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WWF international as a policy actor and its involvement in promoting forest conservation

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WWF International as a Policy Actor and its Involvement in Promoting Forest Conservation

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Results from a Diploma Thesis jointly undertaken by the Chair Forest Policy and Forest Economics of the ETH and the Laboratory for Forest, Nature and Landscape of the Catholic University Leuven

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Abstract

Non-governmental organisations stand on the edge of the political arena and bring up new issues in governmental policy. Major instruments are publicity campaigns, project implementation and lobbying practices. In political discussions large NGOs contribute to the creation of international norms. The World Wide Fund for Nature is the largest private organisation in the world engaged in nature conservation. With a supporters clan of 5,8 million people and activities running in more than 100 countries, WWF has become a marked conservation movement. It co-operates with other conservation entities and has a special relationship with IUCN. IUCN is more directed towards scientific fieldwork, whereas WWF grasps the publicity and fundraising issues.

The organisation started in the sixties interested in wildlife conservation and concentrated on rescuing wildlife in Africa. But soon the Fund enlarged its approach towards plants and animals’ habitats. Later one recognised that human needs also required the necessary attention in project planning. This point of view was in a concrete form presented in the World Conservation Strategy of 1980. The new orientation directed WWF’s operations towards education, information and local participation. Activities expanded towards more complex environmental issues. Recent topics are management plans to preserve biological diversity, changing human attitudes in order to achieve sustainable consumption and tackling pollution effects of global dimension. The broadening of the conservation approach allows the organisation to deal with a wide range of ecological problems. By working out programmes on different conservation issues, WWF was able to have considerable influence at international conferences.

During the initial period, the forest topic received little attention. But halfway the seventies WWF started a world-wide forest campaign and identified the various forest types and their condition of conservation. Protected areas were established. At the beginning of the eighties the organisation continued to work on these, although more human activities were considered. Towards the nineties the conservation of forests and sustainable forest management became largely international issues. Aspects such as fair timber trade, changing systems of farmer subsidies and debt-for-nature swaps became important. This process led to increased monitoring of actions and co-operation with other organisations. Until around 1992 the issues were mainly directed towards tropical forests. The publication ‘Forest in trouble’ meant an alteration in direction. It was the start of formulating a global forest strategy. This strategy was further worked out in regional plans. It intends to develop activities on a scale corresponding to the size of the problem. Lobbying and campaigns to mould public opinion remained major tools, but policy advice increased in importance.

Key Words: non-governmental organisations; international forest policy; nature conservation; sustainable development; renewable natural resources
1. Environmental Nongovernmental Organisations as Significant Policy Actors

*The institutional framework of development* has clearly changed during the last decades. The role of the private sector and even more of the non-governmental organisations increased fundamentally. In the NGO sector, a real boom (Fig. 1) has taken place since World War II. Moreover, these groups “exist in sizeable numbers world-wide and their activities encompass virtually every field of human endeavour” (Lacey, 1988).

Figure 1: Evolution in the number of international NGOs

By definition NGOs are non-governmental and cannot substitute political decisions. NGOs can however pressure to see their programme points included in national and international politics. Although their power often remains small because they have often not yet gained a legal status, NGOs are capable to influence governmental agents. Their importance lies further in the ability of carrying out projects which states and InterGovernmental Organisations (IGOs) could not perform.

In the beginning non-governmental organisations were relatively small. However, at this moment, some groups have grown out to organisations with significant impact. Those have moved from the presumed advantageous situation of small-sized, flexible and grass roots NGOs. They are well established organisations focused on accomplishing their objectives. They arrange the necessary contacts with governments and intergovernmental organisations to achieve their purposes. These contacts have enlarged their sphere of influence on the political domain to a great extent. NGOs acting on the international stage operate on the level of ‘big’ politics. In this arena, groups are found which are oriented towards many issues. The great diversity makes a uniform classification impossible. “There are among them political, ideological, social, trade union, youth, women’s, research, cultural-educational, religious and a whole number of other organisations” (Morozov, 1980).
In starting up a process to solve a problem, NGOs direct themselves to governments, IGOs and other powerful agents (Fig. 2). They cooperate in order to find a solution. At the end, the problem is solved or the efforts have failed. The process starts once again to solve new problems or problems for which an earlier solution attempt could not be obtained.

Figure 2: The Circle of Influence

The formulation of a programme is often the first action executed by an organisation. It determines to which extent it wants to concentrate on a certain issue. Through such an approach NGOs are sometimes offering ‘alternative’ concepts. Programmes often point out ‘public’ opinion in a way political regulations can not. While respecting conventional ideas, conservation NGOs may force the prevailing system to produce the necessary corrections. Proposed and executed projects focus on ecological balances and preservation of natural resources and are related to issues such as rural development and poverty alleviation. In fact, social and economical issues can not be separated from the environmental question.

Another role is played by international NGOs in supporting other organisations. Forms of aid are not restricted to financial transfers alone; equipment and information are major components. The creation of awareness by NGOs is based upon their expertise (technical and non-technical alike). They have to explain the advantages of activities towards sustainable development and to disseminate information on how this can be achieved without economic loss or disadvantages to the people.
To pressure for shifts in the international context, NGOs concentrate on ‘lobbying’. Lobbying is often the primary occupation of NGOs by sticking their nose in hanging topics. A non-governmental organisation as such uses many ways to change decision-makers’ opinions and to bring environmental issues to public attention. Media campaigns are set up or polls executed to influence other political actors.

Governments or intergovernmental organisations may finally change their positions through the direct or indirect influence of NGOs, which is summarised as follows:

Direct influence occurs in the following situations:
- by presenting new ideas to governmental decision-makers
- through personal contact with officials and staff
- by contributing to the creation of international norms.

Indirectly, NGOs do have influence by:
- moulding public opinion to pressurise decision-makers
- providing assistance and aid
- contributing to the creation of international norms.

NGOs clearly contribute to the creation of international norms and instruments. How great their impact is, remains however uncertain. The outcome of negotiations is the result of many actors, of which NGOs are only one. Frequently their proposals are incorporated in official texts without reference to the source. Notwithstanding this lack of closing evidence of NGOs influence, it can not be denied that non-governmental organisations are by now an important element on the world scene.

A special group among the NGOs is the environmental one. The emergence of environmental NGOs goes back to some dedicated individuals who tried to rescue species from extinction and tried to bring nature treasures under protection. Famous examples are Sir J. Huxley (wrote some noticed articles on African wildlife) and P. Sarasin (founder of the first Swiss National Park in Engadine). Their attempts were often hard to achieve. If conservation is to be more effective, it needs an increased co-operation between people with similar environmental interests. A proliferation of small environmental groups in the second half of this century was the consequence. Scientific organisations concerned with nature protection are another part. They advocate whatever is essential for the well-being of nature, of which humankind is a part. NGOs proofed to be a key element in this political transformation.

A first eye-catching fact of big environmental NGOs that leads to a political transformation is their position between governments and people. This situation creates the possibility to have direct contact with the public and at the same time to negotiate with political heavyweights. Major discussion points range “from wildlife conservation to pollution abatement, source reduction, poverty alleviation and human rights, and from research to education, lobbying and project implementation.”
Some international NGOs seem to be everywhere. They are masters in drawing attention towards environmental issues, for instance, with publicity stunts, mass mailings and through world-wide media campaigns. That spreading of information makes them fearsome opponents at least for certain authorities and industrial managers. Another indicator of NGOs growing strength in world affairs is their presence at international conferences. Comparing the two United Nations Conferences held in 1972 and 1992, one can clearly see the drastic change. At the last conference NGOs did have considerable influence on the legal instruments and activities in response to environmental problems.

2. Evolution of WWF International

WWF and IUCN jointly set out policies and conservation activities. Since IUCN originated already in 1948 and contributed to WWF’s foundation, it is presented first.

2.1 The International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN)

The need of an international nature protection association was felt by many scientists in the early beginnings of the 20th century. Paul Sarasin, the Swiss pioneer in nature protection, gave the initial impetus to international conservation efforts. The establishment of a diplomatic instrument was the outcome. The war hampered its activities and in 1918 other and more urgent matters claimed public attention.

In 1928, however, the first sight of an organisation coming along, was proofed by the installation of an 'International Office for the Protection of Nature' in Brussels. After Conferences held at Basel in 1946 and at Brunnen in 1947 (both in Switzerland), the creation of an International Union for the Protection of Nature was decided. The international entity, established at the Conference of Fontainebleau on 5 October 1948, takes care of nature monuments and species threatened with extinction. It was moreover protecting nature from destruction by human beings. This idea fitted perfectly into the plans for world-wide reconstruction. The new foundation acted under the auspices of the UNESCO.

In 1956, the association was denominated as 'International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources' (IUCN). This indicated no change of policy but expressed the feeling that fauna and flora are part of the renewable resources of the earth. It possibly also insinuated the consideration of the social and economic implications in the field of conservation. With the start of the sixties, the organisation moved out of Brussels to Morges (Switzerland). Actually, the headquarter of the IUCN is in Gland (Switzerland).

The broad outlines of activities and programmes are defined by the General Assembly. The Executive Board prepares decisions and is assisted in its function by
an Executive Committee. The Board is also responsible for the implementation of adopted policies. The Secretariat elaborates IUCN’s work reports and carries out the approved activities. Activities are guided by several Commissions: Ecology, Environmental law, Environmental strategy and planning, Education and communication, National parks and protected areas, and Species survival. The commissions are assisted by working groups, task forces and consultants. The organisation has regional offices in Meso-Africa, South America, East Africa and Southern Africa. Numerous country offices have been created, many of them in developing countries.

Rather than an organisation IUCN can be called a forum that stands in relation to states, government departments, a range of non-political bodies and international entities. In 1994 IUCN’s membership comprised sixty-eight states, hundred government agencies, five hundred and fifty national non-governmental organisations, fifty-three international non-governmental organisations and thirty-five non-voting affiliates. Eight hundred and six bodies were enclosed, representing 126 countries. The Union is financed by contributions from the members of the organisation. Major sponsors are the World-wide Fund for Nature, UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation) and UNEP (United Nations Environmental programme), the European Community and many governments and international agencies. The total amount of money spent by IUCN in 1994 accounted for 57 million Swiss Francs.

In the beginning emphasis was put on solving individual conservation problems. The view tended to be more global in the seventies. More and more attention was given to teaching practices, the publication of books and the analysis of environmental laws. These activities, together with the formulation of a policy programme provide an opportunity to give advice to other organisations and governments concerning global environmental problems. Although, there is still a long way to go (in both the richer and poorer countries of the world) to halt the further destruction of nature and to safe the quality of life, IUCN is playing the role of a significant catalyst in achieving environmental action goals.

2.2 The Creation of WWF and its relationship with IUCN

After a field trip to East-Africa, Sir Julian Huxley wrote three articles in The Observer which had an great impact. In these articles of December 1960, he deplored the terrible state of African wildlife. Without further delay drastic actions had to be taken.

In a letter to Sir Huxley, Mr. Victor Stolan clearly pointed out what was needed most: “... I feel that without a vigorous and immediate action to raise the great funds needed, the irreparable detriment will not be prevented from becoming a fact... . However, there must be a way to the conscience and the heart and pride and vanity of the very rich people to persuade them to sink their hands deeply into their pockets
and thus serve a cause which is greater and nobler than any other one – absolutely...". Sir Julian gave this letter to Mr. E. M. Nicholson, Director-General of the British Nature Conservancy, who advised to start a large-scale international campaign to raise the funds. Mr. Peter Scott, a vice-president of the IUCN, had come up with the same thoughts. Later Mr. Guy Mountfort, an experienced businessman and well-known ornithologist, joined this ‘club’.

While the World Conservation Union was primarily a scientific organisation, responsible for analysing conservation issues and executing surveys, a new group of conservationists was needed to fulfil this task. It further could create a solution for the numerous staff hours spent on publicity and the financial problems of IUCN. At Easter of the year 1961, an annotation was prepared and submitted to the Executive Board of IUCN at Morges. This Board of 16 well-known conservationists approved a plan - called The Morges Manifesto - in April of the same year. The Morges Manifesto was a call for action that described the problems of nature conservation and in particular of wildlife treasures. Shortly after this special meeting in the headquarters of IUCN, a preparatory group was established in London with E. M. Nicholson as chairperson. The group examined the needs and made plans for the foundation of an organisation collecting money world-wide.

By establishing a new organisation under the denomination ‘World Wildlife Fund’ on the 11th of Sept. 1961 in Zürich, a solution for IUCN’s problems was found and a start given to react against the wildlife destruction. On 16 October 1961, this foundation was further registered as a tax-exempt charity under Swiss law. Chi-Chi, a giant panda and an attraction at the London Zoo, was lovely, endangered and lent herself very well to create an emblem. The Panda consequently became WWF’s logo.

In March 1962, the offices were installed at Morges. Right from the beginning, WWF financed and managed field projects. Most of them were set up to prevent animal and plant species from extermination. Other activities regarded animals’ habitats, wild places, landscapes and ecological processes on this Earth. WWF’s Offices became too small and new accommodations were required. An anonymous gift enabled the organisation to move to a modern building in Gland in autumn of the year 1979. At the same time, it broadened its institutional presence thanks to its enlarged financial possibilities.

‘The protection of nature in all her forms’ is the ultimate purpose of WWF. This protection is realised by giving attention to the following five topics: species; areas; organisations; education / promotion; and miscellaneous subjects. It sees its results in the field of rescue operations to safe the threatened species. More time is spent for the safeguarding of habitats, upon which the survival of species depends. In the longer term, education is the all-important factor for the organisation. Efforts are especially made towards young people. They need education to manage the natural resources and the global environment in a better way than their predecessors.
In order to achieve major results in its main lines of activity, WWF sets out four types of actions:

- The first is the raising and distribution of funds for conservation projects. The money is mostly collected through its national appeals and distributed among conservation organisations.

- To make this first operation a success, widespread publicity is an absolute must. Only through world-wide campaigns and by articles in well-known magazines people are touched and dig into their pockets for a gift.

- People of higher standing and world leaders are rarely affected by a letter. Official missions and personal visits are a third preoccupation of the organisation in order to manipulate the decision-makers' policies.

- The last action plan was directed to conservation education of the general public. Special courses on environmental issues are given in schools. Information is spread indicating simple conservation actions people can accomplish themselves.

IUCN and WWF operate jointly various projects which are submitted to them. Scientific and technical support is mainly IUCN’s responsibility. If the support is moreover purely financial, WWF fulfils the request. It collects, manages and disburses funds through suitable international or national bodies or individuals for the conservation of the world’s fauna, flora, landscape, ... . They further act as a clearing-house for exchange of information and ideas on the solution of financial and administrative problems of common concern to persons concerned in conservation.

Together with IUCN, they build up scientific expertise through surveys and ecological studies in the field. Mainly educational projects proof that education/sensibilisation aspects are not neglected. More recently, both parties gave increased attention to environmental law, planning and policy.

2.3 WWF’s International Organisation

The World Wide Fund for Nature has developed into a well-co-ordinated world institution. The international projects are conducted from the international Secretariat in Gland. Although the support from the national organisations, associations and programme offices, as from other conservation organisations and local people remains essential.

The heart of the organisation is formed by the Board of Trustees. The Board is responsible for “the conduct, administration and representation” of the organisation’s activity. Every three year, re-election of the Trustees is possible. Since the statutes were modified in 1994 the Board has a maximum of 20 members. The president of the organisation is the chairperson. From 1961 until 1977, H.R.H. Prince Bernhard, The Prince of the Netherlands has taken on this task. Later Mr. J. H. Loudon (1977-1981) and H.R.H. Prince Philip, the Duke of Edinburgh followed. The president is assisted in his function by two vice-presidents. An important element for an
organisation that originated as a fund-raising movement is the position of a treasurer. The entity further appoints auditors, bankers and a legal council. This is necessary because the Board can not respond to the whole scope of requested qualities. The Board determines which aims need to be achieved by the organisation. On yearly meetings, they revise and reformulate the aims. The Executive Council is a delegation of the Board of Trustees. This group is composed of a President and ten Trustees. Its composition can be altered annually. The Council has two major responsibilities with regard to the administration of the Fund and the preparation of policy recommendations. It also supervises the collection and disbursement of funds and defines the international education and information activities. Twice a year meetings are organised. They determine the strategy and policies for the next year in accordance with the available budget.

Auxiliaries of the international global structure (Fig. 3) are several advisory committees. The nominating committee submits to the Board proposals for appointment to the Board and committees, and for awards. The executive committee recommends WWF International’s budget to the Board, and advises on other financial matters and other policy matters. The planning and budget committee advises Board and national organisations on WWF’s (institutional) development. Through fundraising, administration and finances it supports activities and steers the WWF annual conference.

The programme committee takes care of education activities, conservation policy and field programmes. It stipulates strategies, makes plans on an international or regional scale and gives advice on policies. Five Sub-Committees make part of the Programme Committee. Four of them are representatives of a continent, the fifth is of transregional nature. All are responsible for drafting operative management plans. Through the establishment of those entities, it is possible to fit in specific conservation characteristics of various territories into the global policy programme.

Assistance in drawing up such conservation plans is given by advisory groups. They are created to accomplish the global priorities to the year 2000. Six advisory groups, all working in a distinct area, are established. By order of creation, one finds:
- the Forest Advisory Group (1988)
- the Marine Group (1990)
- the Resource Consumption and Pollution Advisory Group (1991)
- the Protected Areas and Species of Special Concern Advisory Group (1994).

Advisory groups are assisted by Task Forces. They create public awareness and raise finances for the work of the Advisory Groups. The functioning of those entities
requires integration into programme activities of the various departments of the WWF network and especially within the fundraising and communications divisions. Figure 3: WWF’s international structure (nineties)

An important unit related to the Board and the Executive Council, is the Secretariat. It controls the different activities of the advisory committees and related structures. It draws up the reports of the committees which are sent to the Council in order to change or maintain the activities in certain policy fields. The Secretariat is responsible for the administration of requests for co-operation and financial support.
from other conservation organisations. The support division of the Secretariat consists of five different departments:
- human resources (recruitment and training of the employees)
- network services (management of support to the national organisations and strengthening the relationships among the different WWF representatives)
- communications (publications, conservation news, all kinds of information)
- fundraising
- finance and administration.

Special groups are further established to set out strategies on climate change, CITES, biodiversity, etc. Those groups are supervised by the International Secretariat, which in 1995 had a staff of about 160 people\textsuperscript{20}.

2.4 National Organisations and Associations

In the first winter of WWF’s existence, three \textit{National Appeals} were created. Great Britain, the United States and Switzerland were the first to contribute to the organisations’ activities. Other national appeals followed soon. Raising funds to execute conservation work was the prime purpose of these appeals\textsuperscript{13}. An arrangement was made in which one third of the gathered funds could be used by the appeals for their national projects. Another third went to the International Secretariat and the third part was subject to discussion. Normally, it went to the international organisation, but could also be used by the national appeals for an international project they organise themselves\textsuperscript{21}. This agreement is still operative today.

Figure 4: WWF national organisations and associations (February 1995)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO/Country</th>
<th>Year of affiliation with WWF I.</th>
<th>Country code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WWF - United Kingdom</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>GBR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - United States</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - Switzerland</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>CHE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - Netherlands</td>
<td>1962</td>
<td>NLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - Germany</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>DEU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - Austria</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>AUT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - Italy</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>ITA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - Belgium</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>BEL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - Canada</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>CAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - South Africa</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>ZAF</td>
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<td>WWF - India</td>
<td>1969</td>
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<td>JPN</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Year of association</td>
<td>Country code</td>
</tr>
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<td>------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - Pakistan</td>
<td>1971</td>
<td>PAK</td>
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<td>WWF - Malaysia</td>
<td>1972</td>
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<tr>
<td>WWF - France</td>
<td>1973</td>
<td>FRA</td>
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<tr>
<td>WWF - New Zealand</td>
<td>1975</td>
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<tr>
<td>WWF - Australia</td>
<td>1978</td>
<td>AUS</td>
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<td>WWF - Hong Kong</td>
<td>1981</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF - Greece</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>GRE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The creation of appeals was in the beginning strongly stimulated, in order to have more money for conservation activities. In 1973, a policy decision formulated the strengthening of the relations with existing appeals and their consolidation. As a consequence, the creation of new appeals was slowed down\(^{22}\). In 1977, the name ‘national appeal’ was changed into ‘national organisation’ (Fig. 4). They are independent legal entities which carry out a wide range of conservation activities in their countries, as well as contributing technical expertise and/or funding to WWF’s international conservation activities\(^{23}\). At that particular moment the network of National Organisations truly reflects the globalisation of the conservation activities. In the eighties, a new form of co-operation was created: the associations. The establishment of ‘associate’ relationships was based on the growing awareness that WWF needed a more powerful global presence, particularly in the ‘investment’ countries. Associations were formed with the Wildlife Fund Thailand (1984), Ecuador (1988), Argentina (1988), Venezuela (1988), Nigeria (1989) and Turkey (1994). Special agreements made co-operation with other conservation bodies possible, without the obligation for these organisations to change their names and policies. The objective is to work together within the framework of a common plan with the possibilities to have a greater impact on environmental problems.

Another reflection of this globalisation of conservation activities was the assignment of Programme Offices in a particular country to conduct the local operative conservation activities. They are set up in countries where WWF’s most important projects are located. In 1994 there were 22 Programme Offices\(^{23}\). Seven are set up in Africa (Cameroon, Gabon, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Madagascar, Tanzania and
Zambia). In the Asian/Pacific region, one finds Offices in the following six countries: Bhutan, Indonesia, Nepal, Philippines, South Pacific and Vietnam. Latin America and the Caribbean remain underrepresented with only four Offices: Brazil, Central America (Costa Rica), Mexico and Northern Andes (Colombia). In Europe, programme offices are found in Hungary and Latvia. In addition, special Policy Programme Offices were established: in Brussels a European Office is set up and in Washington DC, one finds an International Institutions Policy Programme. They try to have influence on the political level in order to change policies, legislation and development plans that are not ecologically sustainable.

Actually, WWF sends ambassadors to key countries. Those representatives have permanent contracts and are expected to ‘represent’ the organisation at the highest levels. Because there is little guidance, and because the representatives are entrepreneurs working far from headquarters, they generally go ahead and do what they feel is best. As a result, representatives have often been established primarily to co-ordinate field projects (which is not necessarily bad) but without giving other WWF objectives a fair hearing. Also the terms of reference for the representatives and the contracts negotiated with governments vary considerably.

Figure 5: The world presence of WWF

Today the existing WWF network (Fig. 5) represents probably the broadest geographical, technical and cultural diversity of any conservation organisation in the world. 1500 people are already working in the international headquarters or in national organisations. WWF’s programme offices and projects further employ over 800 staff in order to manage a conservation programme of over 70 million Swiss Francs yearly. In addition, another 1200 conservationists are employed by
governments and NGOs around the world with the funds provided by WWF\textsuperscript{23}. A major new co-operation form was introduced in the eighties: the co-operation with \textit{local people} in formulating new projects. By introducing this form of co-operation more conservation successes were booked.

The functioning of the various organisational departments (parts) would not have been possible without the support of volunteers and the many grants donated to the organisation. In the early eighties WWF had almost 1 million supporters. Today, the number of supporters has risen to over 5.8 million.

2.5 Financial Arrangements

The World Wide Fund for Nature is the largest private organisation raising funds for the conservation of nature. Based upon people’s contributions collected by the national organisations on the five continents, the Fund is able to solve a certain amount of environmental problems\textsuperscript{14}.

The sources of income range from public contributions to corporate contributions, royalties from commercial promotions, net financial income (as dividends, gained bank interests,...) and a number of legacies. The international organisation also receives grants from governments, trusts, foundations, aid agencies and from its national organisations\textsuperscript{18}. Most donations are spent on a current basis, although WWF seeks to work towards long-term financial commitments. The organisation supports rescue operations but emphasis increasingly preventive actions. In order to have financial stability, WWF started in the seventies with funds, trusts and endowments. “\textit{These help the smooth running of its conservation activities and ensure that moneys donated for conservation are spent only on conservation}”\textsuperscript{25}.

The first fund was the ‘Peter Scott Wildlife Endowment Fund’ (1970). For the first time, WWF had a regular income. The Endowment originated through a special donation of a far-sighted conservationist for promoting and supporting activities to conserve fauna, flora, forests, landscape, ... and other natural resources. Many more funds would follow\textsuperscript{26}. In 1971 a special fund has been created - following an idea of Prince Bernhard. \textit{The 1001: A Nature Trust} was an account into which people could deposit money. Each contributioner had to pay $ 10,000. The whole plan was designed for 1001 persons\textsuperscript{14}. In November 1973, the goal was achieved and $ 10 millions were available to cover WWF Internationals’ basic costs.

Some of these funds are subject to specific conditions imposed by the donor, others may be used without special obligations. Mostly the net income of the funds and endowments meets the basic costs of the international headquarters\textsuperscript{25}. They help to balance of yearly fluctuations in income and to meet unexpected but urgent environmental needs.
WWF’s mission of the 1990s commits the organisation to work towards the establishment of a sustainable world. This involves a widening of the conservation activities requiring increased expenditure. Until now, 2700 different projects have been set up with a total amount of around 320 million Swiss Francs.

WWF’s mission is not limited to WWF International. The conservation activities of, and the popular support for, the 29 Affiliate and Associate National Organisations have rapidly expanded, as have programmes jointly operated by WWF International and the national organisations. This means greater demands for support and co-ordination and the total budget is consequently split at present into three parts:

- 1/3 for the international programme
- 1/3 for the national programme
- 1/3 for administrative costs and institutional support.

2.6 Conclusion

To protect the biological richness of the earth, IUCN was established in 1948. It got a sister organisation in 1961: the WWF. WWF was created to raise money for conservation projects and to campaign by bringing the issues into public opinion. Operating in a changing environment meant modification of WWF’s goals and in its international structure. WWF also needed an increasing amount of money in response to the magnitude of the environmental problems.

In three decades the World Wide Fund for Nature has known an impressive growth which forms the basis for many operational successes. This is partly explained by its financial means, its personnel and its purpose. It mobilises financial resources through affiliated networks and through linkages with governments and other movements. With help of these groups, lasting improvements in the outlook of the natural environment are (and will be) realised.

A flexible approach means to address conservation needs but also other issues as lobbying opportunities, broad supporter base, contacts with ethical or religious groups and support to other NGOs. The National Organisations *which have an independent legal entity and carry out national projects and contributing technical expertise and/or funding to WWF’s headquarters* are the most powerful, complex and permanent structure. A representative office on the other hand can be easily established (and closed), but it is far less likely to be able to develop the grass-roots supporter base. The WWF network, includes other supporting structures such as representatives, advisors, country co-ordinators, consultants, and other forms of institutional presence. This network is a means to support a variety of activities (from public policy to education) and not only field projects.

The World Wide Fund for nature has become the largest private nature and environmental organisation in the world. With a supporter community of 5.8 million people and activities running in more than 100 countries, WWF is a remarkable
conservation movement. To reach its purposes, it co-operates with other conservation entities. A special relationship exists with IUCN.

3. Changes in Emphasis in WWF's Programmes and Projects

3.1 Overview

The World Wide Fund for nature, originated in 1961, has very rapidly taken its own position in the conservation sector. In the sixties, the new created organisation spent most of its funds to the protection of animals. The protection of animals’ habitats was more expressly taken up towards the seventies. Since the seventies, the environmental state of this planet became a topic in politics. Problems as acid rain, deforestation, desertification, the greenhouse effect, the hole in the ozone layer and others are almost daily mentioned by the media. This has forced governments and non-governmental organisations to develop a strong programme that counteracts this evolution.

The eighties showed a generalisation of this movement. It evolved into a fundamental debate, in which the new criterion ‘sustainability’ can be found. One of the major documents mentioning the term ‘sustainable development’, is the Brundtland report of 1987: “Sustainability is a development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”. Conservation thus implies a continuously changing equilibrium, between satisfying the various needs of human beings and protecting valuable natural resources and the environment for actual and future generations of inhabitants.

In the nineties, changed social values and cultural perceptions made that the idea of sustainability has gained wide acceptance. People have recognised the urgency of conservation efforts and have become aware of its consequences. WWF’s programme focuses on the carrying capacities of the earth and stresses further preservation of the biological diversity. “Sustainability is therefore a strategy for a kind of development that provides real improvements in the quality of human life and at the same time conserves the vitality and diversity of the Earth. The goal is development that meets these needs in a sustainable way.”

3.2 The Sixties: Species and Habitat Protection

In the 1960s the small conservation group tackled the most urgent conservation matters. Almost all activities were directed to ensure the survival of large mammals and their habitats. For the realisation of emergency rescue operations for endangered mammals, a World Wildlife Charter formulated the organisation’s viewpoint. The charter had the following seven objectives:
- to prevent any further extermination of wildlife
- to make sure that room shall be left for wildlife
- to protect all wildlife from unintentional or wanton cruelty
- to encourage children to develop a love and understanding of wildlife
- to make certain that all those whose work has an impact on nature should recognise their responsibility to wildlife
- to arrange to help those Nations in need of it in order to preserve their wildlife
- to work together to save the world’s wildlife.

Living species can not be seen apart from their habitats and ecosystems. WWF therefore stimulated the idea of ‘A Trust for the World Heritage’. “The trust would stand and speak for the principle of a paramount international interest in the protection of significant natural and cultural environments”. It would identify first the important natural sites throughout the world. After various inventories, it would look to the priorities for their protection. The Trust should then engage people and organisations to co-ordinate the required steps for a world implementation and for action plans on national scale. A convention on the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage was adopted by the Unesco General Conference in Paris in the year 1972.

Not only on international conferences, but also on its own first congress ‘Nature and Man’, held in Amsterdam at 27-30 April 1967, similar objectives were articulated. The WWF Trustees pointed out that they would make all people aware of their joint responsibility for the common heritage and the work that is needed for the conservation of nature for the long-term social, cultural and economic benefit of all mankind.

The organisation worked through scientific specialists and local organisations. It occasionally conducted its own field operation. Projects were worked out with other organisations as IUCN, ICBP (International Council for Bird Preservation) and many smaller conservation groups. The start of project implementation in 1962 was slow and cautious with more or less 15 projects (Fig. 6). Although in the years 1965-1967, the number of conservation projects sharply rose. Those were also the days in which the first actions saving wildlife species and their habitats started. At the end of the sixties WWF had around 90 projects running all over the world and needed for that a budget of more than 5 million Swiss francs (Fig. 7).
Most projects concentrated on species protection and habitat operations (Fig. 8). Assistance projects gave support to other conservation organisations. The support was mainly of a financial nature, but provided also technical inputs. Major spending went to area projects, which often included the rent or purchase of land and were mostly set up in Europe and North America (Fig. 10). High land prices entailed major expenditure for this purpose. These continents were also the main sources of income to the organisation where tangible results had to be produced.

* Current outprints on project information, kindly submitted by the WWF secretariat, have been used to make the calculations for the figures 6 to 28.
Figure 8: Importance of the various conservation issues in the sixties (percent of all projects)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conservation Issues</th>
<th>Sixties</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Species</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Habitat</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E, T, A</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L, I, A</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistance</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

L, I, A : Legislation, Institution and Administration
E, T, A : Education, Training and Awareness

Figure 9: Number of projects by regions in the sixties in percent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Americas</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remaining funds were transferred to species and habitat projects in developing countries. The greatest part of operations in low income countries were set up in Africa (more or less 30% of them) (Fig. 9). The reason for the large number of projects in Africa has to be found by looking to the sister organisation IUCN. One year before the establishment of WWF, the organisation started with an ‘African Special Project’. The project focused on wild habitats and other areas of wild land that could produce crops of animal protein and other products on a sustained yield basis16.
Projects in the sixties were mostly responding to urgent requests. Finances were not adequate for prevention operations in developing countries. Many successful projects were furthermore demanded in the donor countries. Only during the next decade the organisation enlarged its budget to start up more projects and activities in the developing countries on a scale that corresponded to the size of the problems.

3.3 The Seventies: Conservation and Environmental Protection

The conservation budget was remarkably increased and used for conservation projects. In addition, WWF became a ‘major moral force’ and a well-known conservation entity. Its objective and the one of its partner IUCN was the study of the environmental situation and the support of different conservation projects. As a result of the European Conservation Year in 1970, its task was fostered by the attention given to the environment and pollution impacts. Increasing public awareness and concern about degradation of the human environment speeded up the support to conservation activities.

At the 9th February 1970, the European Conservation Year officially started with a conference at Strasbourg. Leaders and environmental groups gathered to discuss conservation issues. The escalation of technical impacts and the exponential growth of human population were seen as major causes of environmental degradation. Through publicity campaigns the necessary respect for nature should be created. In the same line, WWF set up its second congress ‘All life on Earth’ at the 17-18 Nov. 1970 in London. It called on political leaders to formulate plans that were ecologically validated, put into a world-wide system of environmental monitoring and directed to the survival of species and their habitats.

To further stimulate people to rely on practices within the carrying capacity of the planet, the organisation decided to give a new impulse to conservation actions. In its Second Morges Manifesto, at the tenth anniversary celebrations, the organisation
urgently called for operations to halt pollution and to conserve natural areas. This change in programme direction was not only meant for the well-being of wildlife, but also for people’s benefit. To support the Manifesto, a report was written that formulated the basic principles of conservation. The following nine rules were expressed:

- Conservation involves the perpetuation and enhancement of the finite natural resources of the earth.
- Conservation is of major importance to humankind. It is a precondition for sustained high quality of life and ultimately for survival.
- Conservation demands extensive investment without which much greater material losses will eventually result.
- Conservation is the collective responsibility of all governments, private organisations, industries and individuals.
- Conservation involves co-ordinated international action, since environmental disturbances are not bound by frontiers.
- Conservation is an essential factor in development and hence in aid given by industrialised countries.
- Conservation cannot make long-term progress without bringing human populations into equilibrium.
- Conservation implies diversity throughout the natural world and retention of options for future choice.
- Conservation involves a dynamic balance between man and natural resources in contrast to the pursuit of unlimited economic growth, which destroys these resources.

The nine principles of conservation were completed with an action programme, based on national and international components. At national level, actions were foreseen to promote conservation awareness and to educate people on environmental planning. Authorities were asked to set aside national parks and nature reserves, to preserve nature’s diversity and to minimise environmental disturbances. At the international level, meetings were to be held to change legislation across borders. Treaties and conventions on environmental issues were to be signed and ratified. First results were the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora, CITES, and the Ramsar Convention on protection of wetlands of international importance.

In its following congresses (‘The world we live in’, Bonn, 5 Oct. 73 & ‘The fragile Earth’, San Francisco, 29 Nov-1 Dec 76) WWF tried to realise a major breakthrough in nature conservation. It pointed out the essential role played by human beings in this process. The scope of the WWF was slightly changed and formulated as follows: ‘The world-wide conservation of the natural environment of man, including fauna, flora, landscape, water, soils and other natural resources.’
WWF’s programme was broadened, as well as its project approach (Fig. 11). Action was directed towards clearly defined issues in an international frame. During the second part of the seventies, forests, wetlands, threatened primates, endangered plants and seas received international attention. Activities were no longer only directed to species and habitats, but emphasis was put on long-term commitments that would have effect upon individual and environment interactions. Improved planning and control of natural resource use, the creation of effective policies and public understanding of conservation values were strongly advocated.

Figure 11: Evolution in the number of projects in the seventies

In its broadened activity spectrum, WWF saw five efforts that needed to be increased in response to the new conservation approach. They were at the same time efforts 'to win the active interest and continuing support of ever increasing sections of the population' and referred to

- strengthening the network
- intensifying communication
- enhancing education
- increasing publicity
- fundraising improvement.

WWF’s financial facilities were a tenfold (around 6 million Swiss francs) compared to the available funds of the first activity year 1962, but the financial means remained at the same level during that decade (Fig. 12). The number of projects on the other hand rose enormously from around 100 projects at 1970 towards 250 at the end of the seventies.
The percentage of policy, education and awareness (E, T, A) programmes increased in comparison with the sixties (Fig. 13). In addition WWF launched prevention operations and tried to minimise ‘ad hoc requests for help’. It devoted more time on projects that attempted to change present courses of human action in order to solve conservation problems. Together with IUCN, it initiated a process that should be ecologically sustainable and by integrating the principle of conservation. The species and habitat approach remained, however, an essential programme element for WWF that attracted the public’s attention. Moreover, most of these activities had a positive impact on other parts of the life support system.

Figure 13: Importance of the various conservation issues in the seventies (percent of all projects)
In Europe projects aimed at conservation of wetlands and preservation of predator species. Anti-poaching campaigns were set up in Africa, together with conservation education and comprehensive conservation programmes. In Asia, major spending went to the operation Tiger. Long-term programmes were established in oceanic areas to protect critical marine habitats. In North and Central America big species received major attention. Latin America was much less present in the conservation projects.

Figure 14: Number of projects by regions in the seventies in percent

The number of projects (Fig. 14) was almost equally spread out over the various continents. Europe (only 14% of the projects) was slightly underrepresented because of the greater size of the executed projects and because many national appeals on this continent began to set up their own projects. Spending on international projects was the largest (Fig. 15). It included support to other conservation organisations working on an international level. The low budget figures for Asia are probably due to inaccurate data. The seventies meant in fact the breakthrough of many conservation projects (for the tiger) in the Asian region.

Figure 15: Project expenditures by regions in the seventies in percent
3.4 The Eighties: Conservation and Development

As a consequence of more finances and an expansion of the management capacity in the seventies, more complex problems could be tackled. The organisation suddenly saw itself confronted with the conflict between development and conservation. The World Conservation Strategy was written to show how this conflict can be solved and was presented to the world on the 5th March 1980\textsuperscript{37}. The final plan provided for the first time a solid framework and advising principles for conservation on a global scale.

The strategy sets out the importance of, and requirements for conservation. It sees the agricultural systems, the forests and the coastal and freshwater ecosystems as the most important, but also most endangered life-support systems. In those areas, effective and urgent actions are required to counter an irreversible state of degradation. Especially soil loss and impoverishment problems, siltation and pollution concerns need to be reduced, as cultivation and commercial exploitation methods need to be revised. It is necessary to draw up good management plans to maintain the ecological processes and the life-support systems on this earth. The development of a good management plan is however not sufficient, in addition control for discharge of pollutants is essential. In threatened areas protective measures must be taken. Finally, landuse planning, where the lands are reserved for their optimal use, remains the key to success. In the arena of sustainable utilisation, limits of exploiting species and ecosystems need to be determined to avoid excessive use or incidental takes. Only such an approach guarantees the sustainable use of the natural resources\textsuperscript{38}.

At \textit{national} level, each country should develop a strategy towards sustainable development and identify the necessary requirements. This asks for adapting policies to anticipate on environmental issues. It further implies ecosystem evaluations to estimate the conservation needs. That can only be achieved with the assistance of skilled personnel and through raising research and education efforts. Environmental assessments should in the end be accomplished to foresee the effects of executed operations. At an \textit{international} level, conservation laws have to be drawn up in response to rosen environmental matters. More development assistance has to be provided through various agencies oriented to all levels of society. International programmes must also be formulated to preserve the major biomes on this earth. On a \textit{regional} scale, strategies should be promoted to conserve shared natural resources\textsuperscript{38}.

WWF’s position statements in the early 80s however still concentrated on species conservation and related issues. The organisation called for establishing appropriate management plans to halt ecological violation against vicuna, whales, and the harp and hooded seal hunting which were important issues to gain public attention. It promoted the implementation of CITES and was opposed to trade in rhino products.
and African ivory. In 1986, WWF’s developments gained momentum. Its programme focused on spreading the World Conservation Strategy message through ancient and new channels. In awareness campaigns and in education projects the value of conservation was made clear to everyone\textsuperscript{39}. In the end, WWF meant creating the ‘will and skill’ to conserve throughout each community\textsuperscript{40}. Therefore, two main tasks were strengthened:

- local communities must be helped to attain an acceptable life standard
- the broader public should learn to care for nature.

A major breakthrough with regard to ethical considerations occurred during a meeting in Assisi in September of that same year. For the first time, five world religions specified that their beliefs had brought them to conservation. The world’s creator has made such a wonderful place to live that human beings must respect its indispensable partner nature. Their declarations were the start of a jointly working together in the field of educational and practical activities. It opened new doors for WWF and lead to new coalitions\textsuperscript{41}.

From the start, it was WWF’s purpose to integrate such aspects in its programme. It has taken until the eighties before the intention was fulfilled. As a consequence, it was an appropriate moment to change the organisations’ name. The name ‘World Wildlife Fund’ was changed into ‘The World Wide Fund for Nature’ in 1986\textsuperscript{39}. In the same period, WWF created a project management department to follow more accurately the new attitudes towards conservation\textsuperscript{42}.

From now on, programmes were worked out in geographic and thematic elements and they were based on a regional structure. This way, specific characteristics for each region could be taken into account. Further attention was given to lobbying programmes. WWF liked to see its words translated into actions by people involved. So WWF made contributions in formulating conventions as CITES, Ramsar and ITTA. It continued to devote attention to their realisation on a world-wide scale.

At the same time, WWF was concerned with actual environmental problems. It advocated steps to diminish NOx discharges and to reduce pollution of the Northsea. A regularly recurring problem was the tsetse fly eradication campaign. This problem was to be solved, according to WWF, not by spreading dangerous chemicals.

A popular species project was an efficient way to raise money and to explain to the general public the importance of conservation. So did start the organisation of a campaign to preserve the Giant Panda in China. Thereafter, habitats received more attention such as forests (82), and wetlands (85), together with their vital elements; plants (83-84) and primates (82). An enormous campaign on awareness, training and education was initiated in 1986. Education projects were set up at various levels of society to change people’s attitude towards nature. In various countries, education units went to farmer villages. Training facilities were provided in countries where
people were already persuaded to preserve environmental objectives. The first example was the establishment of a wildlife management school in Kenya43.

Key projects in the eighties concentrated on a few countries. This was the result of a new policy in order to increase project effectiveness. The direction towards focal countries was taken by a whole serie of developing agencies, and not specifically associated with WWF. Projects were carefully worked out and were meant - in case of success - as examples for other conservation organisations44.

Figure 16: Evolution in the number of projects in the eighties

![Diagram of Number of New/Continuing Projects in the Eighties]

It became clear that WWF was working on all levels of society; at the higher levels (industrial and economical sectors) and on the political arena; at the basic population level to search for stable solutions in project implementation. Long-term planning was indicated by projects set up with a longer activity period. The number (Fig. 16) and budgets (Fig. 17) of continuing projects rose in comparison with those of the sixties and seventies. In previous decades, short term and small size conservation projects had prevailed. Now, WWF worked out 250-300 long-term projects in less countries for a budget between 10 and 20 million Swiss francs.

Figure 17: Evolution in the conservation expenditures in the eighties

![Diagram of Budget of New/Continuing Projects in the Eighties]
People became more involved in drawing up conservation and development plans. The concern about people and their needs was reflected in awareness and training programmes. The species/habitat approach was adapted to the conditions of the local communities. Their viewpoints were more included in operation schedules. The categories policy, and education and awareness (E, T, A) gained importance in the project composition (Fig. 18).

Figure 18: Importance of the various conservation issues in the eighties (percent of all projects)

In the eighties, conservation areas were more equally represented by the number of projects. The only continent that clearly counted less WWF projects was Europe (Fig. 19). However, this is compensated by additional projects from national organisations.

Figure 19: Number of projects by regions in the eighties in percent
More and more of WWF’s activities had an international character (35 % of the total budget) (Fig. 20). The organisation supported increasingly other international conservation agencies with more complex conservation issues. A considerable amount of projects remained directed to developing countries with a preference for the African continent (28 % of the budget). Latin America in relation to its biological richness was underrepresented. WWF US however started a whole series of conservation projects on this continent with or without WWF International’s participation.

Figure 20: Project expenditures by regions in the eighties in percent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Americas</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the whole, WWF remained fighting for a better balance between human’s needs and the capacity of the earth. It tried to avoid loss or degradation of rich biotopes. It broadened its activity spectrum and included in its programmes more consistently the participation of people. In many conservation fields, the organisation attempted to make an impact. More policy statements and programmes were formulated for that purpose45.

3.5 The Nineties: Towards Multisectoral Policies

During the nineties WWF has incorporated in its programme the need to combine more consistently economic development and environmental protection in a long-term perspective46. Supported by the public in general, WWF is striving to persuade governments, intergovernmental organisations (IGOs) and the international community to take their responsibilities towards nature47.

WWF started to upgrade its activities in 1989 after a strategic planning exercise, to make the organisation more effective and broaden its activities in response to the accelerating environmental degradation. It brought into effect a mission statement and strategy for the 1990s. WWF’s mission is to achieve the conservation of nature and ecological processes by:
- preserving genetic, species and ecosystem diversity
- ensuring that the use of renewable natural resources is sustainable both now and in the longer term, for the benefit of all life on earth
- promoting actions to reduce, to a minimum, pollution and the wasteful exploitation and consumption of resources and energy\(^{48}\).

In the end WWF hopes to reach a world where humans live in harmony with nature and where the environment is no longer destroyed or degraded. To realise the objectives and the final goal, WWF builds partnerships with other conservation agencies, institutions, authorities and the public. The organisation sets agendas for IGOs and governments to implement items it cannot complete itself. Not only through partnerships, but also by formulating programmes related to maintain biodiversity, sustainable use of renewable natural resources and to reduce pollution and wasteful exploitation of resources the organisation tries to attain its objectives. In implementation WWF proposed to rely on five groups of complementary activities:
  - conservation fieldwork
  - public policy
  - communications
  - education
  - institutional support\(^{48}\).

The state of nature however forced the environmental groups to prepare a well-considered action programme in which co-operation between all involved levels is required. The new version of the strategy was published under the heading “Caring for the Earth”. As an action plan it encourages countries to develop national conservation strategies and to formulate programmes for inclusion in an international conservation agenda. The final text was released as a strategy for sustainable living and presented in October 1991. As in the strategy of 1980, the overriding consideration is that development is based on human welfare and on conservation by preserving the production capacity and the diversity of nature. The three head objectives are:
  - changing unwise practices
  - protecting earth’s resources from vanishing
  - teaching people to care for nature.

To accomplish these purposes, co-operation among all involved people (individuals, locals, authorities, conservation agencies, ...) is necessary. Only working together makes it possible to tackle the different environmental problems as pollution, wasteful consumption, overexploitation and others. A broad action spectrum, including 132 practical steps, is identified. Five priority areas are chosen for major activities:
  - farms and rangelands
  - forests and woodlands
  - freshwater systems
  - oceans and coasts
  - air and atmosphere\(^{49}\).
Only the last one is new for the nineties. An evolution which had already been initiated by WWF’s pollution vision. Subjects as ozone-depleting chemicals, international emission targets, climate change, and greenhouse emissions received enormous media attention. New actions were demanded in sectors as energy use, industry and commerce, and settlements. This asks for different approaches according to the field in which the organisation is engaged. In developing countries, aspects as family planning and child health receive most attention. In high-consuming countries on the other hand, implementation of taxes on energy and other natural resources, together with recycling would initiate sustainability. An issue of equal concern lies in applying measures to halt the alarming rate of pollution on this earth. Setting up a framework for implementation remains the main problem. At national level, programmes with major attention for education and training form the basis for possible solutions. At international level, campaigns and lobbying are the forefront.

Co-operation among the conservation entities continued to be the main point. New was the increased attention for equity. Natural resources need to be used in a more equal way. It is a main aspect in order to realise a sustainable living. The huge pollution problems are another field of interest. Urgent action is required to halt the negative environmental impacts. In order to find workable solutions. ‘Caring for the earth’ formulated in a more direct and practical way the action steps. The statements were formulated more clearly in order to make a contribution in improving the quality of life.

WWF has in the following year initiated a Sustainable Resource Use Programme. The programme inquired on environmental impacts of international trade. It made an effort to take into account environmental costs of development. The programme referred to development policies of the UN, the World Bank and of regional development banks. Similar aspects were integrated in WWF’s own field programme. It incorporated in its field projects revised and new policies “that tackle issues systematically at every level”. The organisation in fact has to learn from its mistakes and must create the will to change among everyone involved with conservation practices.

In 1992, WWF started to work on a revised strategic plan that focused on targets and mission related actions including fundraising and marketing activities. The plan was to be evaluated yearly by the planning and budget committee and became effective at the end of 1993. In the process of revising WWF’s activities and concentrating on specific issues, the organisation started setting out its priorities for the year 2000. The main objective was to preserve the biological diversity. This was highly focused on the three priority biomes: forests, freshwater ecosystems, and oceans and coastal ecosystems. The start had already taken in 1990 (see WWF’s mission), but expanded in 1993 with six strategies:

- creating and maintaining systems of effective and sustainable protected areas
- promoting sustainable development practices, thereby linking conservation with human needs
- conserving species of special concern
- reducing consumption and pollution by influencing public policy and the practices of consumers and business/industry
- promoting the establishment and implementation of international treaties, national policies, and legislation
- promoting environmental education and building capacity to enable people to sustainably manage the natural resources on which life depends\(^\text{19}\).

It was stated that 80 % of the programme resources should go to the three priority biomes and the six strategies. All the work was to be co-ordinated by the Programme Committee, assisted by subcommittees and advisory groups. The implementation of the programme implied a lot of policy work with authorities, national and international entities and the private sector\(^\text{52}\).

The number (between 450 and 500 projects yearly) (Fig. 21) and budget of projects (Fig. 22) in the nineties show that the expansion of projects in the eighties continued. The trend towards more long-term project planning is continued, as can be deducted from the importance of continuing projects in comparison with new ones.

Figure 21: Evolution in the number of projects in the nineties

Figure 22: Evolution in the conservation expenditures in the nineties
The increased attention to strategic planning is also reflected in the organisation’s activities. More policy related projects are formulated on issues of international importance (Fig. 23). Public awareness continues to play a major role in the organisation’s projects. Information is spread through different channels and educational operations organised. The organisation believes that environmental issues find their solution through the involvement of people. On the other hand the importance of species projects has clearly dropped. Assistance projects have a smaller share. The organisation no longer simply gives money to organisations as it had done in the past but works more in co-operation with other agencies.

Figure 23: Importance of the various conservation issues in the nineties (percent of all projects)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Projects by Conservation issues Nineties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>species 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assistance 15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habitat 24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>survey 4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>policy 21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E,T,A 20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L,I,A 6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

L, I, A : Legislation, Institution and Administration
E, T, A : Education, Training and Awareness

Figure 24: Number of projects by regions in the nineties in percent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Projects by regions Nineties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International 23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Americas 16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe 18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia 24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa 19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
With regard to the regional distribution one may state a drop of activity for the African continent (with only 19% of the projects) (Fig. 24), although the situation is different when looking to the budget (Fig. 25). The continent ranks second highest in conservation expenditure. The figures for the Asian and International sector are average values. Because of the increased attention for projects on pollution control, the budget for Europe has augmented clearly. The number and budgets for the Latin American projects continue to be very low. Although WWF US is partly filling this gap, it surprises that no more international projects are executed on this continent.

Figure 25: Project expenditures by regions in the nineties in percent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Americas</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By “promoting an ethic of caring for nature and people”, the organisation receives the necessary support of local communities and from religions. After reaching the scientific and spiritual sides of target audiences, more people will be fighting for conservation because they feel concerned. Environmental concern can be generated through personal contact with people. It is also created through various media channels and publications and through successful implementation of conservation programmes.

A strong, professional, cost-effective and efficient WWF network is demanded to become truly global and multi-cultural. It serves the effectiveness of its policy work, as could be noticed on the Rio Conference. WWF played an important role on this Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in:
- bringing up new ideas
- creating public awareness
- lobbying among those present
- mobilising other non-governmental organisations.

It encourages the Commission on Sustainable Development (UNCSD) to make implement the schedules of Agenda 21. It continues its lobbying work to realise the ratification of the conventions on climate change and on preservation of biological
diversity by as many countries as possible. A direction which is certainly to be followed in future implementation.

3.6 Conclusion

The World Wide Fund for Nature has very rapidly taken its own position in the conservation sector. Soon, it played a major role as ‘conservation action group’. It is however very difficult to measure to what extent WWF has been successful in achieving ‘the rescue of nature’. To find out what the organisation has achieved, discussions with involved people should be made, as critiques of other organisations analysed. By looking to the activities and the spent budget, one can say that in the sixties, the new created organisation spent most of its funds to the protection of animals. The protection of animals’ habitats was more expressly taken up towards the seventies. International campaigns moreover need to bring a nature conscience (Fig. 26).

Figure 26: Importance of the various conservation issues in WWF’s 34 year’s history (percent of all projects)

The publication of the World Conservation Strategy in 1980 meant a major turning point in the conservation approach. It was the time in which organisations noticed that local communities could play a vital role in the achievement of sustainable results. On the other hand, environmental problems were no longer of local scale. Increased co-operation among the different conservation entities was required to attain lasting improvements in the conservation field. Therefore, the organisation has strongly expanded its relations with other organisations. The co-operation between IUCN, UNEP and WWF led to new ideas on conservation and practical development plans. Those visions were bundled in ‘The World Conservation Strategy’ which was later replaced by a revised version called ‘Caring for the earth’.
In defining its global priorities to the year 2000, the organisation considered the issues that effect nature - particularly the role of people - and it identified the key problems it should tackle. The global priorities are based on WWF’s Mission and Strategy as well as an analysis of the specific role WWF can play in fulfilling important objectives laid out in Caring for the Earth. In the near future WWF shall keep its activities concentrated on the three major biomes: forests, freshwater ecosystems; oceans and coasts, for which the organisation is best positioned to make a real difference in helping resolve the overall environmental crisis.

WWF will therefore plan its work and take decisions based on a long-term view. In an integrated approach, in which the establishment of protected areas is often an important component, it fosters the sustainable use of natural resources. At the practical level this stands for local community involvement, management and benefit. At the policy level, it signifies the formulation of development plans and activities after careful consideration with governments, international agencies and the private sector.

By promoting new treaties and securing early implementation on Climate Change, Biodiversity and other well-established treaties, it motivates action. It further works through strengthening its campaigns and treaties capacity and impact, particularly at regional and national level by working with national organisations and with international, regional and national institutions. As the relationship between people and their environment involves issues such as population growth, demographics and the poverty gap, this need to be reflected in WWF’s education programmes. Only at this particular moment of realisation people and governmental and non-governmental institutions have sufficient capacity to address conservation needs within their own remit. This would at last entail a major breakthrough in the conservation and development debate!

4. Forests and Forestry Related Initiatives of WWF

4.1 First International Tropical Forest Conservation Campaign (1973)

In the beginning WWF’s activities were concentrated on species survival. In wildlife projects reserves were established and marked, in order to protect vegetation as food resource and protective habitat of animals. Since the reserves were often wooded lands various kinds of forests were saved from destruction.

High-level representatives of Trustees showed interest in forest protection in the seventies. Governments were incited to draw up national conservation programmes to protect valuable forest areas from shifting agricultural practices, burning, overexploitation and logging. In his speech at the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (1972, Stockholm), HRH Prince Bernhard, at that time President
of WWF, mentioned the following: “Destruction of tropical forests and continued overgrazing of marginal lands are two of the major causes of deterioration of productivity in the world.”

Since 1973 the forest topic was integrated in WWF’s activity programme. The lowland tropical forests and the cloud forests ranked second and third in the priority conservation list of 1973-1974. The approach was broadened and forests were no longer exclusively protected for the preservation of wild animals. An increasing number of forest areas was set aside as reserves in view of their biological richness and their protective watershed value. Management plans were written based upon ecological guidelines; they contained principles geared towards long-term sustainable development. The matter of tropical forest conservation was further brought under world-wide attention through a fundraising campaign in 1975.

To maintain different forest types and to retain actual and potential values of forest resources, the campaign had formulated the following objectives:

- To prepare a description of the range of variation of tropical rain forest with maps showing the distribution of the various types.
- To relate this description to the distribution of protected areas that at present afford effective protection. A protected area was defined as land especially dedicated to the protection and the maintenance of biological diversity. It further protects natural and associated cultural resources. It is managed through legal or other effective means.
- To propose additional areas that may qualify for protection so as to ensure that the whole range of variation is afforded protection.
- To develop management plans for the reserves.
- To promote ways of living with the tropical rain forests and using them wisely.

Projects to identify different forest types were launched in 22 countries in Africa, Asia, Latin America and Oceania. A report for every country explained the main threats and the areas that required urgent conservation operations, with the intention to establish and manage national parks and conservation areas.

Research findings combined with basic ecological guidelines formulated by IUCN, formed the basic for the implementation of the forest projects. They were an instrument to persuade the governments and aid agencies that “development is consistent with the ecological guidelines in which it occurs.” High-level representatives urged policy-makers in tropical countries to advance preservation of their forests and to establish reserves. In addition, they prompted the governments to draw up national conservation programmes and specific management plans for the protected areas.

A concrete result of the tropical rain forest campaign was the joint venture between WWF and the Indonesian government, signed on 27 Sept. 1977. A sum of $1 million
dollar was provided to formulate a five year national conservation programme, in which funds were made available for a rising number of protected areas, as for training personnel and for public information. To foster implementation, the existing legislation, offices and staff needed to be strengthened. This was the first major conservation project set up in one country; others followed later.

4.2 Forests in the World Conservation Strategy (1980)

In 1980, a strategy was presented that co-ordinated the sustainable development of the environment. Since forests are not only important for timber production, but have vital effects on essential ecological processes, they received head attention in the World Conservation Strategy (WCS). Requirements were stipulated on three levels: on a national, international and on a global scale.

A strong national policy is required that establishes protected areas, to preserve the genetic diversity in the forest sites. Buffer zones are an essential protective gradient between the reserves on the one hand, and the agricultural lands on the other. Management plans must ensure that watersheds are protected and keep forests on steep slopes and along major rivers untouched. In other areas land uses have to be developed that respect the conservation of the forest cover.

Not only the forest lands need to be protected, but also the enormous potential of goods they contain. National legislation that integrates different utilisation demands is an important requirement. Governments have to formulate management plans which allocate timber concessions with care and control their environmental impacts. They should further assist settlers in developing sustainable land use practices. Firewood should be provided by laying out plantations. Only the integration of those aspects can protect the genetic richness of a country.

There is not only need for strong national forest policies, but also for international cooperation to secure the sustainable use of different forest benefits. International actions to protect the tropical forest estate, must provide:

- afforestation projects to secure fuelwood and industrial wood on a large scale
- reforestation projects in degraded forest areas or in areas with raw material deficits
- amelioration of administrative facilities for more efficient protection and management of natural forests
- planning of parks in not yet protected sites of great biological diversity
- improvement of conservation functions in protected forests by allowing local people to make use of buffer zones and by giving priority to rural development in surrounding areas.
On a global scale, there is an enormous demand to work on the following subjects:
- to develop more efficient means of using tropical woods and other forest products
- to reduce waste and incidental destruction during exploitation
- to stabilise markets in tropical timbers
- to develop plantations to meet forthcoming world needs for wood products.

The World Conservation Strategy thus stressed ecological and economic values of tropical rain forests. It urged governments to develop national plans to secure the enormous potential. In the second forest campaign of WWF/IUCN, plans and projects were developed in a few countries that were willing to follow these guidelines.38

4.3 Second International Tropical Forest Campaign (1982)

In 1982 at the opening of the national parks congress in Bali (Indonesia), a second tropical forest campaign was launched. It mobilised at least an amount of $2,500,000 available for projects in 11 countries. The countries were chosen according to the following criteria:
- the urgency of conservation intervention
- the actual presence in the country of WWF/IUCN delegates
- the need for external help to safeguard the genetic diversity.

The aim of the operation was to promote the conservation of the tropical forests based on sustainable utilisation of the resources and socio-economic development of the region. Primates played an important role in the campaign because of their indicative quality on the conservation state of the forests. These objectives were to be reached by executing several basic steps:
- development of national conservation strategies
- co-operation with development agencies to implement the formulated actions
- reinforcement of the legal, administrative and institutional frame of a country to conserve the tropical forests
- creation of a better understanding of the forest ecosystem, its importance and the dangers of excessive exploitation
- establishment of a network of protected areas containing the range of forest varieties in a country.

The second campaign introduced a more global approach by integrating various interests on forests into a conservation programme. Establishment of national parks and reserves meant the conservation of the existing biological richness. Creating management plans for those areas, in which conservation and development are integrated, should protect them better. Finally, attention was to given to the hungry, often landless people surrounding the parks. The tropical forest conservation programme concentrated no longer only on political, legal and corporate entities to
take action for sustainable development. It addressed mainly to local communities. In order to achieve lasting solutions, WWF enables communities to live from the land without destroying its productive capabilities for the future. Another important element of the campaign was mobilising public opinion for the forest issue. This component finally resulted in a global campaign on awareness, training and education in 1986. It aimed at a general understanding among people of the importance of protecting the environment.

Figure 27: Proportion of Forest Projects among all WWF Projects

As a consequence, forest projects received increased attention in the eighties and amounted to more than 10% of all projects (Fig. 27). From the eighties onward, forests were considered as an important part of habitat projects, because almost half of them were directed to forest ecosystems (Fig. 28).

Figure 28: Proportion of Forest Projects among Habitat Projects

Forest conservation was seen in two directions. On the one hand, activities were promoted to stop the loss of tropical forests. On the other hand, policy statements
tried to diminish damage from acid rain and poor land use to temperate forests. More and more forest projects in the eighties were policy directed. The organisation established offices and co-ordinators in order to promote more consistently forest-related activities at a country level.

4.4 Position statement on tropical forest management

In 1989, WWF set out a policy target in order to establish sustainable tropical forest management. Three major action points had to be realised:

- tropical timber trade must be based on sustainable utilisation by 1995 (min. 40 million hectares tropical forest must be sustainable managed)
- practices to minimise deforestation and a total stop by the year 2000
- a minimum size of 100 million hectares tropical forest must be set aside as protected area.

In order to accomplish these objectives the following measures were considered necessary: Primary forests must be totally protected. The actual scientific knowledge about the complex ecological processes in this type of rain forest, together with the unknown potential of its biological diversity forbid exploitation practices. Secondary forests should be managed as multi-purpose areas. In the first place they should provide water, timber, pasture, wild species and recreation facilities. The fulfilment of the economic activities should be executed in a way that does not obstruct the conservation purpose/previous purposes.

Co-operation with indigenous people remains an essential point in drawing up and realising adjusted local conservation plans. Only by well informing all people, the will and skill is created to tackle the surrounding problems. WWF incites other development aid agencies to work more democratically and to set up smaller projects in consultation and with the participation of locals.

Working on a local scale is not enough; a global conservation plan must also be addressed to macro-economic issues. International efforts are consequently required to dissolve the enormous debt burdens of some countries. Several among them try to resolve this by selling hardwood stocks. In 1987, WWF therefore starts to implement debt-for-nature swaps. The organisation acquires title to a part of a country’s debt by buying it. The ‘debtor country’ needs to repay WWF in local currency or chooses for a second alternative. This alternative contains the possibility to set up conservation activities. Negotiations decide which of the choices will be implemented. In the same line of finding solutions; WWF tries to enforce a more balanced timber market, where timber prices include the full environmental cost.

Impact studies are required to assess the true effectiveness of conservation of an operation. The provision of subsidies to farmers in industrialised countries for
example often creates huge problems in tropical countries. Farmers in developing
countries are additionally often forced to implement unsustainable working methods.
Landless people seek as a consequence their fortune in new lands by cutting the
forests. Governments in the northern hemisphere are therefore urged to review this
policy, those in the south to assist their farming population

4.5 Monitoring of International Forest Initiatives

WWF started to monitor initiatives of other organisations and governments in order to
save tropical forests.

In October 1985, FAO (Food and Agricultural Organisation), UNDP (United Nations
Development Programme), WRI (World Resources Institute) and IBRD (The World
Bank) launched the *Tropical Forestry Action Plan*. It was a practical response to
tackle the forest crisis by setting out strategies for reforestation and forest
management. These strategies concentrated on five priority areas:
- forestry in land-use
- forest-based industrial development
- fuelwood and energy
- conservation of tropical forest ecosystems
- institutions.

The plan aimed to improve the food and fuelwood production and tried to increase
the efficiency rate of consumption of those products in order to improve the rural life
of people. The organisations incorporated forestry into agricultural practices, set up
energy programmes and established plantations. They made efforts to promote
wood-based industries and some protected areas. This was brought into effect
through projects in which persons learned to implement conservation and wise use of
the forest resources.

The plan received considerable criticism based on the following three arguments:
- The plan was rather technical. A more political programme was required to
analyse trade-offs and to balance conflicting demands on forest lands.
- The root causes were not grasped in national plans that emphasised on
increased investment into the forestry sector.
- The organisations unfold big projects and did not pay the adequate attention to
debate with local and regional organisations.

WWF urged the organisations to seek a few urgent remedies. It found that actions
should better be concentrated on priority countries. The technical execution teams
should be of a multidisciplinary composition. This way, they would no longer be
directed to forestry applications alone. Establishment of an independent secretariat
would be a necessity to act freely from the mother organisation FAO. More
information must be spread to the various states in order to receive comments that
could improve the plan. On national level, the projects should be more ‘country-driven’ instead of ‘donor-decided’. They should be incorporated into other national plans. Institutional aspects must be enlarged if necessary and finally activities need to be regularly reviewed to raise the quality of action64.

The seminar on the International Tropical Timber Agreement (ITTA), held in London early March 1985, was another initiative in which WWF was involved. Both the consumers and the producers were sitting around the negotiating table, preparing a text on managing, conserving as also exploiting the forest resource42. The International Tropical Timber Organisation started implementing its agreement in 1987. It seemed very valuable because it was the only commodity agreement dealing with rational use and conservation of tropical forests. It was further subscribed by both the trade and environmental organisations65. Positive aspects were the promotion of the sustainable utilisation, the review of the forest management in the member states and the execution of projects aimed at conserving the forest benefits.

On the negative side, it was found that the activities were not on a scale that was large enough to grasp the problems facing tropical forests. The ITTO’s projects were not of equal quality and did not fit into a coherent programme and the organisation did not promote its mission sufficiently on the highest political fora. Furthermore, there was often disagreement between the members about the steps that should be taken66.

WWF recommended ITTO to start working with a strategy plan. The plan must be based on strong co-operation between the concerned groups and providing a clear vision to all interested persons. Targets and data need to indicate the endeavoured purposes. The main problem was in fact that the organisation did not yet demonstrate that “forests can be managed sustainably while yielding adequate revenue to the producer countries67”. In the following the organisation has made a few corrections. It projected a target to be reached in 2000 and also formulated guidelines for a sustainable management of natural tropical forests.

WWF did not only advise other organisations in implementing their forest conservation programmes, but started an increasing lobbying operation to see its plans translated into action by the authorities. It received government support for its attempts in tropical forest conservation in May 198968.

The European Parliament of the European Economic Community adopted at that time a motion proposed by H. Muntingh. The resolution regulated the trade in tropical timber and tropical timber products:
- Export countries received financial support to set up national forest management plans.
- Sustainable harvest of wood leads to less volume per hectare and therefore the ECC provided compensation.
- The ECC would finally cease - after an agreed period - the import from countries not managing its resources sustainably.

4.6 The forest issue incorporated in WWF's mission

WWF has formulated its own viewpoints on sustainable tropical forest management. It has supported or influenced the forest activities of other entities. In order to lobby on all levels, it keeps reviewing its own position. The last years of the 80s were a productive period in forest conservation programming. A situation that was continued in the nineties, when several new programmes were published to fulfil even better the conservation task.

As a consequence of the World Conservation Strategy, WWF strengthened its operative structure and formulated its own objectives for the next century. One of the priority conservation biomes for the organisation were the forests. WWF's mission for forests was therefore concentrated on:
- conserving the biodiversity
- stimulating the sustainability
- developing strategies against pollution effects.

It continued to implement a network of protected areas, as to draw up management plans for those reserves in consultation with the surrounding rural communities. Efforts of education and information campaigns, as well as training facilities were enhanced to create the needed awareness of the value of the forest resources to humankind. On international level, WWF strengthened its policy programmes to urge governments to cooperate in order to adjust policies, laws, conventions, and trade or aid patterns in the direction of conservation of biological and cultural diversity.

Rather new were the actions WWF undertaken to force industries, governments and people to diminish the actual pollution rate. In its public campaigns, the organisation explains the dangers of a rising earth temperature. It further highlights the role played by forests. As absorbers of the green house gases, they are essential to halt the warming up of the earth. Therefore the total forest estate should be protected according to WWF. Where forests are cut down, they need to be replanted. The establishment of plantations with a long rotational period must be stimulated because of their positive effect in reducing the amount of damaging effluents. Another aspect that needs to be stopped is the wasteful consumption of timber. This is partly realised by diversifying the market. A greater number of products in fact permit the consumer utilisation of the most suitable variety for its application.
In its Caring for the Earth strategy, the organisation highlights again the importance of policy programmes directed to the whole range of usable forest products and the various functions provided by forests. A balanced land-use strategy needs to be drawn up to direct the different practices and pressures towards forests, implying eight priority actions:

- setting up a network of protected forests that comprehends the present variety
- maintenance of a permanent area of modified forest
- extension of the surface taken by plantations
- improving the capacity to manage forests sustainably through training of people, control of logging standards, increased comprehensive economical, financial and environmental policies
- increasing the capability of local people to manage forests
- intensifying international co-operation
- market orientation to products from sustainably managed forests
- bringing into force logging taxes and charges ‘to reflect full social cost’.

The implementation of the eight actions should result in the realisation of the next target: “By 2000, the international timber trade should be based on systems of forest management which sustain all forest values. A state of no net deforestation should be reached and a network of protected areas established to protect substantial samples of all types of old-growth forest”. ‘Caring for the Earth’ meant the start of renewed international action. WWF, IUCN and UNEP have increased their cooperation to take on the great challenge of succeeding in sustainable development. In Rio, governments were also urged to start conservation activities.

4.7 Towards Global Forest Strategies

New forest policy programmes have been written down, which respond to the multiple demands of its users. They indicate on the one hand actual interests in preserving rich areas and on the other hand permit the use of present resources. Programmes must also have an answer to changing demands and leave possibilities for future generations. All these issues relate to the principle of sustainability. A common approach can no longer be kept under national wings only, but has to be placed into an international frame.

The outcome of the Rio Conference in 1992 was the publication of an 800-page action document, ‘Agenda 21’. This document included a chapter ‘Combating Deforestation’, where governments saw four areas of interest for forest policy development:

- sustaining the multiple roles and functions of all types of forest, forest lands and woodlands
- enhancing the protection, sustainable management and conservation of all forests and the greening of degraded areas
- promoting efficient utilisation and assessment to recover the full valuation of the goods and services provided by all types of forests
- establishing and/or strengthening capacities for the planning, assessment and systematic observations of forests and related programmes, projects and activities, including commercial trade and processes.

Combating the complex forest problems requires debate on all levels. It further demands for creativeness in finding the consensus solutions. Moreover, plans need to be worked out in detail and placed under a strict schedule. The World Wide Fund for Nature tried to include those aspects in its work. In 1994 a ‘Global Forest Strategy’ was developed by the forest advisory group. It was a comprehensive work, in which the national organisations were involved by consulting them by mail and by personal visits of the strategy responsible to the national departments. The execution of the consensus strategy, assigned in April 1994, would create a ‘paradigm shift’ in forestry thinking: ‘forest activities would in the first place be fixed on the preservation of the biological diversity and would permit timber exploitation where it is not conflicting with the first purpose’.

In the future, WWF hopes to see forests of higher quality and if possible in an enlarged area. Although timber production remains a major activity, environmental safeguards will be developed to protect the various functions and the non-wood products of forests. To realise this picture, WWF sees the following goal: “To halt and reserve the loss and degradation of forests and all kinds of woodlands (particularly old growth forests) by the year 2000”.

The implementation of the following five objectives would contribute to search this goal:

- establishment of a network of ecologically-representative protected areas
- achievement of environmentally appropriate, socially beneficial and economically viable forest management outside protected areas
- development and implementation of ecologically and socially appropriate forest restoration programmes
- reduction of forest damage from global change
- use of forest goods and services at levels that do not damage the environment, including elimination of wasteful consumption.

Each objective received a clear deadline target. All objectives need to be accomplished by the year 2000, except for the fourth objective that is to be attained within a period of 10 years. To succeed in this task, the organisation has clearly set out mechanisms. The final results will only be reached when
- the necessary research is executed,
- when field projects are started,
- and when lobbying and campaign activities were expressly fulfilled.

The preparation of an action plan is the task of the Forest Strategic Team, together with the Forest Advisory Group and the Forest Task Force. Each of the groups is entrusted with a particular task. Providing the programme sub-committees and the programme committee with technical advice on priorities concerning the forest subject is the task of the forest advisory group. The forest strategic team sets out the strategies and programmes to bring into effect the targets. Recently incepted was the forest task force, responsible for improving communications and increasing fundraising for WWF's forest activities73.

The five global objectives and the implementation strategies are to be reviewed on a regular base by the international organisation and its subdivisions. Activities of national and regional governments must also be evaluated. The outcomes can be used for new lobbying and campaign operations72. It has been underlined that a global strategy is not definitive. Changes in political situations or novelties on the scientific level lead to strategy revisions.

4.8 Regional forest strategies

WWF did not solely work out a global plan, but also regional forest strategies. Regional forest strategies address people more directly and results are achieved in a faster way. The formulation of those regional strategies is the work of all relevant WWF staff. It is a job that needs to be reviewed yearly (Fig. 29)74.

Figure 29: The annual forest planning circle74
The planning activity starts with the **Forest Advisory Group** who draws a preliminary transregional plan and gives advice on issues that need to be incorporated into the regional plans. The draft plans are revised by the other operational advisory groups and by the regional sub-committees. The latter are responsible for the elaboration of the regional strategies. National organisations or programme offices develop the country plans that include the appropriate aspects of the global and regional plans for implementation. At the end of the planning year, the revision process starts again and priorities for the next year are determined. Forest strategies are thus drawn up on three levels throughout the whole WWF network (Fig. 30).

**Figure 30**: Forest plans related to WWF’s organisational structure

The first global forest strategy was approved in April 1994. At the same time, regional sub-committees finalised or started working on their forest strategies. Two Sub-Committees already have their own strategy: the African committee and the European committee. The Asia-Pacific region is making its preparations. As of 1994, the only committee that had not started with a regional plan was the Latin American/Caribbean sub-committee.

Since a good length of time forest campaigns had an international character. It has however taken WWF until the UNCED process, before it really concentrated on the state of temperate forests. Previously its forest activities were largely concerned with the conservation of tropical forests. A first proof of its enhanced interest was the publication of the book *‘Forests in trouble’* in 1992. The book drew a comprehensive picture of the state of the temperate forests. A second sign was the formulation of a
European forest strategy, that worked out the five objectives of the global plan into practical applications towards the specific forest situation in Europe.

4.9 Forest Stewardship Council

An important initiative that came into being with the help of WWF staff is the Forest Stewardship Council. The Forest Stewardship Council (FSC) is an “independent, non-profit, non-governmental association”. The association was founded on an Assembly in March 1993 at Toronto, Canada. It is a group composed of representatives from foresters, timber traders, environmental agencies, community forest units, groups of indigenous people, human rights clubs and forest products certification entities. The mission of the FSC is “promoting management of the world’s forests that is environmentally appropriate, socially beneficial, and economically viable”.

The goal of the organisation is to develop a basic guide for sustainable forest management on a world-wide scale. It therefore promotes its ‘principles of good forest management’. By giving the list of principles, one gets an idea of the various aspects included in a forest management plan. Those aspects are often partially found back in strategies of other organisations (as WWF) involved in forest conservation and its sustainability. The first nine principles are already (June 1995) ratified by the organisation, the last principle is a draft proposal:

- Forest management operations shall respect all applicable laws of the country in which they occur and internationally treaties and agreements to which the country is a signatory, and comply with all FSC principles and criteria.
- Long-term tenure and use rights to the land and forest resources shall be clearly defined, documented and legally established.
- The legal and/or customary rights of indigenous people to own, use, and manage their lands, territories, and resources shall be recognised and respected.
- Forest management operations shall maintain or enhance the long-term social and economic well-being of forest workers and local communities.
- Forest management operations shall encourage the optimal and efficient use of the forest’s multiple products and services, in order to ensure economic viability and a wide range of environmental, social and economic benefits.
- Forest management operations shall maintain the critical ecological functions of the forest and minimise adverse impacts on biological diversity, water resources, soils, non-timber resources, and unique and fragile ecosystems and landscapes.
- A management plan consistent with the FSC principles and appropriate to the scale of operations shall be written, implemented and kept up to date, clearly stating the objectives of management, and the means of achieving them.
- Regular monitoring should be conducted that assesses the condition of the forest, yields of forest products, chain of custody, and management operations and their social and environmental impacts.

- Primary forests, well-developed secondary forests and sites of major environmental, social or cultural significance shall be conserved. Such areas shall not be replaced by tree plantations or other land uses.

- Natural forests should not be replaced by tree plantations. Plantations should complement natural forests and reduce pressures on them.

Along with these principles, programmes are established to achieve good forest management. An accreditation programme is worked out with certification organisations to give a certificate to forest products originating from well managed forests of all parts of the world. A country receives it when the majority of the criteria is fulfilled in its national conservation programme and if it committed itself to fulfil the others in the near future. An education programme is meant to improve forest management and to explain the various aspects included in a good management plan. It will also endeavour to expand conservation efforts at home. The FSC promotes the implementation of its principles through political channels. By incorporating aspects in legislation, they want to see the goods and benefits of forests secured.

More action is expected from the decision-makers to change policies in response to the environmental and social problems of forests. The Commission on Sustainable Development is seen as a possible medium to change past trends. At present it represents the largest international forum ever concentrated on the forest issue. It provides an opportunity to develop coherent forest policy programmes. Only a strong action plan that improves previous failures of other organisations and brings up new elements is able to counter the negative forest evolutions.

WWF has given recommendations to incorporate in a global forest policy programme. Increasing the forest estate remains essential, although emphasis is put on the quality of the forests. The concept is rather new and agreement on a definition of forest quality and its managing criteria are urgently required. Pilot projects aimed at introducing new management forms have been launched. Also on the level of research, policy and legislation adaptations must be made. If suitable methods are finally developed, they need to be implemented. In the past, detailed plans are worked out but often failed because no legislation was enforced or no monitoring was accomplished. Recommendations therefore include the implementation of the five objectives of WWF’s global forest strategy in co-operation with local communities.

In the mean time, WWF is working hard to get its policies realised. It sets up projects, it is spreading the information and it is present on different conferences. Authorities are urged to take steps to save their forest estate and to establish an accommodate percentage of protected areas. By supporting the FSC and trading in sustainable
timber by 1995, states and all involved people are able to achieve real changes in the forest sector.\textsuperscript{50}

4.10 Conclusion

WWF started small. Its limited institutional capacity and finances did not permit to grasp complex forest problems in the beginning. It nevertheless was able to set aside a few valuable forests as protected areas. Through high-level representations, it urged governments to start work of forest conservation. Major attention to the issue was given by WWF through setting up a first world-wide campaign in the early seventies. Research on the different forest types and their protection as reserves were a major point. In WWF’s second campaign (1982), human interests were recognised in the drafting of forest management plans. The organisation sought further more co-operation with other conservation entities and called on governments to strengthen the institutional framework. There has been an increased attention for creating public awareness on the importance of forest ecosystems.

Until halfway the eighties the forest issue concentrated largely on tropical forests. WWF’s policies in 1986 indicated a change in directing their activities to all types of forests. It took however until after the UNCED process (in 1992) that the organisation started to tackle the problems of temperate forests. At the same time WWF has broadened its tropical forest programme.

Policy activities in the nineties led to the formulation of forest strategies, based on the following five objectives:

- establishment of a network of ecologically-representative protected areas
- achievement of environmentally appropriate, socially beneficial and economically viable forest management outside protected areas
- development and implementation of ecologically and socially appropriate forest restoration programmes
- reduction of forest damage from global change
- use of forest goods and services at levels that do not damage the environment, including elimination of wasteful consumption.

According to WWF the realisation of those objectives would lead to a forest estate of greater quality, fulfilling the various demands. It is in this way that it is supporting new initiatives as the Forest Stewardship Council and the work of the Commission of Sustainable Development. It continues its lobbying work to alter the policy directions of governments; then should focus on preserving the forest areas and on giving priority to the production from sustainably managed forests.
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