Chapter 4

Environmental Management on African Agenda

Introduction

Insofar as global landmarks for environmental management have sought to influence environmental policy at an abstract level, their impact has been great in influencing continental and sub-continental environmental policies. However, Africa's environmental management agenda still remain very much in the making of donors and other development agencies, such as the World Bank, SIDA, CIDA and DANIDA, which hold financial resources, and the capacity to influence political events. It was only recently that key African institutions such as the Africa Union and the African Development Bank Group have come up with policies governing environmental management. The continent has also engaged in a number of controversial multilateral environmental conventions, such as the Bamako and Basel Conventions on hazardous waste management, and the Kyoto Protocol.

Besides discussing aspects pertaining to the donor community and its environment agenda for Africa, in this chapter the following policy frameworks are discussed: the Bamako Convention of 1991 (OAU Secretariat 1991), the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD 2002), Southern African Development Community's Policy and Strategy for Environment and Sustainable Development (SADC 1996), and the 2003 Regional Indicative Strategic Development Programme (SADC 2003), with the aim of establishing which environmental agenda are being followed.

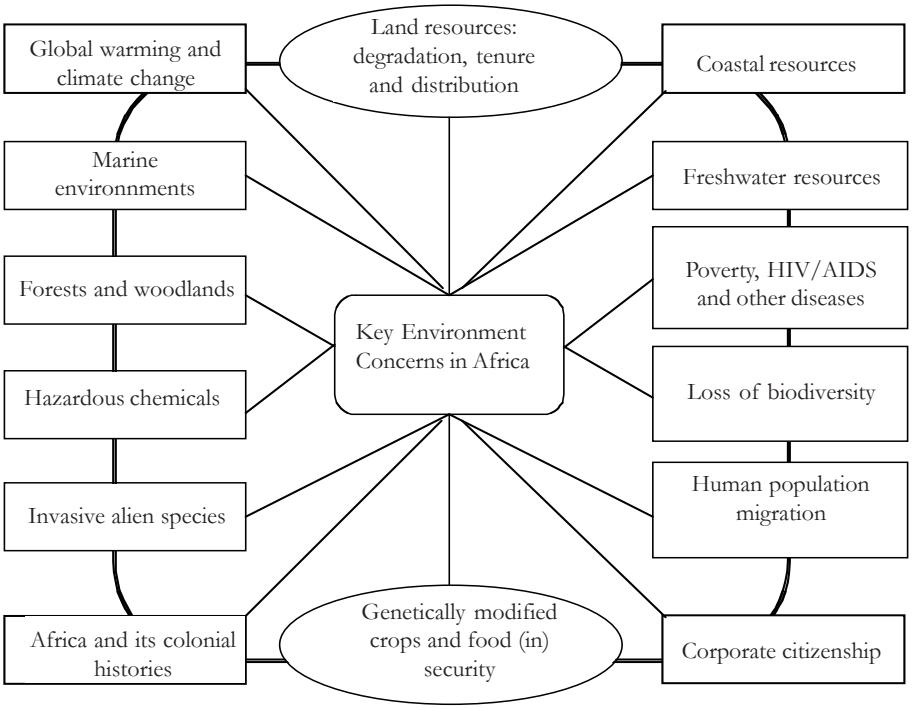
We cannot underestimate (nor should we overemphasise) the role that the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) has played in shaping Africa's environmental agenda. This is mainly due to its close proximity to the African continent, being the sole UN agency with its headquarters in Africa, in Nairobi.

Environmental Concerns in Africa

Environmental concerns in Africa can be mapped as a web, as presented in Figure 4.1. Some of these concerns will be discussed indepth in Chapter Five. Although most of the concerns highlighted in Figure 4.1 are restricted to the African continent, others such as the trans-boundary movement of hazardous chemicals, climate change, and global warming are of an international nature. It is critical to understand these environmental concerns as a web, to be addressed in a holistic manner.

Most donors have failed to do so over the past few decades, probably due to limits in financial resources and local human capacity.

Figure 4.1: Summary of Key Environmental Concerns in Africa



Although Africa is faced with a multitude of environmental concerns, climate change has been identified as a critical environmental and sustainability concern for the twenty-first century. Key environmental issues and crises are increasingly linked to climate change. The changing climate impacts on phenomena such as land resources, freshwater, marine environments, forests and woodlands, biodiversity, poverty, invasive alien species, use of chemicals, disease, food security and corporate citizenship.

UNEP's Role in Shaping Africa's Environmental Agenda

UNEP has been instrumental in shaping both the international and African environment agenda. Its mission is stated thus: 'To provide leadership and encourage partnership in caring for the environment by inspiring, informing, and enabling nations and peoples to improve their quality of life without compromising that of future generations'. To this end, a number of milestones in setting and refining the environmental agenda have been witnessed, as indicated below.

- 1972 - UN Conference on the Human Environment recommends creation of a UN environmental organisation

- 1972 - UNEP created by UN General Assembly
- 1973 - Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES)
- 1975 - Mediterranean Action Plan first UNEP-brokered Regional Seas agreement
- 1979 - Bonn Convention on Migratory Species
- 1985 - Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer
- 1987 - Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer
- 1988 - Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)
- 1989 - Basel Convention on the Transboundary Movement of Hazardous Wastes
- 1992 - UN Conference on Environment and Development (Earth Summit) publishes Agenda 21, a blueprint for sustainable development
- 1992 - Convention on Biological Diversity
- 1995 - Global Programme of Action (GPA) launched to protect marine environment from land-based sources of pollution
- 1997 - Nairobi Declaration redefines and strengthens UNEP's role and mandate
- 1998 - Rotterdam Convention on Prior Informed Consent
- 2000 - Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety adopted to address issue of genetically modified organisms
- 2000 - Malmö Declaration - first Global Ministerial Forum on the Environment calls for strengthened international environmental governance
- 2000 - Millennium Declaration - environmental sustainability included as one of eight Millennium Development Goals
- 2001 - Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs)
- 2002 - World Summit on Sustainable Development
- 2004 - Bali Strategic Plan for Technology Support and Capacity Building
- 2005 - Millennium Ecosystem Assessment highlights the importance of ecosys tems to human well-being, and the extent of ecosystem decline
- 2005 - World Summit outcome document highlights key role of environment in sustainable development.

Donors and the African Environmental Agenda

Africa's environmental agenda has been, and is currently, strongly driven by donors and aid agencies. However, more recently, African institutions such as the African Development Bank, have also established environmental agenda for the continent.

The World Bank's Environment Strategy

The World Bank's (hereafter referred to as the Bank) environmental agenda was partially shaped by criticisms of its pro-economic developmental agenda from the mid-1980s to mid-1990s. To this end, the Bank sought to broaden its environment agenda, particularly in the late 1990s (World Bank 1998), by accepting that sustainable development can only be achieved if activities are sustainable at both global and local levels. The Bank decided that helping partner countries to improve their environmental management capacity and mainstreaming environmental sustainability principles into development programmes were at the core of its business. Pilot projects to test new instruments for environmental management, such as the Ugandan Institutional Capacity Project for Wildlife and Tourism, focusing on strengthening institutions, staff training and public/private partnerships to promote ecotourism, were funded. Pollution abatement projects were also established in Egypt in 1998. In South Africa, 'green accounting' initiatives were launched in the same year.

The Bank's ultimate environment agenda was set out in the document: *Making Sustainable Commitments: An Environment Strategy for the World Bank* (World Bank 2001). The environment strategy outlines how the Bank intended to work with client countries to address their environmental challenges and ensure that Bank projects and programmes integrate principles of environmental sustainability.

Prior to 2000, one of the central pillars, in terms of environmental concerns, for the Bank, had been the development of National Environmental Action Plans (NEAPs). Many of the Bank's client countries were assisted in developing NEAPs. The main criticism was that they were not adequately implemented. They failed to network into other ongoing government initiatives aimed at addressing environmental concerns, particularly on a national scale.

In its 2006 annual report (World Bank 2006), the Bank recognised the need to work towards the achievement of the MDGs, including Goal 7, which aims at ensuring environmental sustainability. The Bank focuses on supporting agriculture in Africa. Agriculture is linked to integrated natural resource management such as protecting watersheds, sustaining increased investment in irrigation and drainage, supporting effective forest law enforcement and sound governance, and promoting efforts to enhance the resilience of farms, forests, and fisheries to climate change. The Bank is also involved in a new multi-donor initiative, code-named PROFISH, addressing the threat of collapsing fish stocks. Furthermore, the global threat of *zoonoses* (diseases that can be transmitted from animals to humans), such as 'mad cow' disease and avian flu, has brought the issue of livestock management and animal health back to the top of the development agenda, for the World Bank, and globally.

The Bank has also stated that global warming and climate change are at the top of its developmental agenda. The Bank reckons that the international community is faced with a serious crisis of securing affordable and cost-effective energy supplies. In this regard, it has put in place a Clean Energy and Development Strategy aimed

at addressing the energy needs of developing and newly industrialised countries. The strategy involves addressing bottlenecks to accessing energy services, controlling greenhouse gas emissions, and helping developing countries adapt to climate risks (World Bank 2006). In the eyes of the Bank, an extensive array of technologies exist that can provide the requisite energy services. But policy reform in the energy sector is urgently needed to stimulate roughly US$300 billion of investment required per year. With regard to climate change, the Bank acknowledges that the poorest countries, especially in Africa, and their poorest citizens are among the most vulnerable. As such, adapting to climate variability and change is a priority for developing countries and will require the transfer of existing technologies, the development of new ones, and the revision of existing planning standards and systems.

In supporting environmental sustainability, the Bank assists developing countries in meeting the cross-cutting goal of ensuring environmental sustainability by integrating environmental concerns into all development-related work (World Bank 2006). This is done through the implementation of its environment strategy (World Bank 2001). It addresses the links between environment, poverty and economic growth, with a particular emphasis on the health, livelihoods and the vulnerability of poor people. The Bank is also working with partner countries to systematically evaluate their environmental priorities, the environmental implications of key policies, and their capacity to address development priorities and related environmental concerns. To monitor progress towards achieving the MDGs, focusing on environmental sustainability, the Bank has put in place a set of measures to assess changes in natural wealth, which are taking place in developing countries. A summary of the Bank's lending to borrowers in Africa from 2001–6 is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: World Bank Lending to Borrowers in Africa (US$, millions)

THEME	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Economic Management	138.5	138.7	37.8	68.0	46.5	31.4
Environmental and Natural Resource Management	110.0	159.9	227.0	195.2	217.2	250.6
Financial and Private Sector Development	625.8	780.7	383.6	810.9	768.2	979.1
Human Development	399.4	739.0	811.4	618.2	620.2	673.3
Public Sector Governance	429.6	851.9	432.4	818.4	708.0	964.7
Rule of Law	34.0	22.5	34.5	28.3	30.9	179.7
Rural Development	296.3	329.2	384.1	360.7	537.2	528.6
Social Development, Gender, and Inclusion	491.8	347.4	420.0	374.3	221.8	198.5
Social Protection and Risk Management	376.4	98.3	543.7	209.2	294.3	262.7
Trade and Integration	261.5	46.4	37.2	371.5	232.0	413.1
Urban Development	206.1	279.6	425.5	261.1	211.4	304.9
Theme Total	**3,369.6**	**3,793.5**	**3,737.2**	**4,115.9**	**3,887.5**	**4,786.6**

Source: World Bank, 2006:33.

It is of interest to note how the Bank has gradually increased its lending towards the environmental and natural resource management sector. The amount allocated has more than doubled since 2001. This explains how the Bank is actively involved in shaping environmental agenda on the continent. The bottom line is that only environmental and natural resource management projects, in which the Bank has an interest and are eligible for the Bank's borrowing benefit can receive funding. This alone creates an uneven terrain in addressing environmental concerns on the continent.

CIDA's Policy for Environmental Sustainability

In 1992, CIDA put in place its policy for environmental sustainability. The policy acknowledges the global nature of a number of environmental problems. The conditions necessary to sustain development and quality of life in developed and developing nations are linked. The degradation of natural resources is identified as the key factor limiting development potential of countries in the South and the North alike (CIDA 1992). The policy document identifies factors limiting developing nations to address both local and global environmental problems. Such factors include poverty, and the inequitable control of resources, coupled with differing attitudes and levels of knowledge about the environment on the part of both individuals and societies. Other factors outlined are macroeconomic pressures, such as low commodity prices and debt burdens, inadequate financial and human resources, underdeveloped institutional and technological capabilities, inadequate opportunities for people to participate meaningfully in the development process, inappropriate or narrow economic and social policies, and inadequate incentives for environmentally-sound behaviour.

CIDA's environmental agenda in Africa and other developing regions dates back to four decades. In the early 1980s, CIDA supported the creation of environmental monitoring and teaching institutions. The agency also adopted an environment policy that led to the application of procedures for routine environmental screening and assessment of development projects in the late 1980s. These initiatives have resulted in CIDA being recognised as one of the key stakeholders in environmental management on the continent. The agency has also provided support to NGOs, universities and private-sector organisations striving to integrate environmental considerations into development initiatives. Many of CIDA's country and response programmes have resulted in the preparation of environmental strategies as part of the programme plans. In the case of Zimbabwe, CIDA was actively involved in the development of the National Environmental Management Act that passed through parliament in December 2002. Regardless of its – much appreciated – efforts in assisting developing countries to address environmental damage, CIDA believes that much is outstanding. To this end, its 1992 Policy for Environmental Sustainability recognises that there is need for an interdisciplinary approach in analysing programme and project design, as well as following cross-sectoral ecosystem approaches to project implementation. The agency also advocates the promotion of sound do-

mestic and international economic policies. The 1992 policy acknowledges that environmental problems are often severe in poor communities. They tend to arm the disadvantaged and disempowered disproportionately: the poor, the disabled, women, children and indigenous peoples. The policy calls for renewed efforts, both from the rural and urban communities, to address the socio-economic needs of such disadvantaged groups, an aspect which would arguably yield environmental benefits. This policy for environmental sustainability stresses its mission as supporting sustainable development in developing countries. Sustainable development is taken as embracing the five pillars of economic, environmental, social, cultural and political sustainability. Hence, there are five related aspects to the concept of sustainability (CIDA 1992:5–6).

Achieving Economic Sustainability

This requires appropriate economic policies, efficient resource allocation and use, more equitable control over resources, and increased productive capacity among the poor.

Achieving Social Sustainability

This means more equitable income distribution, and ensuring the participation of intended beneficiaries, and those who may be affected, in the decision making which affect their lives.

Attaining Cultural Sustainability

This requires sensitivity to cultural factors, including cultural diversity, and a recognition of cultural values conducive to development.

Attaining Political Sustainability

This aspect is premised on the assurance of human rights and the promotion of democratic development and good governance.

Achieving Environmental Sustainability

Ecosystems should be protected and managed to maintain both their economically productive and their ecological functions, the diversity of life in both human-managed and natural systems, to protect the environment from pollution, and maintain the quality of land, air and water.

In line with the need to help developing countries achieve environmental sustainability, CIDA's policy for environmental sustainability seeks to pursue the following environmental sustainability and operational objectives.

Environmental Sustainability Objectives

- increase the institutional, human resource and technological capacities of developing country governments, organisations and communities to plan and im-

plement development policies, programmes and activities that are environmentally sustainable;

- strengthen the capability of developing countries to contribute to the resolution of global and regional environmental problems, while meeting their development objectives.

Operational Objectives

- ensure that environmental considerations, including opportunities for enhancing environmental sustainability, are integrated into sector and cross-sector programmes, programme assistance, and project planning and implementation, taking into account views of beneficiaries and local communities;
- promote and support environmental and broader socio-economic policy dialogue, programme assistance and projects that directly address environmental issues;
- implement design measures that minimise negative environmental impacts and enhance environmental benefits of projects, or identify alternatives;
- encourage and support Canadian, international and developing country partner organisations to develop policies, programmes and projects that further the objectives of environmental sustainability;
- contribute to the development of knowledge and experience in Canada and in developing countries, on undertaking environmentally sustainable forms of development;
- promote education and awareness among governments and the public in Canada and in developing countries of the importance of environmentally sustainable approaches to development.

That environmental sustainability encompasses political aspects, strengthens our earlier arguments that the environment is as much a political matter as an environmental and social matter. However, CIDA's policy is still rather silent on how it plans to address sensitive enviro-political issues, notably the land question in Africa.

DANIDA's Environmental Strategy, 2004–2008

The Strategy for Denmark's Environmental Assistance to Developing Countries 2004–2008 outlines targets, principles and priorities for Denmark's environmental and environmentally related assistance to developing countries. The strategy recognises poverty alleviation as the outstanding challenge and as a prerequisite for stable, sustainable development (DANIDA 2004). The Danish government also realises that it is necessary to enhance the environmental sustainability of aid programmes, so as to secure global stability and development. To this end, the development policy was strengthened through a significant focus on the environment. Again, we witness the environmental management agenda being widened to capture poverty, to which early agenda found it difficult to relate, and integrate into environmental manage-

ment. According to DANIDA, the strengthening of environmental assistance in developing countries involves the incorporation of special environmental assistance into general development programmes.

The environment, as a cross-cutting issue, will receive increased attention, with international environmental activities allocated increased funding. One of the key environmental problems on the Danish agenda is the effort to combat global warming. This includes a focus on the correlation between environmental assistance and the use of the Kyoto Protocol's flexible mechanisms, particularly the CDM. Hence over time, and in view of the dynamism of environmental problems and challenges, DANIDA is spearheading an agenda to address global warming.

The DANIDA strategy stands out as the basis for the actual implementation of environmental assistance in developing countries. It covers an entire range of activities in developmental cooperation, including: environment as a cross-cutting issue, environment in multilateral cooperation, environmental issues in programme cooperation, and special environmental assistance. The integration of special environmental assistance into regular development sector programmes implies that the aim of environmental assistance to developing countries is to increase sustainable development, and as an integrated part of poverty alleviation to limit the damage to the environment. Developing countries will be assisted with environmental challenges by enhancing their ability to take responsibility for the environment themselves.

The strategy will be implemented through partnerships with the cooperating countries. It is based on national strategies for poverty reduction and sustainable development. Other issues of interest include gender equality, human rights and democracy (including good governance). These are considered cross-cutting issues. They also feature on CIDA's agenda for environmental management. Likewise, multilateral environmental efforts will be governed by the principles of active multilateralism. Coordination and synergy between bilateral and multilateral environmental efforts will be a priority, for example, in the implementation of international conventions, and in the attention paid to the environment as a cross-cutting issue in the bilateral cooperation components of the work of international organisations. Environmental assistance is governed by existing guidelines for development aid, including 'A Strategy for the Support to the Development of Civil Society' (which also covers cooperation with Danish NGOs) and 'Aid Management Guidelines'. Special development assistance covers poor countries as well as a number of middle-income ones. The existing assistance has contributed to the development and implementation of the protection of nature and the environment, and to sustainable development. In middle-income countries, with rapidly growing environmental problems, assistance has contributed to efficient solutions that have also benefited other countries in the respective regions. Special environmental assistance will therefore be sustained in poor and middle-income countries.

Environmental assistance will simultaneously support the implementation of the Danish government's climate strategy, through the development of projects that can subsequently lead to purchases of carbon credits from developing countries.

The contribution towards the fulfilment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is another benchmark against which Danish environmental assistance will be measured. The DANIDA strategy recognises that only a few countries have prioritised the relationship between poverty and the environment in their national poverty reduction strategies. This element cannot be over-emphasised, bearing in mind that the World Bank and International Monitory Fund mechanisms, under which most African countries' poverty reduction strategies were developed, did not have an environmental management component. The DANIDA strategy calls for a need to develop methods and tools to ensure this happens more frequently. The strategy also advocates the need to continue efforts to make the environment a priority in international organisations, and in development banks. Probably, this is the reason why the African Development Bank Group is initiating a policy for addressing Africa's environmental challenges. Special environmental assistance has had particularly good results in projects involving urban environment, sustainable energy, and in the management of natural resources. South Africa, for example, has embarked on a bilateral Urban Environmental Management Programme funded by DANIDA, running from 2006 to 2010.

The main priorities and operational targets for Denmark's international environmental assistance and cooperation with the developing countries for the period 2004–8 are to (DANIDA 2004:7–8):

- improve sustainable development and limit environmental degradation at global, national and local levels within the overall development policy objective of poverty alleviation. This will happen through assistance in management of environmental challenges and by enhancing the developing countries' ability ultimately to bear the responsibility themselves;
- upgrade the environment as a crosscutting issue in the bilateral as well as multilateral development cooperation. Special attention will be paid to the incorporation of environmental issues in national poverty reduction strategies, to national strategies for sustainable development and to environmental analyses in sector programmes;
- continue to prioritise assistance to focused development and the implementation of international environmental conventions and agreements – including the plan of action from the World Summit for Sustainable Development that took place in 2002 in Johannesburg – in bilateral and multilateral development cooperation;
- upgrade and strengthen international environmental cooperation within multilateral assistance – particularly with regard to efforts involving water, energy, chemicals and climate. This will include increased contributions to the global climate foundations;
- work for a substantial replenishment of funds in the Global Environmental Facility (GEF);

- focus the bilateral and the special environmental assistance on three areas: urban and industrial environment, sustainable energy and management of natural resources;
- continue special environmental assistance in Southern Africa, in the Republic of South Africa, Mozambique, Zambia and Tanzania and to start a similar programme in Kenya;
- re-organise the special environmental assistance by applying a long-term programme approach in line with the sector programme assistance used in traditional development aid;
- concentrate cooperation on Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) projects in five countries: South Africa, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia and China.

These points set a clear environmental management agenda for Africa. In addition, the specification of countries with which DANIDA will be working in the context of its special environmental assistance programme brings an interesting dimension to donor aid. For example, in SADC, DANIDA will be working with South Africa, Mozambique and Tanzania. In East Africa, it will be working with Kenya. DANIDA will also be concentrating on cooperation over the CDM projects with South Africa. Hence, the CDM environmental agenda is being promulgated, but with a single country on the continent: South Africa.

African Development Bank Group's Policy on the Environment

The 2004 African Development Bank Group's Policy on the Environment (hereby referred to as the policy) was driven by a number of factors: the recognition and acceptance of sustainable development as the dominant development paradigm for this century; a need for a greater focus on pro-poor growth policies and programmes to counter unacceptable impoverishment rates; rapid progress in the inevitable integration of Africa into the globalisation process; and the need for improved governance with a clearer commitment by the majority of African governments to provide the necessary leadership for sustainable development (African Development Bank 2004:iii).

The Bank's policy acknowledges the significant progress made in the implementation of Agenda 21, adopted at the 1992 Rio Earth Summit; the ratification of a large number of environmental conventions, agreements and protocols; and the growing use of MDGs as a measure of development. The policy recognises the ongoing degradation of the environment across the continent, in spite of significant strides made at national and regional levels to establish the necessary legal and institutional frameworks. But, above all, the policy takes into consideration the various opportunities, in terms of resources and skills, available to Africa for its development, and for the improvement of the overall quality of life of its people. Critical is its acknowledgment of the availability of African capacity to deal with its own environmental challenges.

The Bank's policy framework embraces the concept of sustainable development as expressed in the provisions of the 1987 Brundtland Commission. It recognises, however, that although the principles of sustainability have been globally accepted for decades, their translation into specific environmental management strategies has been fraught with practical and theoretical problems. However, the growing evidence of the rapid deterioration of ecological capital and diminishing assimilative capacities of ecosystems, coupled with the global scale of environmental problems, have forced policymakers to rethink their development strategies, and to accept that the environment and the economy are interdependent. Sustainable development is widely recognised as the preferred development paradigm.The environment policy stresses the anticipatory nature of sustainable development, rather than the reactive responses so predominant in development-related decisions. In adopting the concept of sustainable development as an environmental policy framework, care is taken to recognise the considerable constraints on Africa.

The Bank acknowledges that large parts of the continent are still threatened by growing poverty and disparity in wealth distribution, both nationally and regionally. Faced with such constraints, many African countries have not been able to make progress in the transition from normative standards to operational programmes in sustainable development. The Bank also attests to the effects of globalisation, and the decreasing flows of development assistance, which have significantly and negatively affected the ability of the poorest nations to deal with environmental challenges. However, the policy recognises that there have been a number of achievements: awareness creation, capacity building, reinforcement of legislative, institutional and regulatory frameworks, and integration of environmental concerns into national economic development strategies. New threats have, however, surfaced since 1992, with HIV/AIDS becoming a major development crisis. Sub-Saharan Africa alone represents 70 per cent of the world's population living with HIV/AIDS.

The Bank's policy acknowledges that Africa is endowed with a rich resource base consisting of minerals, rich flora and fauna, and large tracts of rainforests. These can provide a basis for industrial development and eco-tourism. Its rich biodiversity constitutes essential global public goods that not only provide sources of non-timber forest products, but also help attract larger amounts of international funding for preservation. Economic growth, however, translates into increased economic activities that generate social and environmental costs and benefits. Such externalities constitute potent threats to the economic system, leading to market failures. To this end, there is a need to enhance the positive, whilst integrating social and environmental concerns into economic development policies to reduce or internalise the negative externalities.

From the Bank's viewpoint, environmental concerns are now routinely integrated into country dialogue processes and project design. There is now widespread recognition among Bank and regional member country staff that sustainable development and poverty reduction cannot be divorced from the global environment, and that local-to-global linkages must be made. The Bank also recognises the importance

of cooperation with sub-regional and international partners in environment policies to build on efforts aimed at enhancing environmental management.

In line with the conceptual framework adopted to handle the development challenges and priorities facing Africa, the policy supports the creation of the right conditions that allow as many stakeholders as possible to play their role in achieving sustainable development. The overall goals of the policy are two-fold: to help improve the quality of life of the people of Africa; and to help preserve and enhance the ecological capital and life-support systems across the continent. Some of the principles that have guided the development of the policy include the recognition that a strong and diversified economy constitutes a just means to enhance the capacity for environmental protection; environmental management tools, such as environmental assessments, should be used as a sustainability assurance, rather than as a mechanism of mitigation; community involvement, in particular of the most marginalised and vulnerable groups, in decisions that affect them, must be provided for; and governance structures and institutions most responsive to the needs and priorities of affected communities in general, and poor people and vulnerable groups in particular, should be encouraged.

The policy replaced the Bank's traditional sector-by-sector approach in the management of natural resources with cross-sectoral environmental policy actions based on an integrated approach. Such an approach ensures optimum results that will simultaneously help to meet basic human needs and protect the environment. The key environmental issues identified include: reversing land degradation and desertification, protecting the coastal zone, protecting global public goods, enhancing disaster management capabilities, promoting sustainable industry, increasing awareness, institutional and capacity building, environmental governance, urban development and population growth, and civil society organisations (African Development Bank 2004).

To assist in the implementation of the policy, the Bank is using a set of approaches that include: mainstreaming environmental sustainability considerations in all the Bank's operations; strengthening existing environmental assessment procedures and developing new environmental management tools; clearly demarcating internal responsibility in implementation; assisting in the building of adequate human and institutional capacity to deal with environmental management; improving public consultation and information disclosure mechanisms; building partnerships to address environmental issues, harmonise policies, and disseminate environmental information; and improving the monitoring and evaluation of operations. Specifically, the Environmental and Social Assessment Procedures released in 2001 will be fully enforced for all lending operations of the Bank. As policy lending is becoming increasingly important, Strategic Impact Assessment (SIA) procedures will be developed to bring environmental assessments upstream, by assessing the impacts of policies, programmes and plans, rather than conducting environmental impact assessment at project level.

New Partnership for Africa's Development

To address the ills of unsustainable development, NEPAD has put in place an Action Plan for the Environment Initiative (NEPAD 2002). The initiative notes that Africa is rich in natural resources, including land, minerals, biological diversity, wildlife, freshwater, fisheries and forests. However, rapid population growth, rising poverty levels (including the widening gap between the rich and the poor) and inappropriate development practices are major factors leading to degraded environments (UNEP 2003). The NEPAD initiative sets seven action plans, grouped according to areas of concern or programmes. Some of the programmes include: integrated waste and pollution control, the management of cities, and the management of coastal and marine resources (NEPAD 2002).

Sub-regional Environmental Sustainability Initiatives

At the SADC sub-regional level, issues of sustainability and the environment are dealt with in two documents: the 1996 SADC Policy and Strategy for Environment and Sustainable Development (SADC 1996), and the 2003 Regional Indicative Strategic Development Programme (SADC 2003). The Strategy for Environment and Sustainable Development was drawn up following the Rio Summit in 1992. The document provides an overall framework to guide good environment management. Five broad strategic areas that would facilitate sustainability in development were identified: assessing environmental conditions, trends and programmes made and needed for sustainable development; minimising significant threats to human beings, ecosystems and future developments; a call to move away from unsustainable to sustainable development for the benefit of all generations; managing shared natural resources in an equitable and sustainable manner; and increasing regional integration and capacity building for sustainable development.

The implementation plan was designed around sectoral responsibilities that were shared by the member countries. Some of the sectoral responsibilities included environment and land management, given to Lesotho, mining (Zambia), energy (Angola), fisheries (Malawi) and food security (Zimbabwe). In 2003, SADC launched its Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan – RISDP (SADC 2003) aimed at re-orienting developmental strategies. RISDP re-grouped sectoral responsibilities under new cluster directorates that include trade, industry, finance and investment; infrastructure and services; food, agriculture and natural resources; and social and human development and special programmes. The environment is dealt with in the food, agriculture and natural resources cluster. RISDP takes the environment and sustainable development as one of eight cross-cutting priority areas. The document also recognises efforts made by member states to address environmental concerns since the early 1980s. These are reflected in the ratification of major multilateral environmental agreements such as the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, Convention to Combat Desertification, Convention of Biological Diversity, Basel/Bamako Conventions, the Millennium Development Goal and many

more. However, RISPD notes that there are still high levels of pollution as well as poor sanitation and urban conditions whereby the poor become both victims and agents of environmental degradation.

To address problems associated with environmental degradation (SADC 2003: 101), RISDP sets the overall goal of environmental intervention so as 'to ensure the equitable and sustainable use of the environment and natural resources for the benefit of present and future generations'. Five areas of focus are established: create the requisite harmonised policy environment as well as legal and regulatory frameworks; promote environmental mainstreaming in order to ensure the responsiveness of all SADC policies, strategies and programmes for sustainable development; ensure regular assessment, monitoring and reporting on environmental conditions and trends in the region; capacity building, information sharing and awareness raising on problems and perspectives in environmental stewardship; and ensure coordinated regional positions in the negotiations and implementation of multilateral environmental agreements.

Seven broad strategies are set out. Similarly, nine broad targets are set with instruments for regional cooperation. These were due for finalisation in December 2006. Environmental standards and guidelines developed were being implemented in 2008. State of the environmental reports for southern Africa are to be produced regularly at five-year intervals. SADC's plan of action for implementing the WSSD Implementation Plan was in place by 2004, and the principle of sustainable development should be integrated into national policies and programmes by 2015.

Controversy on Hazardous Waste Management

The Bamako Convention on the Ban of the Import into Africa and the Control of Transboundary Movement and Management of Hazardous Wastes within Africa provides guidelines for the management of hazardous wastes by member states of the OAU. It is named after the Malian capital, Bamako, in which it was adopted. The Bamako Convention was adopted on 30 January 1991 (OAU Secretariat 1991) as an alternative to the Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes (Basel Convention) adopted in March 1989 in Switzerland. OAU members felt that their concerns regarding the total ban on exporting hazardous wastes into Africa and other relevant regional aspects were not adequately addressed by the Basel convention. Article 1 provides several definitions, among them, for 'wastes', 'hazardous wastes' and 'transboundary movement'. Under Article 1(1), wastes are defined as 'substances or materials which are disposed of, or are intended to be disposed of, or are required to be disposed of by the provisions of national law'. Hazardous wastes, as per the provisions of Article 1(2) means wastes, as specified in Box 4.1, and those with characteristics outlined in Table 4.2. Under Article 1(4), trans-boundary movement refers to 'any movement of hazardous wastes from an area under the national jurisdiction of any State to or through an area under the national jurisdiction of another State, or to or through an area not under the national jurisdiction of another State, provided at least two States are involved

in the movement'. Also of interest is what the Bamako Convention refers to as 'environmentally sound management of hazardous wastes', which in Article 1(10) means 'taking all practicable steps to ensure that hazardous wastes are managed in a manner which will protect human health and the environment against the adverse effects which may result from such wastes'. The Bamako Convention also stipulates definitions (Articles 11–23) in relation to 'area under the national jurisdiction of a State', 'state of export', 'state of import', 'state of transit', 'states concerned', 'person', 'exporter', 'importer', 'carrier', 'generator', 'disposer', 'illegal traffic', and 'dumping at sea' (OAU Secretariat 1991).

Box 4.1: Streams of Hazardous Wastes

The taxonomy of hazardous waste is as follows:

Y0 All wastes containing or contaminated by radionuclides, the concentration or properties of which result from human activity

Y1 Clinical wastes from medical care in hospitals, medical centers and clinics

Y2 Wastes from the production and preparation of pharmaceutical products

Y3 Waste pharmaceuticals, drugs and medicines

Y4 Wastes from the production, formulation and use of biocides and phyto-pharmaceuticals

Y5 Wastes from the manufacture, formulation and use of wood preserving chemicals

Y6 Wastes from the production, formulation and use of organic solvents

Y7 Wastes from heat treatment and tempering operations containing cyanides

Y8 Waste mineral oils unfit for their originally intended use

Y9 Waste oils/water, hydrocarbons/water mixtures, emulsions

Y10 Waste substances and articles containing or contaminated with polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and/or polychlorinated terphenyls (PCTs) and/or polybrominated biphenyls (PBBs)

Y11 Waste tarry residues arising from refining, distillation and any pyrolytic treatment

Y12 Wastes from production, formulation and use of inks, dyes, pigments, paints, lacquers, varnish

Y13 Wastes from production, formulation and use latex, plasticizers, glues/adhesives

Y14 Waste chemical substances arising from research and development or teaching activities which are not identified and/or are new and whose effects on man and/or the environment are not known

Y15 Wastes of an explosive nature not subject to other legislation

Y16 Wastes from production, formulation and use of photographic chemicals and processing materials

Y17 Wastes resulting from surface treatment of metals and plastics residues arising from industrial waste disposal operations

Y18 Wastes collected from households, including sewage and sewage sludges

Y47 Residues arising from the incineration of household wastes
Wastes having as constituents:

Y19 Metal carbonyls

Y20 Beryllium; beryllium compounds

Y21 Hexavalent chromium compounds

Y22 Copper compounds

Y23 Zinc compounds

Y24 Arsenic; arsenic compounds

Y25 Selenium; selenium compounds

Y26 Cadmium; cadmium compounds

Y27 Antimony; antimony compounds

Y28 Tellurium; tellurium compounds

Y29 Mercury; mercury compounds

Y30 Thallium; thallium compounds

Y31 Lead; lead compounds

Y32 Inorganic fluorine compounds excluding calcium fluoride

Y33 Inorganic cyanides

Y34 Acidic solutions or acids in solid form

Y35 Basic solutions or bases in solid form

Y36 Asbestos (dust and fibres)

Y 37 Organic phosphorous compounds

Y38 Organic cyanides

Y39 Phenols; phenol compounds including chlorophenols

Y40 Ethers

Y41 Halogenated organic solvents

Y42 Organic solvents excluding halogenated solvents

Y43 Any congener of polychlorinated dibenzo-furan

Y44 Any congener of polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin

Y45 Organohalogen compounds other than substances referred to in this Annex (e.g., Y39, Y41, Y42, Y43, Y44).

Table 4.2: Characteristics of Hazardous Wastes

Class*	Characteristics
1	1 H1 Explosive An explosive substance or waste is a solid or liquid substance or waste (or mixture of substances or wastes) which is in itself capable by chemical reaction or producing gas at such a temperature and pressure and at such a speed as to cause damage to the surroundings.
3	H3 Flammable liquids The word "flammable" has the same meaning as "inflammable". Flammable liquids are liquids, or mixtures of liquids, or liquids containing solids in solution or suspension (for example paints, varnishes, lacquers, etc., but not including substances or wastes otherwise classified on account of their dangerous characteristics) which give off a flammable vapour at temperatures of not more than 60.5 degrees C, closed-cup test, or not more than 65.6 degrees C, open-cup test. (Since the results of open-cup tests and of closed-cup tests are not strictly comparable and even individual results by the same test are often variable, regulations varying from the above figures to make allowance for such difference would be within the spirit of this definition).
4.1	H4.1 Flammable solids, or waste solids, other than those classed as explosives, which under conditions encountered in transport are readily combustible, or may cause or contribute to fire through friction.
4.2	H4.2 Substances or wastes liable to spontaneous combustion Substances or wastes which are liable to spontaneous heating under normal conditions encountered in transport, or to heating up on contact with air, and being then liable to catch fire.
4.3	H4.3 Substances or wastes which, in contact with water emit flammable gases Substances or wastes which, by interaction with water, are liable to become spontaneously flammable or to give off flammable gases in dangerous quantities.
5.1	H5.1 Oxidizing Substances or wastes which, while in themselves not necessarily combustible, may, generally by yielding oxygen, cause or contribute to the combustion of other materials.
5.2	H5.2 Organic peroxides Organic substances or wastes which contain the bivalent-O-O-structure are thermally unstable substances which may undergo exothermic self accelerating decomposition.
6.1	H6.1 Poisonous (Acute) Substances or wastes liable either to cause death or serious injury or to harm human health if swallowed or inhaled or by skin contact.
6.2	6H6.2 Infectious substances Substances or wastes containing viable micro organisms or their toxins which are known or suspected to cause disease in animals or humans.
8	H8 Corrosives Substances or wastes which, by chemical action, will cause severe damage when in contact with living tissue, or in the case of leakage, will materially damage, or even destroy, other goods or the means of transport; they may also cause other hazards.
9	H10 Liberation of toxic gases in contact with air or water Substances or wastes which, by interaction with air or water, are liable to give off toxic gases in dangerous quantities. H11 Toxic (Delayed or chronic) Substances or wastes which, if they are inhaled or ingested or if they penetrate the skin, may involve delayed or chronic effects, including carcinogenicity. H12 Ecotoxic Substances or wastes which if released present or may present immediate or delayed adverse impacts to the environment by means of bioaccumulation and/or toxic effects upon biotic systems. H13 Capable, by any means, after disposal, of yielding another material, e.g., leachate, which possesses any of the characteristics listed above.

* As adopted from hazardous classification system included in the United Nations Recommendations on the transport of Dangerous Goods (ST/SG/AC.10/1/Rev.5, United Nations, New York 1988).

Source: OAU Secretariat 1991.

From the provision of Article 3, on becoming party to the Bamako Convention, member states are obliged to inform the secretariat of other wastes they consider hazardous. This is supposed to be done within six months. Inasmuch as the Bamako Convention stands out as a distinctive and beautiful piece of legislation, its test has been in its implementation. How many countries party to it have managed to resist the importation of hazardous wastes? This question threatened to split the African Union (then the OAU), as some countries have also ratified the Basel convention. The Waste Management Act of 1998 for Botswana (Government of Botswana 1998) makes provisions for the application of the Basel convention. Section 45 (1) outlines that the Basel Convention, including 'any amendments, appendices and resolutions thereto, shall apply in regulating the trans-boundary movement of waste'. Regulations may be promulgated in order to (Section 45 a and b): make such provision as appears necessary or expedient for the carrying out of and giving effect to the Basel Convention; and impose fees and provide for the recovery of any expenditure incurred in giving effect to the Basel Convention.

South Africa has also acceded to the Basel Convention (DEAT 2000). As one of the emerging economies in Africa, particularly in southern Africa, the fact that South Africa is party to the Basel Convention places it in the limelight, as a number of other countries in the SADC region have ratified the rival Bamako Convention. Being in the forefront of promoting NEPAD, the fact that South Africa allows the importation of hazardous wastes into its territory negatively impacts on its leading role in promoting sustainable waste management in the continent.

The ills of imported hazardous substances are probably best illustrated by events that took place at Thor Chemicals, a former British company based in South Africa's Kwazulu-Natal Province (Nyandu 2002). Thor Chemicals imported thousands of mercury waste barrels, which it failed to recycle, from the US and other countries. According to Butler (1997), Thor Chemicals was established in South Africa in 1963. Investigations into the company's activities revealed that workers had been poisoned in the process. In 1992, two workers (Peter Cele and Engelbert Ngcobo) lapsed into a coma. A third worker, Albert Dlamini was admitted into hospital after going berserk at work. The following year, Nelson Mandela raised environmental awareness regarding hazardous waste when he visited Engelbert Ngcobo in hospital in November. It was on this occasion that it emerged that Thor Chemicals was polluting the air by operating an unlicensed incinerator. Representatives of twenty affected families later sued Thor Chemicals with civil proceedings taking place in London. This resulted in the parent group (Thor Holdings) agreeing to a settlement of R9,000,000 in April 1997. Loss of memory and sexual desire, headache and, arching joints are some of the many problems that another former Thor Chemicals employee, Johannes Nxumalo reported (Nyandu 2002: 289). Although the worker was aware of the dangers associated with working for the company, poverty forced him to risk his life. Nxumalo maintains that him and his colleagues had to jog to and from work as a means of 'getting rid of the poison' in their bodies. Despite such breathtaking accounts, African governments are yet to decisively act on banning the

importation of hazardous trans-boundary wastes. At a regional meeting in Nigeria in May 2004 (UNEP 2005), African governments adopted a position on the Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management (SAICM). SAICM is seen as a tool for good environmental stewardship in the continent. Through SAICM, African governments agreed to: manage chemicals at all stages of their life cycle: the 'cradle-to-grave' principle; target most toxic and hazardous chemicals as a priority; and incorporate the principles of substitution, prevention, the polluter pays, the right to know and greening the industry; and integrate the precautionary, liability and accountability approaches. A remaining challenge is the question of harmonising the Bamako and Basel Conventions.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we discuss how the African environmental management agenda is being set. Of note is that the continent's environmental agenda is strongly influenced by donors, some of which have genuine intentions of assisting Africa to tackle its environmental ills. It also emerged that the key donors and aid agency shaping our environmental agenda are CIDA and DANIDA, and recently the African Union through the NEPAD environment action plans, as well as the African Development Bank Group's Policy on Environment. The chapter also notes that highly sensitive discourses still remain, notably how best the continent could speak in one voice in order to address some key environmental problems, such as the importation of hazardous waste. African Union members have ratified the rival Basel and Bamako Conventions. Overall, it can be concluded that Africa has embraced the concept of sustainable development as the development paradigm for the century, and that sustainability and sustainable development embrace politics, environment, economics, culture and society.

Revision Questions

1. What environmental management agenda are raised by CIDA's policy for environmental sustainability?
2. Which environmental management agenda is raised by DANIDA's environmental strategy?
3. How is the agenda different, if at all, from that portrayed by the African Development Bank Group's policy on the environment?
4. What sub-regional environmental stewardship initiatives exist in your region?

Critical Thinking Questions

1. Drawing lessons from the Bamako and Basel Conventions, on which other sensitive environmental issues have the governments of other African Union countries failed to speak out with one voice, and how best can such environmental problems and the differences between governments be addressed?
2. How best can African governments fund the environmental stewardship agenda?
3. Is NEPAD's environmental agenda adequate for the African Union?

References

African Development Bank, 2004, *African Development Bank Group's Policy on the Environment*, Tunis: African Development Bank.

Butler, M., 1997, 'Lessons from Thor Chemicals: The links between health, safety and environmental protection', in L. Bethlehem and M. Goldblatt, eds., 1997, *The Bottom Line: Industry and the Environment in South Africa*, Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press, pp. 194–213.

CIDA, 1992, *CIDA's Policy for Environmental Sustainability*, Quebec: CIDA.

Darkoh, M.B.K. and A. Rwomire, eds., 2003, *Human Impact on Environment and Sustainable Development in Africa,* UK: Ashgate, Aldershot.

Darkoh, M.B.K., 1993, 'Land Degradation and Soil Conservation in Eastern and Southern Africa: A Research Agenda', *Desertification Control Bulletin*, No. 22, pp. 60–8.

DANIDA, 2004, *Strategy for Denmark's Environmental Assistance to Developing Countries 2004–2008*, Copenhagen: DANIDA.

DEAT, 2000, *White Paper on Integrated Pollution and Waste Management*, Pretoria: Government Printer.

Government of Botswana, 1998, *Waste management Act 1998*, Gaborone: Government Printer.

NEPAD, 2002, *A Summary of NEPAD Action Plans*, Johannesburg: NEPAD.

Nyandu, M., 2002, 'Crippled for life by mercury exposure', in A.D. McDonald, ed., *Environmental Justice in South Africa*, Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press, pp. 289–91.

OAU Secretariat, 1991, *Bamako Convention on the Ban of the Import into Africa and* the Control of Transboundary Movement and Management of Hazardous Wastes within *Africa*, Addis Ababa: OAU Secretariat.

SADC, 1996, *SADC Policy and Strategy for Environment and Sustainable Development: Toward Equity-led Growth and Sustainable Development*, Gaborone:

Southern African Development Community.

SADC, 2003, *Draft SADC Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP)*, Gaborone: Southern African Development Community.

SADC-REEP, 2007, *Environmental Issues and Crises*, Howick: SADC-REEP.

UNEP, 2003, *Global Environment Outlook 3: Past, Present and Future Perspectives*, London: Earthscan.

UNEP, 2005, *GEO Yearbook 2004/5*, Nairobi: United Nations Environment Programme.

UNEP, 2006, *Africa Environment Outlook 2: Our Environment, Our Wealth*, Nairobi:

United Nations Environment Programme.

World Bank, 1998, *The World Bank Annual Report 1998*, Washington DC: World Bank.

World Bank, 2001, *Making Sustainable Commitments: An Environment Strategy for the World Bank*, Washington DC: World Bank.

World Bank, 2006, *The World Bank Annual Report 2006*, Washington DC: World Bank.