lake Victoria. It aims to harmonize national measures for the sustainable utilization of the resources of the lake and to adopt and develop conservation and management mechanisms to assure the health of the ecosystems and the sustainability of its resources. (1994).

www.unep.org/delc/law

Protocol on Shared Watercourses in the Southern African Development Community

The Southern African Development Community (SADC) adopted the SADC protocol to provide for the establishment of a river basin organization to enable the sharing of transboundary water resources and harmonize legislation and policies throughout the region. It also facilitates the sharing of national and local experiences and best practices in integrated water resource management. The protocol assists the SADC secretariat in the process of establishing and implementing infrastructure and services for water division (adopted in 1995 and revised in 2000).

www.unep.org/delc/law

Contracting Parties in the Abidjan

Convention: Angola, Benin, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mauritania, Namibia, Nigeria, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo and Congo, South Africa.

Sustainability: is an economic, social, and environmental concept. It is intended to be a means of configuring civilization and human activity so that society and its members are able to meet their needs and express their greatest potential in the present, while preserving biodiversity and natural ecosystems, and planning and acting for the ability to maintain these ideals indefinitely.

Global Programme of Action for the Protection of the Marine Environment from Land-based Activities (GPA)

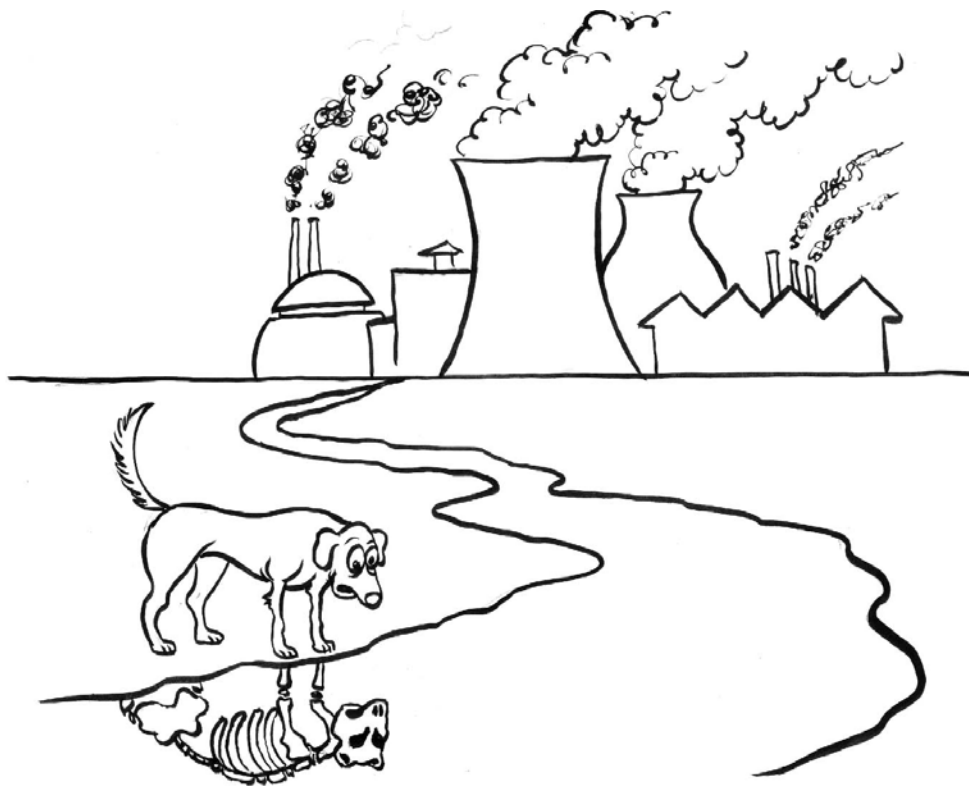
As the name suggests, GPA is a comprehensive plan drawn up for the protection of the marine environment. The major threats to the health, productivity and biodiversity of the marine environment arise from human activities on land – both in coastal areas and further inland. Around 80 per cent of ocean pollution originates from land-based activities including municipal, industrial and agricultural wastes and run-off, as well as atmospheric deposition. These contaminants affect the most productive areas of the marine environment, including estuaries and coastal waters. The marine environment is also threatened by physical changes to the coastal zone, including the destruction of habitats that are crucial to the maintenance of a healthy ecosystem.

In response to these major problems, Governments declared their commitment to protect and preserve the marine environment from the adverse environmental impacts of land-based activities. The Global Programme of Action for the Protection of the Marine Environment from Land-based Activities and the Washington Declaration were adopted in 1995 and UNEP was given the task of leading the coordination effort and establishing a GPA Coordination Office. The comprehensive, multi-sectoral approach of GPA reflects the desire of Governments to strengthen the collaboration and coordination of all agencies with mandates relevant to the impact of land-based activities on the marine environment, through their participation in a global programme.

GPA is designed to be a source of theoretical and practical guidance for national and regional authorities to help them in devising and implementing sustained action to prevent, reduce, control or eliminate marine degradation caused by land-based activities. The aim of GPA is to prevent this type of degradation of the marine environment by making it easier for States to carry out their duty of preserving and protecting that environment. The Governments in question recommended, as a priority, the establishment of an information and data clearing-house as a means of mobilizing experience and expertise, including the facilitation of effective scientific, technical and financial cooperation and capacity-building.

The implementation of GPA is primarily the task of Governments, in close partnership with all stakeholders including local communities, public organizations, non-governmental organizations and the private sector. The creation of national and regional programmes of action is crucial to the success of this implementation. UNEP, as the secretariat of GPA, together with its partners, will facilitate and assist Governments in their efforts. UNEP, the other regional seas programmes and the GPA information and data clearing-house are all part of this implementation process.

www.gpa.unep.org

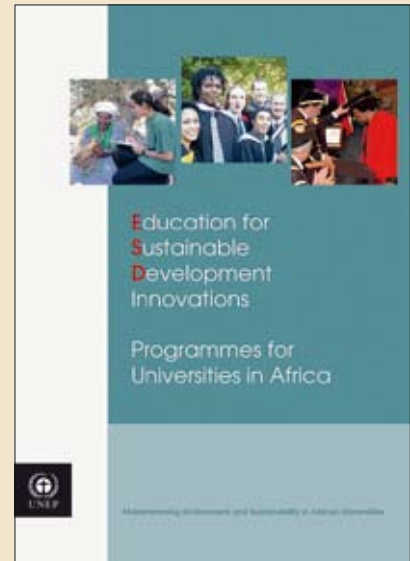


Recommended Reading

Education for Sustainable Development Innovations - Programmes for Universities in Africa

Education for Sustainable Development introduces a focus on values and ethics, and on new challenges for multi-disciplinary and inter-disciplinary dialogue, teaching and research. It also encourages universities to enhance their role in shaping society's future, and in seeking solutions to Africa's environmental and developmental challenges. The UNEP ESD Innovations Course and Toolkit provide a platform for discussing and examining sustainable development innovations in different African universities. The course gives a broad orientation to the concept of sustainable development, and introduces university teachers and managers to the range of possibilities for action that exist in teaching, research, community engagement and management. The toolkit also aims to strengthen and complement the broader dimensions of the Mainstreaming Environment and Sustainability in Africa (MESA) Universities Partnership, which engages a wide range of university teachers, researchers, students and managers

United Nations Environment Programme. 2006.
Education for Sustainable Development Innovations
- Programmes for Universities in Africa.
Share-Net, Howick
ISBN: 92-807-2718-4



VIII. International environmental governance

Implementation of international environmental law at the national level

Agenda 21 underlines the importance of implementing international treaties through the enactment and enforcement of laws and regulations at regional, national, state, provincial, local or municipal level. The enforcement of these laws and regulations is essential for the implementation of most international agreements in the fields of the environment and development; such treaties often incorporate obligations to report back on legislative measures.

Challenges to the implementation of MEAs

There is a delicate balance in international treaties. The treaties that are appealing enough to gain widespread support are usually not hard-hitting enough to be effective. The Framework Convention on Climate Change, for example, was felt to be lacking, despite its many valuable provisions, so the Kyoto Protocol was created to supplement it. On the other hand, treaties which are tough may have difficulty attracting enough support to be effective.

The majority of African States have ratified those MEAs that are of relevance to the region at global and regional levels. MEAs are recognized as the primary instruments for State commitment to the pursuit of sustainable development.

The main MEAs of the past two decades have dealt with issues that are crucial to the management of environmental resources, such as finding new and additional resources for environmental programmes; the transfer of technology; mechanisms for addressing key questions such as the loss of biological diversity and poverty alleviation and institutional frameworks for dealing with environment and development concerns.

It has to be said that, while these global agreements clearly offer hope where management of the environment is concerned, their actual achievements have been very limited. The

agreements signify a collective will to address environmental problems, but many African countries have received no benefit from the full potential offered by the global MEAs, and have even found themselves in a position where they cannot properly implement the provisions of the MEAs that they themselves have ratified.

There have also been operational difficulties with regional and subregional environmental agreements, largely due to a lack of adequate and sustainable financial and human resources. This is true of the Abidjan and Nairobi conventions, both of which were developed in the 1980s under the auspices of the UNEP Regional Seas Programme; the Nairobi Convention took 11 years to come into force and neither convention succeeded in establishing a fully operational Regional Coordinating Unit.

Under pressure from some African Governments, UNEP is now taking steps to compensate for these delays and shortcomings and a joint secretariat for the conventions has been set up to coordinate and build synergies between ongoing projects and programmes in Central, Western and Eastern Africa. When adequate financial assistance is available programmes can have a successful outcome, as we can see with the Nile Basin Initiative. This was launched in 1999 as an initiative on the part of the riparian countries to establish a framework to fight poverty and promote economic development in the Nile Basin area.

The Nile Basin is home to around 160 million people and, although it is endowed with a wealth and variety of natural resources such as high mountains, tropical forests, woodlands, lakes, savannas, wetlands, arid lands and deserts, it is also characterized by poverty, instability and environmental degradation. Furthermore, its population is expected to double in the next 25 years, thereby placing increased stress on water and other natural resources. The Nile Basin Initiative is based on a shared vision, “to achieve sustainable socio-economic development through the equitable utilization of, and benefit from, the common Nile Basin water resources.”

There are more than 500 multilateral agreements in existence and even though African countries are not signatories to all of them, they are committed to a much greater number than they can cope with economically.

Despite the difficulties and problems posed by the demands and commitments of MEAs, they have resulted in some real success stories such as the Lusaka Agreement on Illegal Trade in Wild Flora and Fauna and some of the other conventions focusing on trade in wildlife (such as CITES). It was largely as a result of these agreements that the elephant and rhino populations in Africa survived after years of being exposed to illegal hunting for ivory. A ban on the trade of wildlife products reduced the demand for these products and gave a great boost to conservation work.

Global Ministerial Environment Forum

The efforts of UNEP to support a coherent structure of international environmental governance has been greatly enhanced by the establishment of the Global Ministerial Environment Forum, an annual gathering of environment ministers from round the world which has been holding meetings since the year 2000 as part of the UNEP Governing Council's regular and special sessions.

In 2001 the Forum convened an intergovernmental group of ministers or their representatives in the field of international environmental governance to report on improving coherence in international policy-making, strengthening the effectiveness of multilateral environmental agreements and enhancing the role of UNEP.

The discussions on international environmental governance – or IEG – confirmed that, in the three decades since the establishment of UNEP in 1972, the number of organizations dealing with environmental issues has grown enormously. This raises fundamental concerns about overlap and conflict in these bodies both in how they are structured and in the specific issues they focus on. The deliberations and recommendations of the IEG process provided not only a basis for discussion but resulted in some specific proposals for the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD, Johannesburg 2002) such as the request to the Secretary-General that the international framework for sustainable development should be supported and promoted. This led Governments and other concerned organizations to give increased attention to the issues relating to IEG. The 2005

World Summit Outcome, adopted by the General Assembly in its resolution 60/1 of 16 September 2005, stressed the need for increased efficiency in the environmental activities undertaken within the United Nations system.

<http://www.unep.org/delc/IEG>

Environmental governance in Africa has grown more coordinated in recent years, resulting in the establishment of bodies such as the Africa Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN). Other coordinated regional initiatives include the Africa Ministers' Conference on Water (AMCOW) and the NEPAD environment initiative. Increased regional cooperation and more inclusive policies will further reinforce the gains that have been made by ministerial forums, expert forums and other relevant forums. These provide the necessary mechanism to exert positive peer pressure on the various countries and organizations involved.



IX. Key milestones

African Convention (Algiers Convention) – 1968

African countries adopted the African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources in Algiers in September 1968. The main objective of the Algiers Convention was to encourage individual and joint action for the conservation, utilization and development of soil, water, flora and fauna, for the present and future welfare of humankind.

The Algiers Convention states, as its main principle: “The contracting States shall undertake to adopt the measures necessary to ensure conservation, utilization and development of soil, water, floral and faunal resources in accordance with scientific principles and with due regard to the best interests of the people.”

Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment - 1972

The Stockholm Conference was attended by representatives of 113 countries, together with scores of intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations. The Conference drew attention to the need to preserve natural habitats to attain a sustained improvement in living conditions for all, and the vital importance of international cooperation in the achievement of this goal. The emphasis was on solving environmental problems, but social, economic and developmental factors were not ignored.

The Stockholm Declaration adopted at the conference lays down the principles of environmental protection and development, as well as practical recommendations for their implementation. It may be regarded as one of the foundation stones of the international policy that would come to be known as “sustainable development.” The conference led in the same year to the establishment of the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP), based in Nairobi, Kenya.

“Our purpose here is to reconcile man’s legitimate, immediate ambitions with the rights of others, with respect for all life-supporting systems, and with the rights of generations yet unborn.”

Maurice Strong, first UNEP Executive Director, speaking during the 1972 Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment

Our Common Future (Brundtland Commission) – 1987

In 1983, the United Nations Secretary-General requested Gro Harlem Brundtland to head a commission to review environmental and developmental issues. In 1987, the Brundtland Commission's report, "Our Common Future" declared that "a new development path was required, one that sustained human progress not just in a few places for a few years, but for the entire planet for the distant future." The report also used the term "sustainable development", which it defined as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs." It called for renewed and reinforced efforts to eliminate widespread poverty. The report emphasised the importance of international cooperation, urging "new dimensions of multilateralism" to achieve sustainable human progress.

United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Earth Summit) - 1992

This conference, held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, was attended by over 10,000 delegates, including 116 heads of State and 1,400 NGOs, and was covered by over 9,000 journalists. It resulted in the Rio Declaration, Agenda 21, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, the Convention on Biological Diversity and the Statement on Forest Principles.

The Earth Summit – also referred to as UNCED – reinforced the Brundtland Commission's declaration of the interdependence of environment and development, stating in Agenda 21: "Integration of environment and development concerns and greater attention to them will lead to the fulfilment of basic needs, improved living standards for all, better protected and managed ecosystems and a safer, more prosperous future." This statement is just as true today and the challenges it raises are being faced directly by African countries.

Agenda 21 is a comprehensive plan of action to be taken globally, nationally and locally by organizations within the United Nations, Governments, and relevant bodies in every area where there is human impact on the environment. Agenda 21, the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development, and the Statement of Principles for the Sustainable Management of Forests were adopted by more than 178 Governments at the Summit.

The Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) was set up in December 1992 to ensure effective follow-up of the Earth Summit, involving monitoring and reporting on the implementation of agreements at local, national, regional and international levels. It was agreed that a five year review of progress made by the Earth Summit would be carried out in 1997 by the United Nations General Assembly, meeting in special session. The full implementation of Agenda 21, the programme for further implementation of Agenda 21 and the commitments to the Rio principles, were strongly reaffirmed at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) held in Johannesburg, South Africa from 26 August to 4 September 2002.

Agenda 21 deals with the pressing issues of the day, and also aims at preparing the world for the challenges of the century. It reflects a global consensus and political commitment at the highest level with regard to development and environment cooperation. The main responsibility for its successful implementation lies with the Governments themselves, whose national strategies, plans, policies and processes are of paramount importance. These national efforts must also be supported and reinforced by international cooperation, in which context the United Nations system has a key role to play. The contributions of the various international, regional and subregional organizations should be actively encouraged, together with extensive participation by the public, the non-governmental organizations and other relevant groups.

<http://www.un.org/esa/earthsummit>, www.un.org/esa/sustdev/agenda21.htm

Rio+5 – 1997

The special session of the general Assembly to review and appraise the implementation of Agenda 21 – known as Rio+5 or Earth Summit+5 – was organized in 1997, five years after the Earth Summit, by the United Nations General Assembly to review progress in the implementation of the Rio goals, and to agree on measures to deal with the obstacles that were impeding full implementation. The session noted that, “since 1992, sustainable development has been more widely accepted as an integrating concept that seeks to unify and bring together economic, social and environmental issues in a participatory process of decision making.” It was felt that real progress had been made towards establishing a

conceptual framework for sustainable development planning. The importance of Rio+5 was that it provided a holistic evaluation of the problems, which served as a sound basis for future planning.

<http://www.un.org/esa/earthsummit>

Millennium Summit – 2000

In September 2000, the United Nations General Assembly held the Millennium Summit to confront the grave issues facing humankind in the new millennium. This summit resulted in the Millennium Declaration, which called for the prudent management of all living species and natural resources in a sustainable manner, and for a move away from unsustainable patterns of consumption and production. The Millennium Declaration set several goals and targets that have since become known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

<http://www.un.org/millennium>

Malmö Ministerial Declaration, 2000

A special session of the UNEP Governing Council was held in Malmö, Sweden, in May 2000. The resulting Malmö Ministerial Declaration stated the urgent need for reinvigorated international cooperation and called for the increased mobilization of domestic and international resources towards sustainable development goals. The key recommendation of the declaration was to “review the requirements for a greatly strengthened institutional structure for international environmental governance based on an assessment of future needs for an institutional architecture that has the capacity to effectively address wide-ranging environmental threats in a globalizing world.” The Declaration further affirmed that, to that end, the role of UNEP should be strengthened and its financial base broadened and made more predictable.

http://www.unep.org/malmo/malmo_ministerial.htm

World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) – 2002

WSSD, also known as Rio+10, reviewed the implementation of the goals of the Earth Summit with a view to renewing, at the highest political level, the global commitment to sustainable development. Prior to the summit, Kofi Annan had put forward the so-called WEHAB initiative, proposing that the summit give priority to problems connected with water, energy, health, agriculture and biodiversity. Over 30,000 representatives of State and non-State sectors attended, making WSSD the largest United Nations meeting in history. The summit resulted in the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation, which sets out several specific targets connected with poverty, hunger, drinking water, marine protected areas and biodiversity.

www.johannesburgsummit.org



Recommended Reading

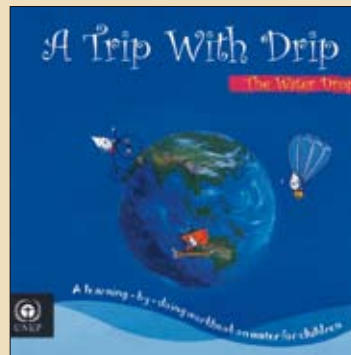
Trip with Drip the Water Drop: A Learning-by-doing Workbook on Water for Children

Environmental issues are best taught and learnt by experience and through activities. Action towards improving and protecting the environment, however small, make a difference. And children are the best ambassadors for our planet.

Produced as a workbook, CD, and webversion, this colourful package contains basic facts, interesting information, and several “learning by doing” activities on various aspects of water. The package communicates both the quantity and quality aspects of water that are of immediate concern to all. More importantly, it carries the message that every one can play a role in conserving this resource. The web version is available on the UNEP website www.unep.org/training. A multimedia system is required to run the CD. A Trip with the Drip - The Water Drop, is available in English, Japanese and French. It was designed, developed and produced by UNEP in collaboration with (CEE) Centre for Environment Education, India.

Year of publication: 2005.

ISBN: 92-807-2581-5



X. Major environmental institutions in Africa

A. African Ministerial Conference on the Environment

The African Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN) is a permanent forum where African ministers of the environment can discuss matters of relevance to the environment of the continent. AMCEN was established in 1985 when African ministers met in Egypt and adopted the Cairo Programme for African Cooperation. This conference is convened every second year. Its mandate is to provide advocacy for environmental protection in Africa; to ensure that basic human needs are met adequately and in a sustainable manner; to ensure that social and economic development is realized at all levels and to ensure that agricultural activities and practices meet the food security needs of the region.

AMCEN has continued to support important political developments related to the environment, including multilateral environmental agreements. AMCEN led the process behind the development of the NEPAD environment initiative and is now guiding its implementation.

The Ministerial Conference prompted and encouraged the preparation of the two comprehensive regional reports on the state of Africa's environment, *Africa Environment Outlook (AEO I and II)* drawn up by UNEP. The AEO process has been adopted by AMCEN as its instrument for monitoring and reporting on the environment. In addition, AMCEN successfully facilitated the revision of the 1968 Africa Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (Algiers Convention).

Measures are being taken to strengthen the linkages between AMCEN and the region's two marine and coastal conventions: the Nairobi Convention and Abidjan Convention.

AMCEN has continued to monitor closely the implementation of those environmental conventions established in furtherance of the Earth Summit in 1992. These include the Convention on Biological Diversity and its Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety; the Convention



to Combat Desertification; and the Framework Convention on Climate Change and its Kyoto Protocol.

Institutional arrangements

The supreme body of AMCEN is the Conference, comprising African ministers responsible for the environment. The ministers decided at the first session of AMCEN that the Conference would meet every two years, and that a Bureau would be established to act on its behalf between meetings. The UNEP Regional Office for Africa serves as the secretariat to AMCEN.

Since the first session of AMCEN, a number of programmes and initiatives have been developed to facilitate the effective implementation of its mandate to achieve environmental protection in Africa. The most significant of these are the regional scientific and technical committees and the network of national focal points, which have been working with limited success on various thematic issues to advance the objectives of AMCEN in the region.

Achievements and challenges

AMCEN has been instrumental in advancing the environmental agenda in Africa in several areas. These include:

- Highlighting environmental issues at all levels of society including the linkages with poverty reduction, human and animal health, trade, water conservation, forestry management, river basin management, etc;
- Providing a forum for the exchange of views and building consensus on issues of common concern among policy makers at national, subregional, regional and global levels;
- Providing a channel for the expression of Africa's environmental concerns to other regions and to the global community;
- Acting as the legitimate voice of Africa in environmental matters;
- Building a network of ministers for the environment in Africa and

- Producing a number of publications to assist with the dissemination of environmental information in Africa.

AMCEN has also continued to give firm political guidance on the multilateral environmental agreements, paying particular attention to the implementation of the post-1992 Earth Summit environmental conventions as well as the World Summit on Sustainable Development.

AMCEN, however, faces many challenges. These include:

- Difficulties in securing sustainable financing for the implementation of its activities;
- Harmonising regional and global environmental issues in such a way as to ensure that they receive adequate attention at national and subregional levels;
- Translating global environmental concerns into practical, feasible and achievable programmes of action at national, subregional and regional levels.

www.unep.org/roa/Amcen

B. African Ministers' Council on Water

Water situation

An adequate supply of clean water is the most important precondition for sustaining human life, for maintaining ecological systems that support all life and for achieving sustainable development. Water is the key natural resource throughout Africa. It is abundant in Africa on a regional scale but unevenly distributed. Although a few African countries do enjoy high annual averages of water per person, many already are or soon will be in conditions of water-stress (2,000 m³ or less per person annually) or of scarcity (1,000 m³ or less per person annually) where the population cannot be sustained using available water resources. Given current population projections, over 400 million people are expected to be living in not less than 17 water- scarce African countries by the year 2010. Their lack of water will severely constrain food production, ecosystem protection and economic development.

Throughout Africa the allocation of water is often unfairly manipulated by man. With recurring drought and chronic water shortages in many areas, the majority of African countries and people pay an increasingly high price for water or the lack of it. The highest price is often paid by the poor majority and this can be measured in terms of money spent to buy small quantities of water, calories expended to fetch water from distant sources, impaired health, diminished livelihoods and even lost lives. Today, over 300 million people in Africa still do not have reasonable access to safe water. Even more lack adequate sanitation.

Aquatic species, habitats and ecosystems are also at risk. The increasing demand for water throughout Africa to support greater agricultural productivity, industrial expansion and urban growth, and to meet human needs means that there is less water available for maintaining aquatic ecosystems and the many other species and environmental services they support.

Although water in Africa is crucial for sustainable national development it is rarely confined neatly within the boundaries of a single country. With over 50 major international water basins in Africa, most water supplies are shared by two or more countries. Most international basins are not governed by agreements on equitable use or environmental protection and few have effective institutional arrangements for consultation or cooperation. There is a lack of procedures for avoiding or resolving international disputes over water.

The Ministers responsible for water resources from 41 African countries met in Abuja, Nigeria, on 29 and 30 April 2002 and decided to form the African Ministers' Council on Water (AMCOW) primarily to promote cooperation, security, social and economic development and poverty eradication among member States through managing water resources and providing water supply services.

Mission and objectives of AMCOW

The mission of AMCOW is to provide political leadership, policy direction and advice on the provision, use and management of water resources for sustainable social and economic development and the maintenance of African ecosystems.

The functions of AMCOW are:

- To continue to monitor the state of Africa's water resources and to promote activities of common interest to Africa.
- To facilitate regional and international co-operation through the co-ordination of policies and actions amongst African countries regarding water resources issues.
- To support trans-national co-operation on water- related issues through the development of common positions on matters of global concern, and to encourage co-operation in the implementation of relevant conventions and international agreements.
- To encourage mechanisms that will promote best practices in water policy reforms, integrated water resources management, food security, water supply and sanitation and assist in the implementation of national, regional and subregional programmes.
- To provide a forum for dialogue with United Nations agencies and other partners on water programmes.
- To promote participation in regional studies on climate change, develop observation networks, encourage information exchange and set up strategies for the management of water resources in time of drought and floods and develop policies and strategies to eliminate the water crisis in Africa.
- To ensure transparency in the financing of the water sector in African countries and seek additional funding.

www.amcow.org

African Water Facility (AWF): this is an initiative led by AMCOW to mobilize financial resources for water resources development in Africa. The African Development Bank is hosting the facility at the request of AMCOW. The primary goal of AWF is to help reduce poverty and promote development in Africa by improving access to water supply and sanitation within the context of the Africa Water Vision and based on the principles of integrated water resources management (IWRM). The facility has been developed as a specific contribution to the achievement of the MDGs and targets and, in particular, the target “to reduce by one half, by the year 2015, the proportion of people who do not have access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation”.

AWF was legally established by the Board of Governors of the African Development Bank, at the annual meeting in Kampala on 25 May, 2004. The objective of AWF is to attract increased investment in the relevant field and to use those funds to achieve the national and regional water sector targets. This can be achieved by: making the environment more attractive to potential investors; providing direct capital investment to invite greater investment in sustainable development; focusing on integrated water resources management at the national level and transboundary water resources management at the regional level (AMCOW/NEPAD priorities).

C. New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) is a vision and strategic framework for Africa's renewal. It is a multisectoral initiative that seeks to build partnerships and promote cooperation between African countries as well as between Africa and other international groups, such as the G-8. Within Africa, an important aspect of this cooperation is the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM).

APRM has developed and adopted a coherent environment action plan and strategies to address the region's environmental challenge in an integrated manner. The NEPAD environment action plan regards better governance, poverty eradication, economic growth and income distribution as an integral part of Africa's sustainable development.

Environment initiative of NEPAD

The NEPAD environment initiative recognizes that the environment question is central to its work. It accepts that the issues surrounding the environmental question are many and complex, and that a systematic combination of initiatives is necessary to develop a coherent environmental programme. A core objective of the environment initiative is to combat poverty and contribute to social and economic development in Africa.

It has been recognised that a healthy and productive environment is a prerequisite for the *New Partnership for Africa's Development*. It is further recognised that the range of issues necessary to nurture this environmental base is vast and complex, and that a systematic combination of initiatives is necessary to develop a coherent environmental programme.

NEPAD Framework Document



The environment initiative has targeted eight programme areas for priority interventions:

Combating land degradation, drought and desertification: Land is the critical resource and the basis of survival for most people in Africa. Agriculture contributes about 40 per cent of the regional GDP and employs more than 60 per cent of the labour force. Land degradation is a serious problem throughout Africa and is a threat to economic and physical survival. Key factors include escalating soil erosion, declining fertility, salinization, soil compaction and pollution by agrochemicals and desertification. As the work of NEPAD covers the whole region, it follows that the action plan to address land degradation, desertification and drought under NEPAD should be based on regional and subregional action programmes under the Convention to Combat Desertification for Africa.

Wetland conservation: This involves the implementation of African best practices on wetland conservation, where social and ecological benefits are derived from private sector

investment in this area. Wetlands in Africa sustain rural livelihoods across large parts of the continent. Their functions include maintenance of the water table by facilitating the movement of large volumes of water into underground aquifers, thus recharging the water table. They also prevent floods and erosion by slowing surface runoff and reducing overflow into riverbanks downstream, which avoids a build-up of erosive flood conditions.

Wetlands play an important role in storm protection, water purification and micro-climate stabilization. They provide a habitat for various species and for mangroves and other wood products, which are harvested for fuel, timber and medicinal purposes. They are extremely important to local economies and to many communities where fish is almost the sole source of animal protein. Mats, baskets and thatching material are derived from grasses and reeds in wetlands all over Africa. The provision of other life-supporting materials such as pasture for livestock, particularly during the dry season, and clean and reliable sources of water for human consumption, agriculture and industry are also among the services provided by wetlands.

Invasive alien species: Assistance is being sought in the struggle to prevent and control invasive alien species which, as a contributing factor to poverty and a primary cause of species loss and ecosystem decline, pose a real threat to sustainable development. Such assistance, which could take the form of labour-intensive initiatives, is critical both for the preservation of the ecosystems and for economic well-being. The prevention, control and management of invasive alien species will contribute significantly to Africa's economic recovery and development, and the goal of the programme dealing with this issue is to minimize the impact of invasive alien species on Africa's people, economies and ecological systems.

Coastal management: Recommendations on best practices should be made, from which a wide-ranging programme can be drawn up for the maximum protection and sensible utilization of coastal resources. Africa's coastal ecosystems and marine biodiversity contribute significantly to the economies of its countries, mainly through fishing and tourism, which constitute a major source of livelihood for many households. Coastal and

marine resources contribute considerably to the revenue of the countries of the region, and the fisheries sector is also a significant employer.

In all, 70 per cent of the world's fisheries are considered over-exploited. There has been a sharp decline in the catch rate along Africa's coast. Moreover, marine and coastal resources are under increasing threat from development-related activities. As much as 38 per cent of the African coastline of 40,000 km, including 68 per cent of marine protected areas, is considered to be under serious threat. The uncontrolled urbanization of the coastal zone is a major cause of such degradation. In some cases, marine pollution from major coastal cities has actually reached toxic levels.

Global warming: The initial focus will be on monitoring and regulating the impact of climate change. Africa accounts for 14 per cent of the world's population. Nine out of ten persons in Africa, however, have no access to electricity and three quarters of their energy comes from traditional fuels. Consequently, Africa's emissions of climate-change inducing carbon dioxide are still low, estimated to be only 3.5 per cent of the world's total. In addition, Africa's vast forest reserves serve as a significant sink for carbon dioxide and thus play an important role in alleviating and balancing the emissions of industrialized countries.

Although Africa has not historically contributed to climate change and its forests have played the role of a significant sink for the carbon emitted by industrialized countries, it is predicted that the continent will be the most affected by the adverse effects of climate change, as many aspects of African economies are still sensitive to climatic hazards.

Cross-border conservation areas: This linked initiative seeks to build on the actions now being taken, seeking partnerships within countries to create employment by boosting conservation and tourism. Africa's natural resources, like those of other continents, are not confined to national borders. Accordingly, sustainable natural resource management requires a coordinated transboundary policy and it is important that any action taken should be in conformity with existing agreements upheld by the countries concerned.

Transboundary collaboration on the sustainable use, conservation and management of natural resources can provide great economic and conservation benefits; much greater than could be achieved by countries working in isolation. A transboundary approach to the sustainable use and conservation of natural resources within the Environment Initiative of NEPAD should be seen as a way of furthering existing national initiatives and should, where possible, build on these national level initiatives.

Environmental governance: This relates to securing the institutional, legal, planning, training and capacity-building requirements that underpin all of the above.

Financing. A carefully structured and fair financing system is a necessity.

NEPAD Environment Initiative Action Plan: available at

http://dgef.unep.org/publications/nepad_publications/radBC8B1.doc

D. African Round Table on Sustainable Consumption And Production (ARSCP)

ARSCP is a regional coordinating institution established by a charter adopted by the third African Round Table on Sustainable Consumption and Production (ARSCP-3) in Casablanca, Morocco, on 18 May 2004 and registered as a non-profit-making NGO under the laws of the United Republic of Tanzania on 6 September 2004.

the United Republic of Tanzania hosts the secretariat for ARSCP with the country's Cleaner Production Centre currently serving as the interim secretariat. The vision of ARSCP is to achieve sustainable development for African countries while making an effective contribution to poverty reduction, the improvement of well being and the protection and conservation of the environment.

The mission of ARSCP is to promote the development of national and regional capacities for the effective promotion and implementation of sustainable consumption and production principles and to serve as the regional clearinghouse for sustainable consumption and production activities in the Africa region.

The overall objective of the ARSCP is to facilitate the development of national and regional capacities for sustainable consumption and production and to promote the effective implementation of the concepts and tools of sustainable consumption and production in African countries. The specific targets of ARSCP within this overall objective are:

- To promote the establishment of national cleaner production centres (NCPCs) or sustainable consumption and production promoting institutions (SCPs) in countries where they do not exist and to facilitate support to strengthen existing such centres and institutions in African countries;
- To facilitate the further integration of the concepts and principles of sustainable consumption and production in national policy frameworks in the region;
- To provide the necessary support for the development, effective transfer and assimilation of environmentally sound technologies that are of particular relevance to African economies;
- To encourage specialization and facilitate information exchange and experience sharing between SCPs and individual experts working within the region and at international level;
- To strengthen cooperation between NCPCs and SCPs in African countries and UNEP/UNIDO and other international organizations and NCPCs in other regions; and
- To promote the development and integration of the sustainable cleaner production curriculum in educational institutions in the region.

ARSCP is the principal technical institution entrusted with the further development and implementation of the African 10 Year Framework Programme on Sustainable Consumption and Production and is currently serving as the Vice-Chair of the Marrakech Task Force on Cooperation with Africa for the 10-Year Framework Programme, which is led by Germany.

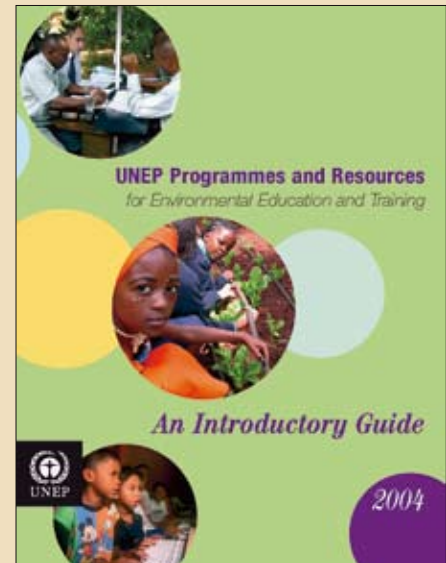
www.arscp.org

UNEP Programmes and Resources for Environmental Education and Training: An Introductory Guide

This guide showcases some of UNEP's many programmes and resources that support the important work of environmental education and training. It contains details of courses in the UNEP Environmental Leadership Programme, UNEP networks for environmental training, UNEP's commitment to supporting environmental action learning activities that link schools with their communities, training programmes for women as managers of natural resources, and examples of UNEP's public education programmes in newspapers and television. These examples come from countries and regions around the world; from Finland to southern Africa, from Latin America and the Caribbean to Australia, and from the Himalayas to the USA. This guide also provides details of some of the many books, multimedia materials and web sites that UNEP has prepared to support environmental education and training.

Year of publication: 2004.

ISBN: 92-807-2434-7



XI. Reporting on the environment

To be an environmental reporter, it is necessary to have an understanding of scientific language and practice, knowledge of historical environmental events, the ability to keep abreast of environmental policy decisions and the work of environmental organizations, a general understanding of current environmental concerns, and the ability to communicate all of that information to the public in such a way that it can be easily understood, despite its complexity.

Tracking multilateral environment agreements

The tools available to monitor international environmental agreements have changed dramatically. International environmental policy has continued to evolve, and use of the internet has risen dramatically.

Websites on MEAs generally provide an abundance of information on negotiated texts, official documents, signature and ratification status, supporting analysis, newsletters, and educational materials related to any given treaty. In addition, common search engines such as Google and Yahoo generally do a good job of finding these sites when given the formal name of the treaty.

Many people are interested in browsing the full range of existing agreements. This style of research is best served by searching collections of treaties and agreements. Several organizations have constructed somewhat idiosyncratic collections tailored to their own specific purposes.

ECOLEX, or the Environmental Law Information System, is a joint effort by IUCN, FAO and UNEP. In ECOLEX, users can search by subject, key word, State, place and date of adoption, geographic or institutional scope, depository, and free text. Each treaty record contains links to a summary and full text of the treaty (where possible), a matrix describing the signature and ratification status, subject headings, the geographic or institutional scope

"A well informed public is necessary if we in the United Nations are to succeed..."

*Boutros-Boutros
Ghali, United Nations
Secretary-General
1992 - 1996*

of the treaty, the original language of the treaty and those into which it has been translated, place and date of adoption, citation to an authoritative source, references from or to other treaties, references from literature, references from international soft law and key words. Maps with the signature and ratification status for each of the treaties listed in ECOLEX are available from UNEP-Arendal

<http://maps.grida.no/scripts/esrimap>
www.ecolex.org

Environmental Treaties and Resource Indicators Service starts with the same core set of information as ECOLEX. It then supplements the collection of treaty texts with additional texts and status information from the Tufts University Multilaterals Project, the Antarctic Cooperative Research Centre and the Ramsar Convention Bureau. The database also integrates time series indicators from the World Resources Institute and Freedom House International. As a result, users can answer questions such as, “What are the values of selected national resource indicators for all States that are (or are not) parties to a particular treaty at a given time?” and “Based on the value of selected national resource indicators, which States are parties to a particular treaty or treaties?”

<http://sedac.ciesin.org/entri>
<http://fletcher.tufts.edu/multilaterals>
www.antcrc.utas.edu.au/antcrc
www.ramsar.org

ENTRI, another very valuable site for environmental treaties, may be found at the following Web address:

<http://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/entri/>

FAOLEX, which is maintained by FAO, contains treaties, laws, and regulations on food, agriculture, and renewable natural resources worldwide. Users can search by subject (agriculture, animals, environment, food, fisheries, forestry, land, plants, water, or wildlife and biodiversity), country, region, year, key words, words from the title, type of text

(international agreement, legislation, regulation, or miscellaneous), and language of record. Each record contains the formal title, a list of signatories, the date of the text, notes related to the entry into force, links to the full text of the document, comments, an abstract, and keyword descriptors. This database contains more than 670 international agreements.

Additional treaty collections include the Yearbook of International Cooperation on Environment and Development, the Internet Guide to International Fisheries Law and the European Centre for Nature Conservation's Guide to International Nature Conservation Policy and Legislation. In addition, the International Institute for Sustainable Development provides concise daily reporting on most major international environmental negotiations and the American Society of International Law provides an excellent chapter on international environmental law in its Guide to Electronic Resources for International Law.

www.asil.org/resource/envl.htm

<http://faolex.fao.org/faolex>

www.ngo.grida.no/ggynet

www.oceanlaw.net/guide

www.ecnc.nl/doc/europe/legislat/conventi

www.iisd.ca/linkages

Navigating the environment sites of the United Nations

Beginning with the 1972 Conference on the Human Environment, the United Nations has served as a catalyst for international environmental policy. Information about its activity in this area is now available via the Internet.

The obvious place to start is the United Nations Home Page. This entrance provides basic information about the structure and work of the UN. It also provides links to each of its principal programme areas (peace and security, economic and social development, human rights, humanitarian affairs, and international law) and to related services including press releases, publication catalogues, and conference information. The bulk of United Nations

environment activities fall under the heading of “Economic and Social Development.” This is where links can be found to the United Nations Environment Programme and the Commission on Sustainable Development.

The UNEP site provides basic organizational information, milestone documents such as Agenda 21 and the 1997 Nairobi Declaration on the future of UNEP, and links to the secretariats of UNEP-sponsored conventions, such as the Convention on Biodiversity, CITES, the Framework Convention on Climate Change and regional seas conventions.

Several UNEP offices maintain their own websites that supplement the basic information provided by the central site. The Geneva office provides access to the International Registry of Potentially Toxic Chemicals, the Information Unit for Conventions and the Global Resources Information Database (GRID), which specializes in environment-related geospatial databases. Norway’s GRID office specializes in state-of-the-environment reports. The North American GRID office concentrates on environmental disaster response and satellite remote sensing. GRID-Warsaw focuses on environmental conditions in Central and Eastern Europe.

The World Conservation Monitoring Centre is concerned with biological diversity and conservation biology. The Commission on Sustainable Development focuses on the implementation of Agenda 21 and related materials. It also includes the documents issued by Earth Summit+5 conference. Virtually all United Nations agencies and programmes deal with one or another aspect of the environment. A comprehensive listing of United Nations websites can be found at <http://www.unsystem.org/> and <http://www.undcp.org/unlinks.html>.

www.un.org/esa/sustdev

www.biodiv.org

www.cites.org

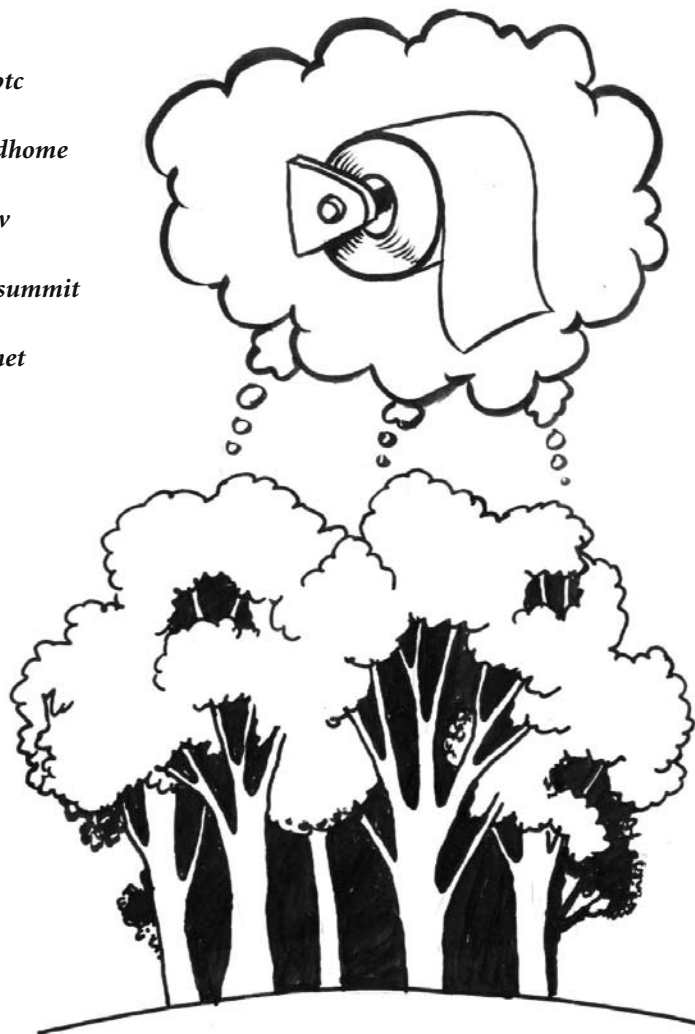
www.cms.int

www.ramsar.org

www.unfccc.int

www.unccd.int

www.unep.ch/seas
www.unep.ch
<http://irptc.unep.ch/irptc>
www.unep.ch/iuc
www.grid.unep.ch/gridhome
www.grida.no
<http://grid2.cr.usgs.gov>
www.unep-wcmc.org
www.un.org/esa/earthsummit
www.unep.org/dec
www.svs-unepibmdb.net



EET Website

<http://www.unep.org/training>

UNEP's Environmental Education and Training has since the beginning of 2006 embarked on a mission to avail information-rich content of UNEP-wide resources and opportunities in environmental education and training to the end-users via the Internet. The all-new, completely revamped and beautifully designed website for Environmental Education and Training is now available online. The website offers new enhancements and features covering topical issues in education for sustainable development and the environmental education and training events at the national, regional and global levels.

Please take a few moments to visit the website at <http://www.unep.org/training>, and let us know what you think. Each comment and suggestion shall be carefully considered, so be assured your efforts won't be in vain. We want the site to work well for you. It's our way of saying thanks for taking valuable time to share your opinions and insight. After all, you're the reason it exists!



X. Conclusion

Environmental reporting is a skill that requires a holistic approach to environmental issues. As the environmental conscience of the United Nations, UNEP has a wide array of programmes that address key environmental issues. This handbook has highlighted these issues and provided an overview from *Africa Environment Outlook 2 – Our Environment, Our Wealth (AEO-2)*.

AEO-2 sees Africa's environmental resources as an asset for the region's development. The report highlights the opportunities presented by the natural resource base to support development and the objectives of the African Union and NEPAD. The report underlines the need to ensure sustainable livelihoods, and the importance of environmental initiatives in supporting them. Emphasis is put on what should and can be done (even with existing constraints) with those environmental assets that remain rather than focusing on those that have already been lost.

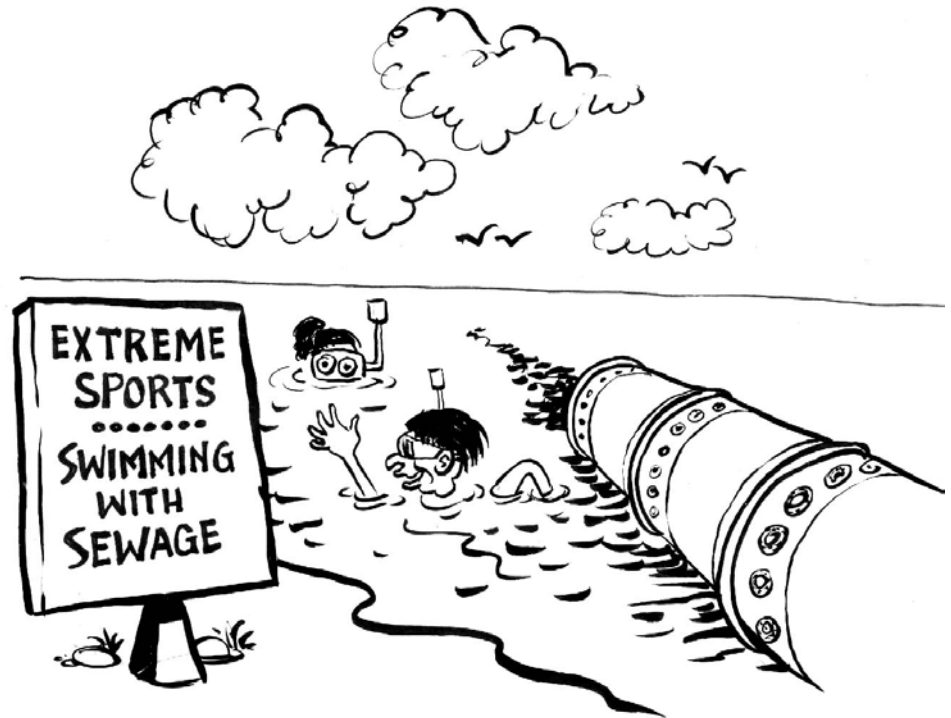
Sustainable development has thrust the environment into the heart of developmental issues, making the sustainable usage of natural resources a global priority and concern. Against this background, environmental reporting has steadily gained prominence and importance.

Africa requires special media attention. This is necessitated in part by the region's wealth of natural resources and the diversity of social and economic challenges that threaten to undermine these resources. A clear understanding of such environmental dynamics will greatly enrich media reporting of this continent. This handbook has sought to provide African journalists with the information resources that they need for factual and readable reporting.

Environmental conventions are born out of intense negotiations between sovereign countries. These conventions can make the difference between environmental health and environmental decline. This is especially true for Africa where human vulnerability to environmental change remains precariously high. This handbook has provided journalists

with a concise and informative guide on conventions and filled in the background to those conventions.

Africans in general and African journalists in particular, have a duty to ensure that Africa's environment is reported on accurately and professionally. It is to be hoped that this handbook will leave them better equipped to fulfil this vital duty.



Appendices

I. Information resources on Africa

This section highlights some of the resources available on the Internet relating to sustainable development in Africa.	
UNEP Regional Office for Africa	http://www.unep.org/roa
Africa Environment Outlook process	http://www.unep.org/dewa/africa
Global Environment Outlook Process	http://www.unep.org/geo
UNEP Africa portal	http://africa.unep.net/ provides access to a wide variety of complementary materials, including country profiles, graphics and statistics, maps, case studies, and regional treaties and conventions.
United Nations Economic Commission for Africa	http://www.uneca.org/ hosts programmes on sustainable development and population information. (http://www.uneca.org/popia).
United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs	http://www.un.org/esa/africa maintains the Office of the Special Adviser on Africa.
United Nations Department of Political Affairs	http://www.un.org/Depts/dpa/africa supports a number of activities throughout Africa
African Union	http://www.africa-union.org
Intergovernmental Authority for Development	http://www.igad.org
Southern African Development Community	http://www.sadc.int
New Partnership for Africa's Development	http://www.nepad.org
Afrobarometer public opinion surveys	http://afrobarometer.org
Africover land cover initiative	http://www.africover.org
Africa Data Dissemination Service	http://igskmncnwb015.cr.usgs.gov/adds
News about sustainable development and environmental affairs in Africa	http://allafrica.com/sustainable http://allafrica.com/environment
Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa	http://www.jsd-africa.com
List of academic journals focused on Africa	http://www.ajol.info

II. United Nations system

United Nations System Chief Executives Board for Coordination (CEB) – New York, United States of America	http://ceb.unsystem.org
Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty Organization (CTBTO) (Preparatory Commission) – Vienna, Austria	www.ctbto.org
United Nations CyberSchoolBus – New York	http://cyberschoolbus.un.org
Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) – Addis Ababa, Ethiopia	www.uneca.org
Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) – Geneva, Switzerland	www.unece.org
Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) – Santiago, Chile	www.eclac.org
Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) – Bangkok, Thailand	www.unescap.org
Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA) – Beirut, Lebanon	www.escwa.org.lb
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) – Rome, Italy	www.fao.org
Global Programme on Globalization, Liberalization and Sustainable Human Development [UNCTAD-UNDP] – Geneva	www.unctad-undp.org
High Level Committee on Management (HLCM) – Geneva	http://ceb.unsystem.org/hlcm
High Level Committee on Programmes (HLCP) – Geneva	http://ceb.unsystem.org/hlcp
Former Inter-Agency Committee on Sustainable Development (IACSD) – New York	http://ceb.unsystem.org/former.ACC/iacsd.htm
Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality (IANWGE) (formerly IACWGE) – New York	http://ceb.unsystem.org/former.ACC/iacwge.htm
Inter-Agency Procurement Services Office (IAPSO) – Copenhagen, Denmark	www.iapso.org
Inter-Agency Working Group on Evaluation (IAWG) – New York	www.uneval.org
International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) – Vienna	www.iaea.org
International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) [World Bank Group] – Washington DC, United States of America	www.worldbank.org/html/extdr/backgrd/ibrd
International Bureau of Education (IBE) [UNESCO] – Geneva	www.ibe.unesco.org
International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology (ICGEB) [UNIDO] – Trieste, Italy	www.icgeb.org

International Centre for Science and High Technology (ICS) [UNIDO] – Trieste	www.ics.trieste.it
International Centre for Settlement of Investment Disputes (ICSID) [World Bank Group] – Washington	www.worldbank.org/icsid
Abdus Salam International Centre for Theoretical Physics (ICTP) [UNESCO/IAEA] – Trieste	www.ictp.trieste.it
International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) – Montreal, Canada	www.icao.int
International Civil Service Commission (ICSC) – New York	http://icsc.un.org
International Computing Centre (ICC) – Geneva	www.unicc.org
International Court of Justice (ICJ) – The Hague, Netherlands	www.icj-cij.org
International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY) – The Hague	www.un.org/icty
International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda (ICTR) – Arusha, United Republic of Tanzania	www.ict.rg
International Development Association (IDA) [World Bank Group] – Washington	www.worldbank.org/ida
International Finance Corporation (IFC) [World Bank Group] – Washington	www.ifc.org
International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) – Rome	www.ifad.org
International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) [UNESCO] – Paris, France	www.unesco.org/iiep
International Institute on Ageing (INIA) – Valetta, Malta	www.inia.org.mt
International Labour Organization (ILO) – Geneva	www.ilo.org
International Maritime Organization (IMO) – London, United Kingdom	www.imo.org
International Monetary Fund (IMF) – Washington	www.imf.org
International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) – Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic	www.un-instraw.org
International Seabed Authority (ISA) – Kingston, Jamaica	www.isa.org.jm
International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR) – Geneva	www.unisdr.org
International Telecommunication Union (ITU) – Geneva	www.itu.int/home/index.html
International Trade Centre (ITC) [UNCTAD/WTO] – Geneva	www.intracen.org
International Training Centre of the ILO (ITC/ILO) – Turin, Italy	www.itcilo.it
Joint Inspection Unit (JIU) – Geneva	www.unsystem.org/jiu

Joint Inter-Agency Meeting on Computer-Assisted Translation and Terminology (JIAMCATT) – Geneva	http://jiamcatt.unsystem.org
Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) – Geneva	www.unaids.org
Media and Peace Institute (University for Peace) – Paris	www.mediapeace.org
Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) [World Bank Group] – Washington	www.miga.org
United Nations Non-Governmental Liaison Service (NGLS) – Geneva and New York	www.un-ngls.org
Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) – Geneva and New York	http://ochaonline.un.org
Office for Outer Space Affairs (OOSA) – Vienna	www.oosa.unvienna.org
Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) – Geneva, Switzerland	www.unhcr.ch
Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (OHCR) – Geneva, Switzerland	www.unhcr.ch
Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) – The Hague	www.opcw.org
Panel of External Auditors of the United Nations, the Specialized Agencies and the International Atomic Energy Agency – New York	www.unsystem.org/auditors/external.htm
ReliefWeb [OCHA] – Geneva	http://www.reliefweb.int/
World Conservation Union (IUCN) – Gland, Switzerland	www.iucn.org
United Nations System Standing Committee on Nutrition (SCN) (formerly ACC Subcommittee on Nutrition) – Geneva	www.unsystem.org/scn
United Nations – New York	www.un.org
United Nations Atlas of the Oceans – Washington	www.oceansatlas.org
United Nations Board of Auditors – New York	www.unsystem.org/auditors
United Nations Capital Development Fund – New York	www.uncdf.org
United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) – New York	www.unicef.org
United Nations Commission on International Trade Law (UNCITRAL) – Vienna	www.un.or.at/uncitral
United Nations Common Supplier Database (UNCSD) – Oslo, Norway	www.uncsd.org
United Nations Communications Group (former JUNIC) – New York	http://ceb.unsystem.org/former.ACC/junic.htm
United Nations Compensation Commission (UNCC) – Geneva	www.unog.ch/uncc

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) – Geneva	www.unctad.org
United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) – Bonn, Germany	www.unccd.int
United Nations International Drug Control Programme (UNDCP) (now UNODC) – Vienna, Austria	www.undcp.org
United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) – New York	www.unifem.undp.org
United Nations Development Group (UNDG) – New York	www.undg.org
United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) – New York	www.undp.org
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) – Paris	www.unesco.org
United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) – Nairobi, Kenya	www.unep.org
United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) – Bonn	www.unfccc.int
United Nations Fund for International Partnerships (UNFIP) – New York	www.un.org/unfip
United Nations Geographic Information Working Group (UNGIWG) – New York	www.ungiwg.org
United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) – Nairobi	www.unhabitat.org
United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) – Vienna	www.unido.org
United Nations Information and Communication Technologies Task Force (UNICT TF) – New York	www.unicttaskforce.org
United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR) – Geneva	www.unog.ch/unidir
United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR) – Geneva	www.unitar.org
United Nations International School (UNIS) – New York	www.unis.org
United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) – Rome	www.unicri.it
United Nations Joint Staff Pension Fund (UNJSPF) – New York	www.unjspf.org
United Nations Mine Action Service – New York	www.mineaction.org
United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) (formerly UNDCP) – Vienna	www.unodc.org/unodc
United Nations Office at Geneva (UNOG) – Geneva	www.unog.ch
United Nations Office at Nairobi (UNON) – Nairobi	www.unon.org
United Nations Office at Vienna (UNOV) – Vienna	www.unvienna.org
United Nations Office for Project Services (UNOPS) – New York	www.unops.org

United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) – New York	www.unfpa.org
United Nations Postal Administration (UNPA) – Vienna	www.unpa.unvienna.org
United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) – Gaza, Palestine, and Amman, Jordan	www.un.org/unrwa
United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD) – Geneva	www.unrisd.org
United Nations Resident Coordinators Network (RCNet) – New York	www.dgo.org
United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR) – Vienna	www.unscear.org
United Nations System Chief Executives Board for Coordination (CEB) – New York	http://ceb.unsystem.org
United Nations System Network on Rural Development and Food Security [FAO/IFAD] – Rome	www.rdfs.net
United Nations System Staff College (UNSSC) – Turin	www.unssc.org
United Nations University (UNU) – Tokyo, Japan	www.unu.edu
United Nations Volunteers (UNV) – Bonn	www.unv.org
Universal Postal Union (UPU) – Bern, Switzerland	www.upu.int
University for Peace (UPEACE) – San Jose, Costa Rica	www.upeace.org
Women Watch – New York	www.un.org/womenwatch
World Bank Group – Washington	www.worldbank.org
World Food Programme (WFP) – Rome	www.wfp.org
World Health Organization (WHO) – Geneva	www.who.int
World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) – Geneva	www.wipo.int
World Meteorological Organization (WMO) – Geneva	www.wmo.ch
World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) – Madrid, Spain	www.world-tourism.org
World Trade Organization (WTO) – Geneva	www.wto.org
World Volunteer Web [UNV] – Bonn	www.worldvolunteerweb.org

III. Environmental contacts and networks

A. UNEP

Regional Office for Africa

United Nations Environment Programme, UNEP
Regional Office for Africa, Room A-120
P.O. Box 30552, Nairobi-Kenya
Tel: +254 20 7 624292
Email: roainfo@unep.org/
www.unep.org/roa

Division of Early Warning Assessment, DEWA

United Nations Environment Programme, UNEP
P.O. Box 30552, Nairobi, 00100, Kenya
Tel.: +254 20 62 4299
Fax: +254 20 62 4269
E-mail: dewa.director@unep.org/
Web: www.unep.org/dewa

Division of Communications and Public Information, DCPI

United Nations Environment Programme, UNEP
P.O. Box 30552, Nairobi, Kenya
Tel.: + 254 20 623293
Fax: +254 20 623927
E-mail: cpiinfo@unep.org/
Web: www.unep.org/dcpi

Division of Technology, Industry and Economics, DTIE

United Nations Environment Programme, UNEP
39-43, Quai Andre Citroen
75739 Paris Cedex 15, France
Tel.: +33 1 44 37 1441
Fax: +33 1 44 37 1474
E-mail: unep.tie@unep.fr

Division of Environmental Policy Implementation, DEPI

United Nations Environment Programme, UNEP
P.O. Box 30552, Nairobi 00100, Kenya
Tel.: +254 20 7 623508
Fax: +254 20 7 623927 / 624249
E-mail: depinfo@unep.org/
Web: www.unep.org/depi

Division of the Global Environment Facility, DGEF

United Nations Environment Programme, UNEP
P.O. Box 30552, Nairobi, Kenya
Tel.: +254 20 624165
Fax: +254 20 624041
E-mail: gefinfo@unep.org/
Web: www.unep.org/get/content index.htm

Division of Environmental Law and Conventions, DELC

United Nations Environment Programme, UNEP
P.O. Box 30552, Nairobi, 00100, Kenya
Tel.: +254 20 623508
Fax: +254 20 623917 / 624249
E-mail: dec@unep.org/
Web: www.unep.org/dec

Division of Regional Cooperation, DRC

United Nations Environment Programme, UNEP
P.O. Box 30552, Nairobi, 00100, Kenya
Tel.: +254 20 623519
Fax: +254 20 624270
E-mail: drc@unep.org/
Web: www.unep.org/drc

B. Ministries of environment in Africa

Algeria

Ministre de l'Aménagement du Territoire et de l'Environnement
Palais Mustapha BACHA,
6, Avenue de l'Indépendance
16035 Algiers, Algeria
Tel: (213-21) 432 813
Fax: (213-21) 432 849 / 431 245

Angola

Ministry of Urban Development and Environment
Avenida 4 de Fevereiro No. 30
C.P. 3502
Luanda, Angola
Tel: (244-2) 91508402
Fax: (244-2) 310622 / 310479

Director Général de l'Environnement
Ministère de l'Aménagement du Territoire et de l'Environnement
Palais Mustapha BACHA,
6, Avenue de l'Indépendance
16035 Algiers, Algeria
Tel: (+213-21) 432 802 / 90
Fax: (+213-21) 432 849

Benin

Ministre de l'Environnement, de l'Habitat et de l'Urbanisme
01 B.P. 3621
Cotonou, Benin
Tel: (+229) 315 596 / 312 065 / 315 058 / 314 129
Fax: (+229) 315 081

Botswana

Minister for Environment, Wildlife and Tourism
Private Bag BO 199
Gaborone, Botswana
Tel: (+267) 391 4870
Fax: (+267) 391 4861

Burkina Faso

Ministre de l'Environnement et du Cadre de Vie
03 B.P. 7044
Ouagadougou 03, Burkina Faso
Tel: (226) 311 681 / 30 77 51 / 30 63 97 / 32 40 74 / 31 16 81
Fax: (226) 316 491

Burundi

Ministre de l'Aménagement du Territoire, de
l'Environnement et du Tourisme
B.P. 631
Bujumbura, Burundi
Tel: (257) 224 979 / 22 67 18 / 221 649
Fax: (257) 228 902

Cameroon

Ministre de l'Environnement et des Forêts
B.P. 1106
Yaounde, Cameroon
Tel: (237) 222 9483
Fax: (237) 222 9489

Cape Verde

Ministry of Environment, Agriculture and Fisheries
Caixa Postal N. 115
Praia, Cape Verde
Tel: (238) 615 713
Fax: (238) 61 40 54
Email: seoa@mail.cvtelecom.cv
Sepa@mail.cvtelecom.cv

Central African Republic

Ministre du Développement Durable, du Tourisme
et de l'Artisanat chargé de l'Environnement
B.P. 686
Bangui, Central African Republic
Tel: (236) 61 59 01 / 61 56 12 / 501174 61
23 42
Fax: (236) 61 47 90 / 61 56 12 / 61 57 41

Institutions Responsible for the Environment
SEPA- Executive Secretariat for the Environment
P.O. Box 115
A/c Ministry of Agriculture
Praia, Ilha de Santiago, Cape Verde
Tel: (238) 615 716 (Secretariat)
Fax: (238) 617 611 (also as fax)
Email: sepa@mail.cvtelecom.cv
sepa@mail.cvtelecom.cv

Chad

Ministre de l'Environnement et de l'Eau
N'Djamena, Chad
Tel: (235) 52 60 12 / 52 44 60 / 52 32 55 /
52 20 99
Fax: (235) 52 38 39 / 525232
Email: dhprs@intnet.td

Comores

Ministre de la Production, de l'Environnement et
de l'Artisanat
B.P. 41
Moroni, Comores
Tel: (269) 74 46 30
Fax: (269) 74 46 32

Congo

Ministre de l'Economie Forestière et de
l'Environnement
B.P. 98
Brazzaville, Congo
Tel: (42) 814 141 / 810291 / 810295 / 812
611 / 360 121
Fax: (242) 814 136 / 814 134 / 837 150 /
812 611 / 810 330 / 815 190
Email: GrsCongo@hotmail.com

Côte d'Ivoire

Ministre de l'Environnement et du Cadre de Vie
10ème étage, Cité Administrative
20 BP 650
Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire
Tel: (225) 202 26301 / 20 22 61 35
Fax: (225) 202 22050 / 202 10495
C/o cimala2002@yahoo.fr
Cabinet Tel. (225) 20 31 50 05 / 51 or (225) 20
21 11 06
Chet de Cabinet Tel: (225) 2022 2050

Democratic Republic of the Congo

Ministère de l'Habitat, de l'Environnement et du
Tourisme
Ave ILEO No. 15
B.P. 12345
Kinshasa-Gombe, Democratic Republic of the
Congo
Tel: 243 12 34390
Fax: 243 12 33721

Djibouti

Ministre de l'Habitat, de l'Urbanisme, de
l'Environnement, de l'Aménagement du Territoire
et de l'Artisanat
B.P.11
Djibouti
Tel: (253) 35 00 06 / 358522
Fax: (253) 351 618 / 3416 18
Email: esid@telecom.net.et

Egypt

Egyptian Environmental Affairs Agency
30, Misr Helwan El-Zyraie Road
Cairo, Egypt
Tel: (202) 525 6463 / 525 6472 / 520 6463
Fax: (202) 525 6461 / 526 6016
Email: mseaoffice@cee.gov.eg

Equatorial Guinea

Ministerio de Bosques y Medio Ambiente
Malabo, Equatorial Guinea
Tel: (240-9) 3408 / 21-19
Fax: (240-9) 3408 / 2905

Eritrea

Minister
Ministry of Land, Water & Environment
P.O. Box 976
Asmara, Eritrea
Tel: (291-1) 118742 / 116265
Fax: (291-1) 123285

Ethiopia

General Manager
Environmental Protection Agency
P.O. Box 12760
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
Tel: (251-1) 46 46 06 / 186202 / 625558-62
/ 627728
624757 / 624760 / 186 181
Fax: (251-1) 610 077 / 46 48 82 / 46 48 76

Gabon

Ministre de l'Economie Forestière, des Eaux et
de la Pêche chargé de l'Environnement et de la
Protection de la Nature
B.P. 403
Libreville, Gabon
Tel: (241) 766 181 / 76 39 05
Fax: (241) 761 381 / 772 994 / 765 548 / 76
61 83

Gambia

Secretary of State
Department of State for Natural Resources
Fisheries and Environment
State House
Banjul, Gambia
Tel: (220) 227 548 / 226 747
Fax: (220) 4223 987 / 223 987
Email: osspa@gamtel.gm

Ghana

Minister of Environment and Science
P.O. Box M 232
Accra, Ghana
Tel: (+233 21) 666 049 / 662 013 / 662 533
Fax: (+ 233 21) 666 828 / 666049 / 662013

Guinea

Ministre de l'Environnement
B.P. 3118
Conakry, Guinea
Tel: (224) 41 25 13 / 46 48 50
Fax: (224) 45 15 89 / 41 61 68

Guinea-Bissau

Secretaria de Estado da Energia e dos Recursos
Naturais
QG – C.P. 399
Bissau
Guinee Bissau
Tel: (254) 221 925
Fax / phone: (245) 201 753
Fax: c/o FAO (245) 221 019
Fax: c/o IUCN: (245) 201 168

Kenya

Minister for Environment and Natural Resources
Maji House
P.O. Box 30521
Nairobi, Kenya
Tel: General (254-20) 2716 103 Ext. 42303
Tel: Direct (254-20) 2733 202 / 2711 238
(Minister)
Fax: Director – 272 02 57
Fax: General – (254-20) 2727 622
Coordinator: Tel. 27 10 172
Permanent Secretary – Tel. 2710 120
Director, National Environment Secretariat (NES)
Tel: 248851 – Direct
Tel: 243839 Ext. 232
Permanent Secretary – Water Resources,
Tel: 316186
Personal Assistant to the Minister, Tel: 2728539

Lesotho

Minister of Tourism Culture & Environment
Prime Minister's Office
P.O. Box 527
Maseru 100
Lesotho
Tel: (266-22) 31 65 74/ 31 30 34 / 31 17 67
Fax: (266-22) 31 05 06 / 310 190

Liberia

Minister
Ministry of Planning and Economic Affairs
P.O. 10/9016
1000 Monrovia 10, Liberia
Tel: (231) 2260785 / 226962
Fax: (231) 226075

Environmental Protection Agency of Liberia
4th Street, Sinkor
P.O. Box 4024
Monrovia, Liberia
Fax: 312054407127 (UNDP)
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya

Secretary
People's Committee of Environment General
Authority (EGA)
P.O. Box 83618
Tripoli, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Tel: (218-21) 427 2160 / 483 9992 / 444 84
52 / 484 0043
Mobile: Khalifa 218 91 311 1862
Fax: + 218-21 4839 991 / 490 0604
Tel: + 218 21 4870266
Email: ega@egalibya.org/
Head of Environment General Authority
P.O. Box 3639
Tripoli, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Tel: (218-21) 483 1316
Fax: (218-21) 483 9991

Madagascar

Ministre du Transport, du Tourisme et de
l'Environnement
Anosy, Antananarivo 101, Madagascar
Tel: (261-20) 224 0908
Fax: (261-20) 224 1919

Malawi

Minister
Ministry of Natural Resources and Environmental
Affairs
Private Bag 350
Lilongwe, Malawi
Tel: (+265-1) 771 111 / 787 600
Fax: (+265-1) 773 379 / 780 260
Email: natresources@malawi.net

Mali

Ministre de l'Équipement, de l'Aménagement du
Territoire, de l'Environnement et de l'Urbanisme
B.P. 1634
Bamako, Mali
Tel: (223 22) 2295168 / 222901
Fax: (223 22) 95170 / 95169 / 26298
Email: me2003@afribone.net.mlf

Mauritania

Ministre du Développement Rural et de
l'Environnement
B.P. 180
Noukacht, Mauritania
Tel: (222) 257 463 / 51 500 / 56 158
Fax: (222) 257 475

Mauritius

Minister of Environment
10th Floor, Ken Lee Tower
cr Barracks and St. Georges Street
Port Louis, Mauritius
Tel: (230) 211 1652 / 208 1944 / 208 9916
Fax: (230) 211 9455 / 212 8324
E-mail: equal@bow.intnet.mu

Morocco

Ministre
Ministère de l'Aménagement du Territoire, de
l'Urbanisme, de l'Habitat et de l'Environnement
BP 36, Avenue Elebtel-Egdal
Rabat, Morocco
Tel: (212-37) 76 35 39
Fax: (212-37) 76 35 10

Mozambique

Minister
Ministry for Coordination of Environmental Affairs
Ave. Acordos de Lusaka 2115
P.O. Box 2020
Maputo, Mozambique
Tel: (+258 1) 498 114 / 49 5409 / 496 108 /
465843 / 48/51
Fax: (+2581 1) 496 108 / 49 5409 / 466243
465849
Email: jwkacha@virconn.com

Namibia

Minister of Environment and Tourism
Private Bag 13346
Windhoek, Namibia
Tel: (+264 61) 284 2335 / 284 2333 / 284
232 / 284 2111
Fax: (+264 61) 232 057 / 240 339
E-mail: pmalima@met.gov.na

Niger

Ministre de l'Environnement et de la Lutte contre la
Desertification
B.P. 578
Niamey, Niger
Tel: (227) 734 722 / 734 782 / 73 33 29 /
736 970
Fax: (227) 73 55 91 / 724015 / 73 27 84
E-mail: direcnv@intnet.ne
direnv@intnet.ne or faune@intnet.ne

Nigeria

Minister of Environment
Federal Ministry of Environment
P.M.B. 265, Garki
Abuja, Nigeria
Tel: (234-09) 5234014 / 217 119 / 234
6596/7
Fax: (234-09) 5234014 / 52341109
Tel: (234-09) 413 6317

Rwanda

Minister for Lands, Environment, Forestry, Water
and Natural Resources
P.O. Box 3502
Kigali, Rwanda
Tel: (250) 82628 / 82623
Fax: (250) 76958 / 82627/82627
E-mail: Ministere@rwandtel.rwandal1.com

Sao Tome and Principe

Ministry of Infrastructure, Natural Resources and
Environment
Sao Tome, Sao Tome and Principe
Tel: (239 12) 25 272 / 21 437
Fax: (239 12) 26 018
E-mail: gefamb@costome.net

Seychelles

Minister for Environment
Botanical Gardens
P.O. Box 1145
Victoria
Mahe, Seychelles
Tel: (248) 321 333 / 225 701 / 22 46 44
Fax: (248) 322 113 / 322 945 22 4500
E-mail: moe@seychelles.net
E-mail: rolp@seychelles.sc

Senegal

Ministre
Ministre de la Jeunesse, de l'Environnement et de
l'Hygiène
BP 4055
Dakar, Senegal
Tel: (221) 849 7392 / 849 5901 / 822 0927
Mobile: 221 6370 193
Fax: (221) 822 2180 / 822 6212 / 822 6211

Sierra Leone

Minister
Ministry of Lands, Country Planning, Forestry and
the Environment
3rd Floor, Youyi Building
Freetown, Sierra Leone
Tel: (232-22) 240 973 / 240 146 / 240 959
Fax: (232-22) 242 013 / 240 146

South Africa

Minister
Ministry of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
Private Bag X447
Pretoria 0001, South Africa
Tel: (+27 12) 310 3611 / 310 3630
Tel: Cape Town (27-21) 465 7240
Fax: (+ 27 12) 322 0082 / 320 4746
E-mail: bburnet@ozone.pww.gov.za
E-mail: pbaloyi@ozone.pww.gov.za
E-mail: SSIGANGA@ozone.WV.GOV.za

Somalia

Minister
Ministry of Environment and Natural Disasters
Mogadishu, Somalia
Tel: (252-1) 270 0373 / 504 119 / 544 702
Fax: (252-59) 930 763 / 229 036 / 59 35611 /
225 991
E-mail: somlienvirment@yahoo.com

Sudan

Minister
Ministry of Environment and Physical Development
P.O. Box 10488
Khartoum, Sudan
Tel: (249-183) 784 279 / 781 479 / 773 832
Fax: (249-183) 787 617
E-mail: HCEN@sudanmail.net

Swaziland

Minister
Ministry of Tourism, Environment and
Communication
P.O. Box 2652
Mbabane, Swaziland
Tel: (+268) 4046420-3 / 404 6128
Fax: (+268) 404 6438 404 1719
Email: mintou@realnet.co.sz

United Republic of Tanzania

Minister of State (Environment)
Vice President's Office
P.O. Box 5380
Dar es Salaam, United Republic of Tanzania
Tel: (255 22) 2128 771 / 211 8416 / 211
3983
Fax: (255 22) 211 3856 / 211 3082 / 211
3858
Email: makamu@twiga.com

Togo

Ministre de l'Environnement et des Ressources
Forestières
B.P. 4825
Lome, Togo
Tel: (228) 221 0600 / 2210 600 / 2213 078
Fax: (228) 221 0333 / 2210 333 / 2210 600
Email: Ksadade@rdd.tg

Tunisia

Ministre de Agriculture, de l'Environnement et des
Ressources Hydrauliques
Centre Urban Nord
1080 Tunis, Tunisia
Tel: (216-71) 704 000
Fax: (216-71) 780 391
E-mail: boc@minet.gov.tn

Uganda

Minister for Water, Lands and Environment
P.O.Box 7122
Kampala, Uganda
Tel: (256-41) 253 871 / 342 931 / 3
Direct: (256-41) 259 410
Fax: (256-41) 230 891
E-mail: byenkya@mwle.go.ug
Tel: 006 41 259 410

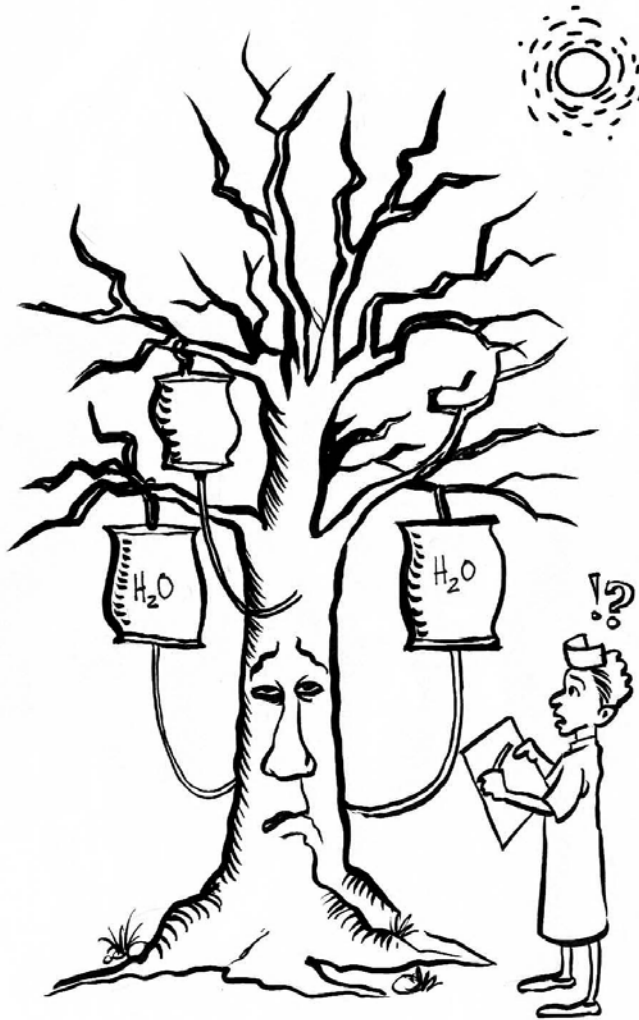
National Environment Management Authority
(NEMA)
Tel: (256 41) 251064 / 5 / 6
Fax: (256 41) 257521
E-mail: info@nemaug.org/
http: //www.nemaug.org/
Kampala, Uganda

Zambia

Minister of Tourism, Environment and Natural
Resources
P.O. Box 34011
Lusaka, Zambia
Tel: (260-1) 22 54 63 / 22 94 17 / 229 421
Fax: (260-1) 22 21 89 / 229 414
E-mail: menr@zmnet.zm
Tel: (260-1) 2528711 / 253040 / 253042 / 4
/ 2
Fax: (260-1) 252952 / 22 94 20
E-mail: menr@zamnet.zm

Zimbabwe

Minister
Ministry of Environment and Tourism
14th Floor, Karigamombe Centre
Private Bag 7753, Causeway
Harare, Zimbabwe
Tel: (263-4) 757881-5 / 751 720-2 / 753 649
Fax: (263-4) 77 94 13 / 757877 / 77 32 76
E-mail: fnheman@coweb.co.zw



Tell Them

*It is a deep wonder when you look at it
And lack words to describe it*

Yet you must search for those words

So that you can tell others what you see

Glimpses into nature enliven all who behold

Tell them what you see,

Just as you see it

Nature's voice reaches out to the discerning ear

Tell them what you hear

Just as you hear it

Nature arouses environmental feelings

Tell them what you feel

Search for the words

That come from the experience

And tell them

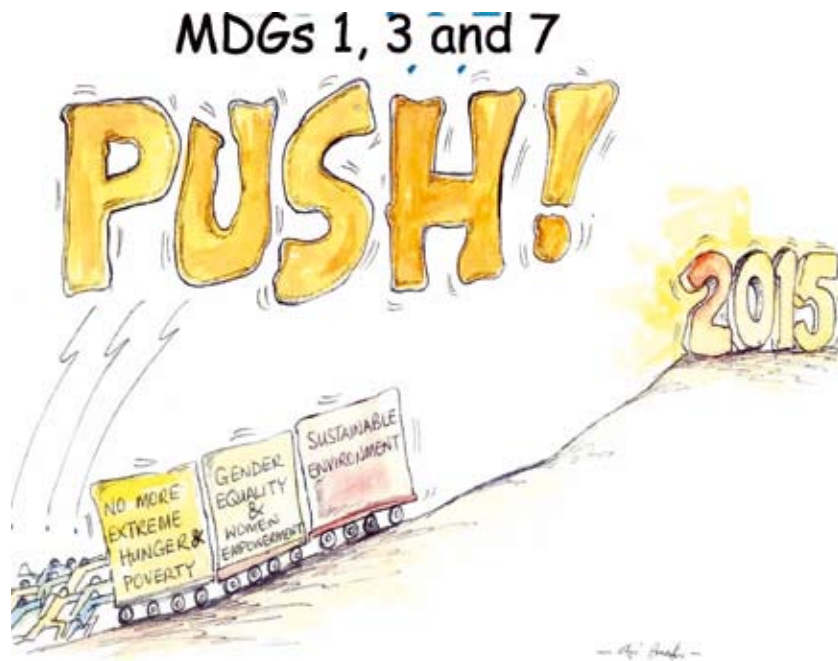
As it is

Bwak

IV. Millennium Development Goals, targets and indicators

The Millennium Development Goals represent the agenda for efforts to reduce poverty and improving livelihoods. They resulted out of the Millennium Summit of September 2000. A framework of eight goals, 18 targets and 48 indicators to measure progress towards the Millennium Development Goals were developed based on the Millennium Summit Outcome by the United Nations Secretariat and IMF, OECD and the World Bank. They are now the universally accepted benchmark for the campaign to achieve poverty eradication and sustainable development.

www.un.org/millenniumgoals



75 **TIME TO ACT-UP!**

Millennium Development Goals

Goals	Targets	Indicators & Monitors
1. Eradicated extreme poverty and hunger	1. Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day	1. Proportion of population below \$1 (1993 PPP) per day (World Bank) 2. Poverty gap ratio (incidence x depth of poverty) (World Bank) 3. Share of poorest quintile in national consumption (World Bank)
	2. Halve, between 199 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	4. Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age (UNICEF-WHO) 5. Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption (FAO)
2. Achieve universal primary education	3. Ensure that by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	6. Net enrolment ratio in primary education (UNESCO) 7. Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5 (UNESCO) 8. Literacy rate of 15–24 year olds (UNESCO)
3. Promote gender equality and empower women	4. Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education, no later than 2015	9. Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education (UNESCO) 10. Ratio of literate women to men, 15–24 years old (UNESCO) 11. Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (ILO) 12. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (IPU)
4. Reduce child mortality	5. Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015 the under-five mortality rate	13. Under-five mortality rate (UNICEF-WHO) 14. Infant mortality rate (UNICEF-WHO) 15. Proportion of 1 year-old children immunized against measles (UNICEF-WHO)

Goals	Targets	Indicators & Monitors
5. Improve maternal health	6. Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	<p>16. Maternal mortality ratio (UNICEF-WHO)</p> <p>17. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (UNICEF-WHO)</p>
6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	7. Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	<p>18. HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15–24 years (UNAIDS-WHO-UNICEF)</p> <p>19. Condom-use rate, the contraceptive prevalence rate (United Nations Population Division)</p> <p>19a. Condom use at last high-risk sex (UNICEF-WHO)</p> <p>19b. Percentage of population aged 15–24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS (UNICEF-WHO)</p> <p>19c. Contraceptive prevalence rate (United Nations Population Division)</p> <p>20. Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10–14 years (UNICEF-UNAIDS-WHO)</p>
	8. Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	<p>21. Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria (WHO)</p> <p>22. Proportion of population in malaria-risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures (UNICEF-WHO)</p> <p>23. Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis (WHO)</p>

Goals	Targets	Indicators & Monitors
7. Ensure environmental sustainability	9. Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources	24. Proportion of land area covered by forest (FAO) 25. Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area (UNEP-WCMC) 26. Energy use (kg oil equivalent) per \$1 GDP (PPP) (IEA, World Bank) 27. Carbon dioxide emissions per capita (UNFCCC, UNSD) and consumption of ozone-depleting CFCs (ODP tons) (UNEP-Ozone Secretariat) 28. Proportion of population using solid fuels (WHO)
	10. Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation	29. Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural (UNICEF-WHO) 30. Proportion of population with access to improved sanitation, urban and rural (UNICEF-WHO)
	11. By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	31. Proportion of households with access to secure tenure (UN-Habitat)

Water World: Children's Voices - An Educational Booklet on Water for Children

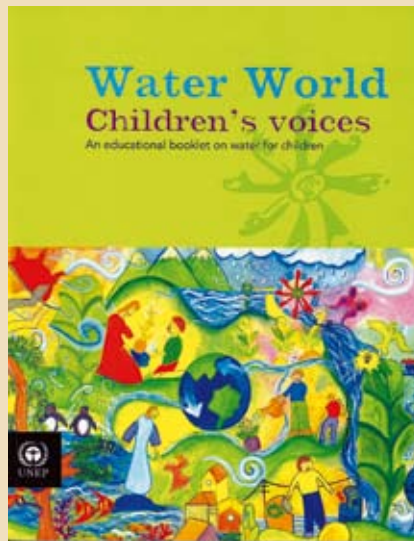
The world is running out of fresh water. Humans are depleting, polluting, and diverting the world's supply of fresh water so fast, that by 2025, unless we dramatically change our ways, two-thirds of the world's people will be living (or dying) under severe water shortages. As it is now, every eight seconds, a child dies of water-borne disease.

This educational booklet captures the world of water through the eyes of children worldwide. The narrator, 14 year-old Nthabi, from Kenya, uses her own experiences and those of her friends from all around the world to express how they feel about this valuable resource. They use pictures, poems and essays to express their description of water, the role it plays in their daily lives, its different forms of existence, and how it can be best preserved.

Water World is recommended for use in schools and environment clubs. It illustrates the importance of water in our everyday lives and introduces the various uses of water, including agriculture, industry, home and recreational use. Water World also includes examples of how to conserve water and avoid polluting water sources, and explains why freshwater resources are declining across the globe. Water World also encourages young people to participate in caring for water resources at home, through their school clubs and in their communities.

Year of publication: 2003.

ISBN: 92-807-2388-X



www.unep.org

United Nations Environment Programme
P.O. Box 30552 Nairobi, Kenya
Tel.: +254 20 762 1234
Fax: +254 20 762 3927
E-mail: unepub@unep.org
web: www.unep.org

