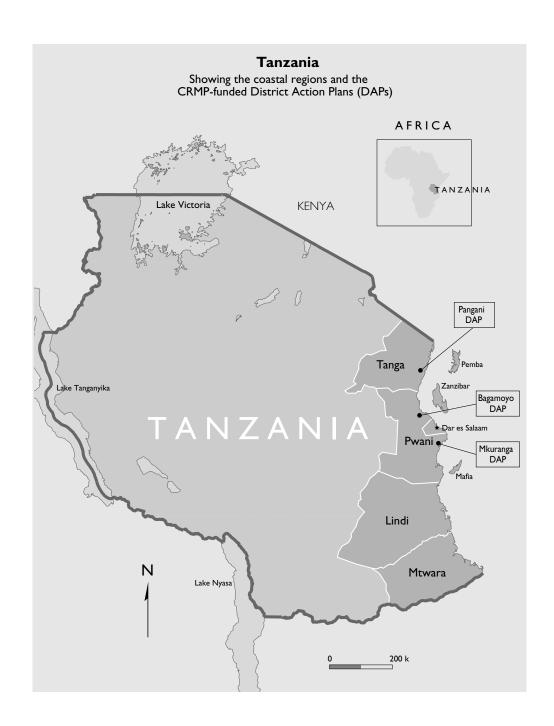CHAPTER 5

BUILDING PARTNERSHIPS TO ESTABLISH INTEGRATED COASTAL MANAGEMENT AT THE NATIONAL SCALE IN TANZANIA

Elin Torell, Mark Amaral, Tom Bayer, Jeremiah Daffa, Gratian Luhikula, and Lynne Z. Hale

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes how the Tanzania Coastal Management Partnership (TCMP) was established as a coastal management initiative at the national scale with strong ties to pre-existing initiatives at the community level. The TCMP has promoted a nested governance system that features partnering with national and district government agencies, local integrated coastal management (ICM) programs, scientists and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The chapter begins by outlining the historical governance context of Tanzania. It then describes the

Tanzania

Showing the coastal regions and the
CRMP-funded District Action Plans (DAPs)

AFRICA

TANZANIA

Lake Victoria

KENYA

Pangani
DAP

Tanga

Pemba

Zanzibar

Bagamoyo
DAP

Lake Tanganyika

TANZANIA

★ Dar es Salaam

Pwani

Mkuranga
DAP

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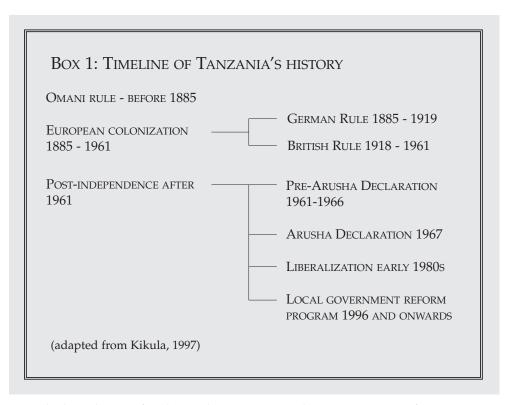
Lake Nyasa

Mtwara

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regional East African context and local Tanzanian context for coastal management—contexts that have provided strong roots for ICM in Tanzania, and a body of experience on which to build toward a national ICM program. The chapter concludes by outlining key elements of the strategy used by the TCMP to achieve its goals, the key lessons learned, and seeds for the future.

The Historical Governance Context

Tanzania as a political entity is a recent construction. It was not until 1961 that it became a nation. Until that time, Tanzania was either under colonial rule or divided into smaller political entities. (See Box 1.) For more than 2,000 years, foreign powers have been present in the coastal areas of Tanzania. In the first millennium, Arab merchants traded gold, ivory, and slaves along East Africa's coastline. Arab dominance decreased in the 1500s when the Portuguese conquered parts of the East African coastline. By the late 17th century, the Omani Empire was putting its mark on the region. It pushed the Portuguese influence south of the Ruvuma River into what is now Mozambique and began a 200-year period of Omani dominance in the Western Indian Ocean. At its height, the Omani Sultanate—using Zanzibar as its control center—had extensive power and influence over towns along what is now the Kenyan and Tanzanian coast (Torell, 2002).

With the passing of another 200 years and by the mid-1880s, East Africa was divided between Great Britain and Germany with Germany ruling mainland Tanzania, or Tanganyika, until the end of World War I, and Britain assuming control thereafter. It was not until after World War II that Tanganyika gained the international status of a Trust Territory through the United Nations Trusteeship Agreement. Although the Trusteeship Agreement explicitly recognized the rights of the Tanganyikan population to their land, Great Britain continued to distribute and use land for its own purposes, with little consideration for local needs.

Box 1: Timeline of Tanzania's history

Omani rule - before 1885

European colonization 1885 - 1961 ——— German Rule 1885 - 1919

British Rule 1918 - 1961

Post-independence after 1961 ——— Pre-Arusha Declaration 1961-1966

Arusha Declaration 1967

Liberalization early 1980s

Local government reform program 1996 and onwards

(adapted from Kikula, 1997)

With the advent of independence in 1961, the government of Tanzania focused on the nation's political consolidation. The first president of the country, Julius Nyerere, had the integrity and political skills to unite leaders from the mainland tribes and Zanzibar and to lead the peaceful creation of the Republic of Tanzania. The newly independent republic inherited the major part of its legal framework from the colonial period and as such the national government viewed the state as a property-holding community (Wily 1998). With the Arusha Declaration in 1967, Tanzania committed itself to socialism and self-reliance. As defined by the Arusha Declaration, rural socialism was based on mutual respect, communal ownership, the sharing of basic goods and the obligation of everyone to work. Success would depend on voluntary—and later mandatory—"villagisation," under which people lived and worked together for "the common good" (Leader-Williams et al., 1996).

Despite the initial emphasis on villages and collective resource use, the administrative powers of local governments became increasingly limited. By 1972, district authorities were dissolved and local issues were assigned to five regional authorities. Meanwhile, the national government became the sole decisionmaking body for natural resource management while regional governments took on the role of instructing the districts in implementation and compliance with central government directives (Horrill, Kalombo, and Makoloweka, 2001). Lower-level administrators were left with very limited decisionmaking powers and small operational budgets. The result was districts that were under-funded and under-staffed. With the national party having a presence all the way down to the village level, open politics was more or less eliminated and local administrators and councilors became disillusioned: "They were not expected to do anything on their own. Thus, why do anything?" (Seppälä, 1998: 7).

A famine in the late 1970s and early 1980s caused aspects of the villagisation and socialist ideology, known as Ujamaa, to be reconsidered. The nation's poverty, poor agricultural performance, economic decline, and environmental degradation contributed to the belief that the socialist system had failed to realize for the nation the very goals it had set out to achieve. However, the impacts of Ujamaa were not all negative. The focus on human development and self-reliance were successful in areas such as health, education, and in creating a unified political identity among Tanzanians. By the early 1980s, Tanzania had moved away from the socialist system and to a market economy. In 1996, a new administrative reform was launched to decentralize decisionmaking and allow local authorities to govern financial and human resources. Democratically elected and autonomous local authorities were to serve their districts within the realms of national policies and legal frameworks (Horrill et al., 2001). As a result of this reform, district councils now control and own natural resources within their area of jurisdiction. While village councils have the authority to create by-laws and manage village affairs, citizens consider the district councils as the most relevant level of government. It is these district councils that approve village by-

laws and make them legally binding. In spite of this move to more decentralized decision-making, the central government remains very powerful and local governments depend heavily on central government financing, particularly in the areas of education, health, and water sanitation (World Bank, 1999). This means the complex functions of local, regional, and central government bureaucracies often overlap. For example, the central government prepares guidelines for management, while the regional government advises the district government on implementation of those guidelines, and the district government carries out their implementation.

THE CURRENT ECOLOGICAL AND ECONOMIC CONTEXT

Tanzania's coastline is both ecologically and economically important to the nation. It stretches for approximately 2,300 kilometers and encompasses five coastal regions (Tanga, Pwani, Dar es Salaam, Lindi and Mtwara) and three large islands, (Mafia, Pemba and Zanzibar). The coastline is richly endowed with estuaries, mangrove forests, beaches, coral reefs, seagrass beds, and the deltas of large rivers such as the Rufiji, Pangani, Wami and Ruvuma. While these coastal districts cover only about 15 percent of the nation's total land area, they support approximately 25 percent of the population, or eight million people. The coastal population is projected to increase to 20 million by 2025.

Poverty is a stark reality in Tanzania. A household survey in 2000 indicated that more than 52 percent of Tanzanians lived below the basic needs poverty line and that more than 31 percent lived below the food poverty line (Overseas Development Institute, 2002). Non-income dimensions of poverty are also severe. In 2002, Tanzania was ranked number 151 (out of 173 countries) on the United Nations Development Program's Human Development Index. While poverty is a problem for the nation as a whole, it is particularly severe in the coastal areas where livelihoods depend on small-holder farming, subsistence forestry, lime and salt production, artisanal fisheries, seaweed farming, and small-scale trade. For example, in the Tanga coastal region the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita average in 2002 was only 60,021 Tanzanian

shillings (Tsh) (US $69) and in the Pwani region it is even less—just 22,624 Tsh (US $26).

Poor infrastructure is one of the many factors contributing to poverty along the Tanzanian coast (TCMP, 2001). Few communities have access to electricity—a luxury found mostly in cities and towns. Only 1.4 percent of households in rural Tanzania have access to electricity. The road system is extremely poor. For example, in the Pwani region 89 percent of the roads are made of gravel and bare earth and are often impassable during the rainy season. The distance to reach water is often long and once reached, the quality of that water too often is unsatisfactory. A survey conducted by TCMP as part of the *State of the Coast 2000* report found that community members in one Tanga village had to walk eight hours to reach a supply of domestic freshwater. Overall, between 26 and 60 percent of the rural population in the coastal regions lack access to clean freshwater (Vice President's Office, 1999).

The economic and ecological pressures on Tanzania's coastline are already great and yet continue to increase as a result of population growth and continued demands for economic development. Destructive practices such as dynamite fishing, coral mining, and mangrove clearing have placed great pressures on the very resources upon which the health of the ecology and the economy depend. Coral reef destruction, mangrove depletion, and declining fish stocks are a familiar and bleak reality. These practices in turn contribute to soil and beach erosion. Between 1990 and 1994, fish catches dropped by 32 percent—even though the effort remained constant—a clear signal of overfishing (TCMP Support Unit, 1999b). During the past two decades, coastal forests have declined from 59,300 square kilometers to 1,050 square kilometers.

REGIONAL PROGRESS ON ICM IN EAST AFRICA

In spite of the coastal management challenges that faced Tanzania by the time the TCMP was beginning in 1997, the country and the project had access to a wealth of ICM experience and progress that had accumulated

in the East Africa region. In 1992—just a few years before the start of the TCMP—the United Nations Conference on the Environment and Development (UNCED) held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil spurred a surge of interest in ICM. As a result, many donors, among them the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) and the Swedish International Development Agency (Sida), increased investments in coastal management in East Africa. A growing number of conferences, workshops and training courses ensued. Included in these was the Sida-funded 1993 East Africa Regional Workshop and Ministerial Conference, held in Arusha, Tanzania. This was the first regional ICM conference. The timing was propitious, as many of the ministers who attended this conference had also participated in the Rio Conference. These ministers were versed in UNCED's Agenda 21 that called for coastal states to "commit themselves to integrated management and sustainable development of coastal areas and in the marine environment under their national jurisdiction," and they saw the Arusha Resolution as a way to respond.

The Arusha Resolution was endorsed in a spirit of optimism and high expectations. It set forth 16 principles that reflected priorities for reforming how coastal areas would be used and administered. While it was a regional agreement and did not have any legal authority to bind individual nations to abide by its principles, it nevertheless provided an invaluable springboard for national ICM initiatives in Tanzania. A few highly placed leaders—some of whom had been involved in drafting the text of the Arusha Resolution—skillfully used the resolution to create national demand for coastal management. As a result, Tanzania's government ministers gave early endorsement to the resolution, helping pave the way for the TCMP's work.

The Arusha conference was followed with ministerial meetings in the Seychelles (1996) and Mozambique (2001) as well as two technical workshops. One of these technical workshops was attended by an expert group convened by Sida. This group was officially charged with developing the technical report on ICM in East Africa. It sought to determine Third Order outcomes—i.e. to determine progress toward sustainable

environmental conditions and improvements in quality of life. The second technical workshop—a joint effort of the Western Indian Ocean Marine Science Association (WIOMSA), the Coastal Resources Center (CRC) at the University of Rhode Island, and the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP)—was held concurrently but had a quite different purpose. This second workshop brought together, for the first time, local ICM programs from several countries in the region (at that point there were no national programs) to discuss their successes and failures. Workshop participants examined the progress being made and the lessons emerging from their programs, and concluded that at that scale considerable progress was being made. When workshop participants assessed progress in ICM at the national scale, however, they concluded little had changed. This was not surprising. Ministers attending the Arusha Conference had not translated the principles adopted at that meeting into action, and neither donors nor national governments had made funding available for national-scale ICM initiatives. It was this lack of effort at the national scale that provided the seeds for the TCMP.

Another important catalyzing event was the 1996 ratification of The Nairobi Convention. The convention was proposed in 1985, entered into force in May 1996, and had gained 100 percent ratification in 1999. The convention seeks to ensure that resource development does not degrade the region's environmental qualities. Since the Nairobi Convention—unlike the Arusha Resolution—is a legally binding document, it constitutes a formal commitment to ICM and, as such, helped prompt the formal adoption of the East Africa Action Plan developed a decade before. The convention identifies five broad environmental management issues upon which nations should collaborate:

- ❖ Protected areas
- ❖ Cooperation in cases of emergency
- ❖ Environmental damage from engineering activities
- ❖ Environmental impact assessment
- ❖ Scientific and technical cooperation

Despite full ratification, the greater hope for the Nairobi Convention—i.e., that it would have a significant impact on ICM policy development and on helping ICM move forward in the region—has not been realized. The convention, as is the case with most regional frameworks, is difficult to implement. Nevertheless, several donors including the Global Environment Facility (GEF) and Sida are currently making new investments in efforts to make the convention and its goals capable of being implemented.

Expanding East African Capacity for Coastal Management

In East Africa, capacity for coastal management has increased significantly over the last 10 years. Two key contributors to this have been Sida and USAID. Since 1983 Sida, in collaboration with Swedish universities, has been building a cadre of scientists with coastal and marine expertise, particularly in Tanzania, Kenya and Mozambique. By 2002, more than 100 individuals were enrolled in research programs or had received M.Sc. or Ph.D. degrees with Sida funds. In parallel, CRC, with USAID funding and support, has shaped a generation of coastal managers through its projects and training programs. The result has been an unplanned but complementary ICM support system. Sida's support of degree programs produced skilled graduates, many of who proceeded to work in ICM projects. CRC, with USAID support, enhanced those individuals' management capacity with additional training and hands-on experience in management.

There have also been numerous efforts at the regional level to advocate and build ICM capacity in East Africa. As mentioned previously, the Arusha Conference was the first of its kind in East Africa and started a movement for ICM in the region. Further, it prompted subsequent meetings and conferences on ICM—the Sida-sponsored ministerial meetings, the Pan-African Conference on Sustainable Integrated Coastal Management (PACSICOM), and the Advisory Committee on the Protection of the Sea (ACOPS). These regional events and organizations

often shared common objectives in support of coastal management activities at national and local levels:

❖ Advocating for policies that promote integrated planning and management of coasts

❖ Encouraging international donors to invest in coastal management in East Africa

❖ Strengthening management capacity within government agencies and NGOs at the national and local levels to effectively manage coastal areas

❖ Encouraging countries to implement regulations and guidelines on resource exploitation and management

❖ Promoting public education and awareness programs to create constituencies for coastal management

❖ Forwarding new approaches to ecosystem management

THE COASTAL RESOURCES MANAGEMENT PROGRAM'S INTRODUCTION TO EAST AFRICA

The Coastal Resources Management Program (CRMP) began its work in East Africa in 1994 with the help of modest resources from the office of the Regional Economic Development Services Office for East and Southern Africa (REDSO). REDSO was interested in initiating ICM in the region to properly manage its natural resources, and its management officer had worked with CRC in the CRMP I project in Sri Lanka. He believed it was a model that could also work in East Africa. In initial discussions between CRC, REDSO and UNEP it was decided that small-scale ICM projects would be implemented in Mombasa, Kenya and in Zanzibar. UNEP was funding several ICM projects in the region and was interested in sharing lessons learned between these and other ICM projects.

While many positive outcomes resulted from this initial introduction to the region—including CRC's continued work in Kenya and Zanzibar—the anticipated linkages between CRC, REDSO and UNEP did not materialize. This was due to differences in the priorities and approaches of each of these groups at the time. UNEP was interested in supporting several ICM teams to generate "funding plans" which would attract donors to make investments in ICM in the region. This conflicted with CRC's priority, which was to prepare coastal management plans in partnership with local institutions and stakeholders.

CRC's early work at the community level in Tanzania and Kenya provided the opportunity to work with the sole indigenous regional organization—WIOMSA—and to jointly conduct the first regional workshop for the growing numbers of ICM practitioners in the region. Through this workshop and through its involvement in pilot sites in Kenya and Tanzania, CRC developed a working relationship with leaders and future leaders in ICM. Many of these original contacts later became key participants in the TCMP.

Another benefit of working on regional issues was the ability it gave CRC to test new approaches and mechanisms for making progress in ICM. What emerged from these tests was the usefulness of using inter-sectoral and multi-disciplined working groups as engines for change. This had proved a useful approach in CRMP I pilot sites in Ecuador and Sri Lanka and became a feature of the TCMP program approach.

Local ICM Efforts in Tanzania

While CRMP I advocated a "two-track" approach in which resources were applied at the both the national and local levels simultaneously, the TCMP decided to focus on the national level. Why was this strategy adopted? A significant number of community-based coastal projects were already underway in the country. (See Box 2). The largest of these was the Tanga program, which, at that time, was seeing impressive gains on the ground after four years of experience. The other major program was the Mafia Island Marine Park, which was leading the region in

Box 2: Local-level ICM Projects in Tanzania

Mafia Island Marine Park (MIMP)

The park was established in 1995 under the national Marine Parks and Reserves Act of 1994. The initial management focus has been on the problem of dynamite fishing within the park. In the next several years, the MIMP will work closely with Mafia Island communities to revise the park management plan and make the Park Management Council operational.

Tanga Coastal Zone Conservation and Development Program (TCZCDP)

This program was established in 1994 to promote sustainable use of coastal resources in the Tanga administrative region. The program works at both district and village levels to address critical coastal issues. Conservation actions include control of destructive fishing practices, closure of reefs to replenish fish stocks, promotion of alternative livelihood options (such as mariculture) and mangrove planting. This demonstration program has shown that management of coastal resources and development activities can be effectively undertaken at the local level.

Kinondoni Integrated Coastal Area Management Programme (KICAMP)

This coastal management program in the Kinondoni district in Dar es Salaam was initiated in 2000. The program has identified priority coastal issues and developed a strategy for addressing them. Priority issues include coastal tourism development, erosion and dynamite fishing.

Rural Integrated Project Support (RIPS)

RIPS is a rural development project located in the Mtwara and Lindi administrative regions. The project works with coastal communities to reduce dynamite fishing and raise awareness about the importance of coastal resources.

Rufiji Environment Management Project (REMP)

REMP's goal is to promote long-term conservation through wise use of the lower Rufiji forests, woodlands and wetlands. The project area is within the ecologically rich Rufiji floodplain and several upland forests of special importance.

Menai Bay Conservation Area (MBCA)

MBCA, gazetted as a conservation area in 1997, is located on the southwest coast of Unguja (Zanzibar) Island. It encompasses an area of 47,000 hectares, which contain extensive areas of coral reefs, sea grass beds and mangrove forests. Sixteen village communities reside within the protected area. The conservation area was created after studies conducted in 1991 indicated that the area's coral resources were being rapidly degraded and fish populations were declining as a result of damaging fishing methods. Management actions have targeted destructive fishing methods and overfishing. The long-term goal of the project is to conserve the biological process, productivity and ecosystems of Menai Bay for the benefit of local people.

Chumbe Island Marine Park (CIMP)

Established in 1992, the park is managed by a private company with assistance from an advisory committee that includes representatives from government, the University of Dar es Salaam and local communities. In 1994, Chumbe Island was gazetted as a marine protected area that includes a reef sanctuary.

community-based park management. Other on-the-ground projects included the Rural Integrated Project Support (RIPS) program in Mtwara and Lindi. Together, these projects added up to a significant body of experience at the community level and created a demand for an overarching national program that would support such local-level initiatives.

CRC realized that the opportunity lay not in creating yet another community-scale project, but in creating a national framework to support what already existed at local level. As CRC and its Tanzanian partners began the design of the TCMP, they conducted an assessment of existing local programs. Three important findings emerged:

1. Local projects wanted to be better connected to each other.

2. National government needed a coastal management champion. Often programs would progress only so far in solving problems with further progress impeded by a national agency that lacked a full understanding of the issues or the approach being taken.

3. Local programs needed help with issues that were beyond their skill, scope, or resources. This included assistance dealing with large-scale economic forces, such as mariculture or tourism that were having major impacts on coastal people and resources.

The design phase was critical to the TCMP's early success. The design team visited each local program, listened to their needs and reassured them that the TCMP would not compete with them. Early in the process, the design team held an open meeting in Dar es Salaam to present initial design ideas and receive important feedback. Besides collecting critical input, the process also helped the team meet potential allies and begin building in-country networks. The design also drew and built upon lessons that had emerged from CRMP I. A senior CRMP II program review team helped vet the design before it was finalized. The importance of this process cannot be underestimated. It took into account

lessons learned from previous experience in other countries and it brought to the same table individuals with many years of collective experience who could help identify key issues around which the project would need to operate.

ESTABLISHING A NATIONAL ICM PROGRAM

In 1997, CRMP II leaders were invited by the USAID mission in Tanzania to develop a project that would work in partnership with the National Environmental Management Council (NEMC) to design a coastal management program for Tanzania. As the program design emerged, so did the shape of the entity that would implement it. This was the genesis of the TCMP.

Six factors shaped the TCMP design:

1. *There was no national level policy to guide the accelerating transformation of coastal Tanzania.* In Tanzania, management of coastal resources was performed locally prior to colonization, and moved toward a national and even international scale during colonization and early independence. By the time the TCMP was taking shape, there was a closing of the loop, as local governments and communities gained more opportunities to manage their own resources. The design team saw the usefulness of creating a national policy for coastal management in Tanzania, to support and guide districts and communities as they embarked on planning and managing their coastal resources.

2. *Top-down power structures impeded effective participation in environmental management initiatives.* When the TCMP started, environmental governance was sector-driven and top down. Collaboration between local and national-level administrations was weak or not present. The design team found it essential to build the TCMP as an integrated project that depended on inter-sectoral collaboration.

3. *There was insufficient human capacity to deal with environmental management issues.* The number of skilled scientists was growing thanks to the Sida-funded marine science program. However, capabilities in the natural sciences provided only some of the knowledge and skills required to be an effective coastal manager. Also, there were few skilled program managers. Those who did exist were already employed by the government. Asking these skilled managers to leave their jobs to work for the TCMP would only lead to discontinuity in the very agencies that needed to be strengthened. As a result, a decision was made to hire a small team supported by inter-disciplinary working groups. This ensured maximum competence while keeping especially talented individuals in their existing jobs.

4. *Poverty was a major issue along the coast.* It was acknowledged as impossible, if not irresponsible, to focus the TCMP's efforts exclusively on resource conservation. One of the key goals for the TCMP was to create mechanisms for addressing emerging economic opportunities. In response, the TCMP committed to developing investment guidelines for mariculture and tourism.

5. *The TCMP built upon and made links to the extensive regional collaboration and capacity-building efforts for coastal management.* Contributing to the regional and global ICM efforts became another of the partnership's goals.

6. *When the TCMP began, there were a substantial number of local ICM initiatives in Tanzania, from which the partnership drew experience.* Linking with local programs was critical, and an essential element of the project design. This meant including activities to assist and facilitate learning between ongoing local programs. In response, the TCMP has become a service center for the local programs, by establishing an information center and by hosting semi-annual learning retreats.

The goal of the TCMP became to *establish a foundation for effective coastal governance in Tanzania*. To achieve this goal while taking into account the contextual factors described above, the TCMP decided to focus its work on five priorities:

Effectively apply an ICM policy to coastal problems at both the national and local levels

As the TCMP got underway, the activities required to put in place a formally adopted national ICM policy took shape as two overlapping phases. Phase I focused on developing the coastal policy itself. In Phase II, the focus was on policy implementation. Again, these phases of the effort were very fluid and overlapping. So, even while formal approval of the policy was still pending, the project team was implementing actions in support of that policy. These ranged from research on key ICM-related issues of concern to the public, to networking with partners who would be essential when implementation of the ICM policy was ready to begin. The TCMP also saw that such efforts were critically important during this period or there was risk of losing momentum. For example, long before the ICM policy was approved, there was a new mariculture permit process in place, local action planning was underway, and support to existing local programs was available and being utilized. This was the "practical exercises" strategy that proved so important during the planning phase of the CRMP I Ecuador program.

Demonstrate intersectoral mechanisms for addressing emerging coastal economic opportunities

Science for management became an increasingly important issue in Phase I and was added as a life-of-project goal in Phase II. A small subgroup of scientists, all members of the TCMP's Core Working Group (CWG) became the TCMP's Science and Technology Working Group (STWG). The STWG was charged with preparing a "State of the Coast" report—a comprehensive review of the environmental and socioeconomic conditions along the Tanzania coast. The report would provide a base-

BOX 3: THE TCMP'S MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

❖ Use inter-sectoral working groups as the engine for issue
   identification and policy formulation (the Core Working
   Group, Mariculture Working Group, Science and
   Technology Working Group, and Coastal Tourism
   Working Group)
❖ Convene high-level meetings to direct policy development
❖ Fill gaps in knowledge with primary research and synthe-
   sis of existing information
❖ Focus on communications through regular coverage in the
   national press, newsletters, and listservs
❖ Engage in day-to-day contact with key sectors and leaders

line against which to measure the successes of the ICM policy once it
was implemented. The STWG also collaborated with the University of
Rhode Island to develop, ground-truth, and interpret geographic infor-
mation systems (GIS) maps that document changes in mangrove cover in
Tanzania.

Enhance public awareness of coastal management issues

An activity that began in Phase I and that has expanded significantly
over time is the Coastal Environmental Award Scheme (CEAS). The
CEAS is an awareness-raising and environmental education program
that involves communities in coastal management. The CEAS sponsors a
yearly competition for schools, NGOs, communities, individuals, and
commercial organizations that are working to improve environmental
quality. The competition attracted over 100,000 participants in 2002, up
from 52,000 participants in the previous year. Winners in the CEAS carry

out environmentally friendly activities such as beach clean-ups, tree planting, school/community projects, and sustainable fishing practices. One interesting feature of the CEAS is that the winners are given tools that they can use in their continued work. The CRMP II team initially discouraged the idea for this initiative, fearing it would distract energy and resources away from the main goal of writing ICM policy. Fortunately, the in-country TCMP team had the foresight to see the potential for the initiative and was persuasive in pushing the decision to continue forward with it. It was the right decision, providing another important link to the community level and an effective means for strengthening local-level support for ICM.

A feature of all CRMP II programs is capacity building. Both TCMP Phases I and II included capacity-building objectives. The strategy for reaching those objectives, however, changed between phases. Initially the plan was to design and deliver a major in-country training program. In preparation for this, the TCMP conducted a thorough capacity needs assessment. However, a combination of CRMP II staffing constraints and the TCMP desire to direct resources towards the policy process resulted in abandoning this strategy. Instead, the TCMP approached capacity build-ing from the perspective that "hands-on" experience was the best train-ing approach, and it focused those efforts on its own staff and working group members. This hands-on training transcended ICM and included skills building in basic time management, group facilitation, task plan-ning and public speaking.

THE TCMP'S MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Ensure Tanzania's coastal management experience is informed by and con-tributes to ICM regionally and globally

Throughout its Phase I and II, the TCMP worked to gather ICM experi-ence within Tanzania and to then share it with other audiences in the country, the region, and globally. Activities in support of this goal have included participating in regional and international meetings and confer-ences to share the story of ICM in Tanzania.

Box 4: The Mariculture Working Group (MWG)

The first task for the TCMP's Mariculture Working Group (MWG) was to define provisional working goals and objectives and identify and analyze issues. The group carried out a comprehensive assessment of mariculture to advance understanding of:

❖ The composition and structure of the mariculture sector
❖ The development context (natural and human resources and economy)
❖ Mariculture development options
❖ The existing knowledge base and information gaps
❖ Public awareness and interests
❖ Land tenure rules
❖ Existing legal, procedural, and institutional frameworks
❖ Environmental and resource use policies, regulations and guidelines

The MWG's participatory assessment occurred over a one-year period; it provided a basis for consultations among managers, scientists and the public at large at both the local and national level on goals and priorities for sustainable mariculture.

After the assessment was completed the next challenge for the group was to formulate mariculture development guidelines. The goal of the guidelines was to establish clear project review and approval procedures that were consultative, multi-sectoral and interdisciplinary; and to establish monitoring, reporting, evaluation and response. The guidelines, which were approved by the government in 2001, should increase the likelihood that projects are reviewed in a manner that safeguards the coastal environment and human population, while encouraging technically sound investments in mariculture.

Adapted from Tobey, 2000

The TCMP is unique in Tanzania for several reasons. First, it is the only initiative to build a national policy where the process has allowed and encouraged all interested parties to contribute. In order to create a collegial environment, the TCMP invited a broad range of stakeholders to actively participate in preparing the national coastal policy, and incorporates this participatory approach in all aspects of its work. It is one of the few national programs that uses ICM initiatives funded by other donors to build the two-track approach to coastal management, working simultaneously at the national and local levels.

> *"The working groups cover many fields from fisheries, mining, community development, and so on. No member has all the expertise and we complement each other."*
> – Core Working Group Member

The Support Unit

When initiating the TCMP, the design team deemed it unwise to create the TCMP as an organization with a large staff of full-time employees. Instead, the team decided the core of the TCMP would comprise a small Support Unit. Even the choice of name "Support Unit" was strategic and symbolic. In its first six months, the TCMP was focused solely on building a culture at the Support Unit—meeting daily as a group to review priorities, discuss the handling of issues, and build a sense of purpose as a team that existed to support the local ICM programs. The unit initially consisted of a project team leader, a communications specialist, a secretary and an accountant. It later added part-time working group secretariats. The small Support Unit worked together with CRMP II technical advisors and the various working groups to implement the TCMP workplans.

Interdisciplinary Working Groups

From the outset, the TCMP needed to find ways to engage and maintain contact with national government agencies. This needed to happen without those agencies feeling that their power and prerogatives were being threatened. The TCMP chose a range of working groups as the

mechanism for trying to accomplish this goal. CRMP II had experimented successfully with working groups during its initial foray into ICM in East Africa at the Kenya and Zanzibar sites. This goal of ensuring government agencies did not feel threatened was critically important. The TCMP realized that if it were perceived as a threat, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to mobilize the necessary government forces to get a coastal management policy approved and implemented. As described later, this very problem did arise, but the use of these inter-sectoral working groups as sounding boards in which agencies could contribute their ideas and assist in achieving its goals, helped minimize this problem.

The TCMP convened a working group for each of its main activities. In Phases I and II this included working groups for policy development, the Core Working Group (CWG), the Mariculture Working Group (MWG), the Coastal Tourism Working Group (CTWG) (Phase II only), and the Science and Technology Working Group (STWG). Each group started with approximately 18 members, representing different disciplines and institutions. Together with the Support Unit, the working groups were responsible for completing workplans and deciding upon and fulfilling more detailed activities in their groups. Each working group is supported by a secretariat, an individual employed half-time by the TCMP to handle the administrative needs of the team such as organizing meetings, keeping minutes and assembling information.

How often the group members met depended on their workload, but as a rule they convened twice a month. Much of their work was related to the preparation of various documents (such as the national coastal program, mariculture and tourism investment guidelines, and the *State of the Coast 2000* report). Working groups' activities always involve active engagement with the stakeholders. While working to develop the national policy, each working group spent significant time in the field soliciting input (in Tanzania this was a totally new approach) and conducted a number of major national workshops to review policy options and hone in on final policy statements. Working group members were also

ambassadors to each line agency and played an important role keeping their assigned agency informed. Group members urged their leadership to be active in the policy development process. This contributed to unusually high attendance at national workshops.

One benefit of the working groups is that they encourage diverse interests with varied expertise to participate in the process, ensuring that documents and guidelines are based on the best available knowledge and that they represent a broad range of viewpoints. The working groups also foster vision-building and social learning. They contribute to a feeling of ownership for the process and its outcomes among government agencies and local programs. On the down side, the working groups can be both costly and time consuming to manage. Group size varies, but ranges from 12 to 20 individuals—with some members dropping out and new members joining throughout a group's lifespan. It is, at times, a challenge to keep working group members feeling engaged, productive, and energized. And, in some cases, all members may be paid allowances (on contract) to participate, even though not everyone contributes equally to the work assigned to that group. In Tanzania, it has also been difficult to involve representatives of the private sector and NGOs, possibly because both groups are in a minority in the country (when the TCMP started, the government employed 80 percent of the work force) and are somewhat weak. For the private sector, the pace of the TCMP process with the government is often too slow to sustain their interest. Another challenge is the prevalent view among government officials that the private sector should be a beneficiary of their work rather than a contributor to public policy. Despite these obstacles to keeping the NGOs and private sector involved, the TCMP has succeeded in keeping both groups engaged in the conversation.

Self-assessment workshops and retreats

Another expression of "service" to local coastal programs was through the use of self-assessment workshops and learning retreats. The TCMP acts as a national ICM office and as such creates a space for networking to occur. This is seen as a real benefit by local ICM programs that formerly had never been brought together.

The partnership uses self-assessments to discuss project components and provide time for group reflection and learning. These events are a chance to learn from experience and to reflect on what has worked, what has not worked and why, within a particular element of the project. The TCMP has organized yearly self-assessments as well as workshops to analyze the experiences of the MWG and the district action planning process. The objectives of the self-assessments are to:

❖ Document progress

❖ Explore to what extent the project goals are being achieved

❖ Explore the roles of the different groups involved

❖ Provide input on to how to revise the process

❖ Discuss how to proceed on specific activities, given the resources available and the constraints identified

❖ Discuss how the experience can be transferred to other programs or other elements within the same project (Haws and Amaral, 2000; Torell, 2001; Torell, Tobey and van Ingen, 2000)

Capacity building

The results of a training needs assessment conducted by CRMP II personnel in collaboration with WIOMSA in 1998 highlighted the fact that training and education in the East Africa region is sector-driven. This causes existing capacity to be narrow and highly technical (Kyewalyanga, Wood and Francis, 1999). To improve overall capacity and make it more relevant to management, the TCMP invested in various training and education schemes. This included designing and delivering short courses, providing peer learning, and mentoring.

Perhaps the most important mentoring that occurred during the first four years of the TCMP project was the informal coaching that the chief

technical advisor provided to the Support Unit. After capacity building events, such as a field trip or workshop, the technical advisor would call a team meeting to talk about how it went, how it could be improved, and celebrate the accomplishments. This created an atmosphere of reflection and learning that continues today.

Field visits

Since the TCMP is not directly involved in village-level planning, it has used field consultations as a method for soliciting feedback on the national ICM process from districts and community members. These field consultations resulted in a policy that "reflected the collective views of the sectors and stakeholders as to why a coastal policy is needed and what the policy should address" (TCMP Support Unit, 1999). During the field visits, the TCMP working group participants interviewed and engaged in focus groups with district staff and community members. They also facilitated local workshops to identify issues and plan for how to address these issues. Field visits provide for two-way information exchange. They also contribute to empowerment of communities and district staff by inviting them into a process that then makes them active participants and contributors to the national processes at the national level.

Communications

In addition to the working groups, the TCMP has a communications unit that works to promote coastal management in Tanzania at large. The TCMP has attempted to keep Tanzanians updated through newspaper articles and TV coverage. Other communication tools include the *Pwani Yetu* (Our Coast) newsletter, the E-Pwani e-mail listserv, and on-line posting of key TCMP documents. This communications network is critical to the successful development of the national ICM policy, providing rapid access to local programs and key constituencies at the local level.

CRMP II's role and behavior as a partner, catalyst and provider of operational systems

From its inception, the TCMP has tried to model the behavior of a national coastal management program. The office was set up to facilitate networking, solve problems between national and local levels, provide information, raise national awareness, and advocate for coastal people. This has meant assisting local programs, being helpful to national agencies, and reaching out to those who, in the past, doubted the power of the process. Technical assistants are expected to be members of their working group until the completion of the activity assigned to that working group. This creates trust between the working group members and the technical advisors. It also helps the technical advisors understand the depth of the issues and particular problems associated with working on those issues in the Tanzanian context.

Early on, the TCMP made an overt decision to invest in and support a functioning office. This went beyond providing a good photocopier and a few computers. It included establishing an office-wide network with around-the-clock access to the Internet, investment in video conferencing, and provision of the best possible hardware and software available within budget. The TCMP equipment is available to the staff and working group members and more recently to local programs near Dar es Salaam. Over time, the TCMP has become the first point of contact for most people interested in coastal management in Tanzania. Most new coastal programs launched after the TCMP's inception have turned to the project for advice and logistical support.

During Phase I, the TCMP did not have a chief of party. Day-to-day management and strategic-level decisionmaking were the responsibility of a management team comprised of a project coordinator from CRMP II and a Support Unit leader assigned from the host institution, NEMC. While this model was in place, the project coordinator and the Support Unit head worked as a team, even when they were not together, staying in regular phone and e-mail contact. This made the project feel uniquely Tanzanian. The downside to this model was the extensive amount of

international travel that had to take place between CRC offices in Rhode Island and the TCMP offices in Dar es Salaam. The model was changed during Phase II. While the TCMP still does not use the chief of party model, CRMP II has placed a full-time, resident expatriate technical advisor/coordinator at the TCMP office. This person continues to share decisions and responsibility with the Support Unit leader.

THE NATIONAL ICM PROCESS

Facilitating and promoting the national policy process was the core of the TCMP's work. This process began shortly after the Core Working Group was formed in 1998. The process began with identifying the key coastal issues from a national perspective and outlining major components of a policy adoption process. During the issue identification process, the TCMP commissioned several studies, including a socioeconomic review and an institutional and legal analysis. These reports, which were prepared by either the Core Working Group or by Tanzanian consultants, synthesized existing information, identified key issues and knowledge gaps specific to the coastal regions, and identified topics for more focused research. The information generated in these reports was deliberated upon by the core group and used in developing the coastal policy.

Once the issues for the coastal policy were characterized, a series of meetings was held for the directors of institutions with important roles in managing the coast (e.g., fisheries, forestry, lands). These meetings became known as "directors' meetings," and were a crucial feature of the policy formulation process. Once the directors had agreed on the key coastal issues, the Core Working Group started a multi-stage process to develop goals, principles, and implementation actions for each. This produced a number of technical documents that supported the draft policy. A milestone in this process was the Tanzania coastal management Green Paper. The Green Paper presented policy options, while a subsequent White Paper selected one option and presented it as a draft for the formal consideration of government.

The Green Paper was presented at the third directors' meeting in November 1999. The meeting was attended by agency directors, representatives from the districts, and several members of Parliament. It was a watershed event and one where, for the first time in Tanzania's post-socialist history, options for a policy were presented and stakeholders were allowed first to discuss them, and then to select the preferred implementation mechanism. It was heralded as a new model for national policy development. Comments were solicited on the Green Paper and later on the White Paper. The step of drafting and soliciting another round of comments on a White Paper proved to be a strategic error. The elusive "window of opportunity" was missed. With the Green Paper finished, the time was right to move quickly and submit the policy to the government's Permanent Secretary and the minister. Instead, precious time was spent developing a White Paper. By the time that paper was complete, the TCMP found that the individuals they needed to approve the policy had turned their attention instead to the national elections.

Before the White Paper was submitted to the Cabinet, a process began which turned what had been referred to as a national policy into a national strategy. The reasons behind this are not completely clear, but were at least partially tied to tensions between NEMC and the Division of Environment (DoE). The Division of Environment is a sister organization to NEMC, within the Vice President's Office. Both DoE and NEMC are charged with working on environmental management, and the relationship and power balances between the two are sometimes delicate. Concerns were raised that a coastal policy might be unnecessary since Tanzania already had adopted an environmental policy—albeit a policy which most continue to believe is inadequate as an operational basis for planning and decisionmaking along the coast. After a year's delay, the TCMP was able to bring the policy to the decisionmakers again, but only if it was defined as a "strategy." This decision disappointed many of the working group members because a strategy is seen as a less powerful statement of the government's intent.

The policy was reworked, now renamed a strategy, and submitted to the Vice President's Office for consideration. Getting the strategy approved

was a complex process with several rounds of minor revisions, again spurred by those that did not want any statement approved. The Cabinet finally approved the National Integrated Coastal Environment Management Strategy in December 2002. A lesson learned from this situation is the importance of having a thorough understanding of the political process by which a national policy (or even a strategy) is approved in Tanzania. With a better, in-depth understanding of that process and a more strategic approach, it might have been possible to accomplish the initial goal of getting an official policy approved.

The vision of the national coastal strategy is of a coast with thriving settlements, where people who rely on the sea and its abundant resources for their food and livelihood are actively working to protect and sustain their resource base. It further envisions the development of new coastal economic opportunities that sustainably contribute to both local and national development and diversified employment opportunities for coastal residents. It calls for the creation of partnerships between government and all segments of Tanzanian society—resource users, the private sector, academic and research institutions, and others—who work together to implement the strategy.

The goal of the National Integrated Coastal Environment Management Strategy is "to preserve, protect and develop the resources of Tanzania's coast for use by the people of today and succeeding generations to ensure food security and to support economic growth." In order to achieve this goal, the strategy calls for seven actions to be completed by the year 2025:

1. Support planning and integrated management of coastal resources and activities at the local level and provide mechanisms to balance national and local interests.

2. Promote integrated and sustainable approaches to the development of major economic uses of the coast to optimize benefits and minimize negative impacts.

3. Conserve and restore critical habitats and areas of high biodiversity while ensuring that coastal people continue to benefit from the sustainable use of these resources.

4. Establish an integrated planning and management mechanism for coastal areas of high economic interest or with substantial vulnerability to natural hazards.

5. Develop and use an effective (includes factors such as cost, practicality, appropriateness and efficacy) coastal ecosystem research, monitoring and assessment system that will allow already available—as well as new—scientific and technical information to inform ICM decisions.

6. Build both human and institutional capacity for inter-disciplinary and inter-sectoral management of coastal resources.

7. Provide meaningful opportunities for stakeholder involvement in the coastal development process and the implementation of coastal management policies.

IMPLEMENTING THE NATIONAL COASTAL STRATEGY THROUGH DISTRICT ACTION PLANNING

Implementation of the major ideas outlined in the national strategy began almost two years before the Cabinet formally approved the document. As mentioned earlier, this was critical in order to maintain momentum and demonstrate the benefits the strategy can have in the coastal districts. After reviewing various methods for implementation, the TCMP selected district action planning as a suitable and potentially powerful mechanism. The action planning strategy concept was adapted from the Tanga program, which had played a major role in helping the TCMP prepare the national guidelines.

The goal of district ICM action planning is to implement the national coastal strategy in the coastal districts. The first step was the development of guidelines for district action planning. In 2000, after the first version of the guidelines was developed, the TCMP launched the "Local ICM Action Planning Program" in two pilot districts—Pangani, in the Tanga region, and Bagamoyo, in the Pwani region. Once the sites were selected, the CWG provided technical assistance to the districts as they developed their action plans.

Before the selection of Pangani and Bagamoyo, the CWG assessed the "readiness" for ICM action planning in the coastal districts of Tanzania. The decision was to involve two districts—one "experienced" and one "inexperienced"—for the first round of action planning. The Pangani district was considered experienced because of its previous involvement in the Tanga program. But the existence of the Tanga program also hampered the creativity of the action planning process because participants skipped some steps that they perceived had already been covered through the Tanga initiative. For example, the ICM working group decided not to prepare an issue profile. Instead they chose to use the issue identification that had been produced by the Tanga program several years earlier. They looked at the old list of issues and decided to focus on one or two which that they felt the Tanga program had not adequately addressed. This made the Pangani district action strategy quite narrow, and they missed the opportunity to identify new issues that had arisen in the communities after the Tanga program started.

The final action plans for Pangani and Bagamoyo were quite different. The Pangani plan focused on addressing one priority issue: beach pollution. In contrast, the Bagamoyo action plan addresses four broader problems:

- ❖ Conflicts arising from shrimp trawling
- ❖ Illegal cutting of mangroves
- ❖ Conflicts in the use of beaches
- ❖ Destructive fishing practices

By 2002, both the Pangani and Bagamoyo districts had formally adopted their action plans and the district working groups had begun the implementation process. The experience from Pangani and Bagamoyo showed that district action planning could bring the national strategy down to the local level. It enables villagers and district staff to plan for the management of coastal resources using the framework developed in the national strategy and the local action planning guidelines. Learning from Pangani and Bagamoyo, action planning has been initiated in an additional district—Mkuranga. This district, which had even less technical and logistic capacity than Bagamoyo and Pangani, was in the planning phase by early 2003.

OUTCOMES AND LESSONS LEARNED

The TCMP has been focused on the enabling conditions for ICM at the national and district level. As such, it has primarily produced important First and Second Order outcomes.

Contributions to ICM in Tanzania

The TCMP can claim success for a number of achievements that have advanced ICM in Tanzania:

Acquiring a formalized mandate for national-level coastal management
The approval of the National Integrated Coastal Environment Management Strategy has been TCMP's greatest accomplishment. It is important to note that the process used to write the strategy was central to creating a context within which approval was possible. Success lies as much in the process that led to that approval as in the approval itself. The process has provided a firm foundation of constituencies among government agencies and coastal districts and broad support for the national goals and implementation. Although the strategy is not legally binding, it is important as a formally endorsed guide for coastal governance in Tanzania. While the document is critical, other parts of the process leading up to it and other outputs and outcomes along the way should also be acknowledged. This includes the *State of the Coast 2000*

report, which brought national attention to Tanzania's pressing coastal issues. It includes the mariculture and tourism investment guidelines, which are an example of national-level guidance that can assist future development within the coastal region. The Mariculture Working Group restructured the mariculture permit process and did so while modeling a new and more productive way for agencies to work together. Another effort that helped set the pre-conditions for approving the Strategy was the TCMP's work to promote coastal management in Tanzania through awareness raising activities, such as the Coastal Eenvironmental Awards Scheme.

Establishing a nested planning decisionmaking system

In terms of behavioral change, the TCMP's greatest achievement is its proven ability to build relationships and promote collaborative behavior between national government agencies, district government, and private interests. Part of what contributed to this success was the great care the TCMP took from the very start of its efforts to balance local and national interests. The TCMP made sure that it did not just create a national framework and adjust top-down decisionmaking structures. Instead, the TCMP created entirely new systems and procedures that balance local and national needs.

The working groups provided another interesting study of behavior and an example of a tool well-chosen to tackle the job at hand. Working group members transformed over time. During the first few months of meetings, members behaved as if taking part in a card game, with each agency holding its cards close to the chest and watching and reacting to what the other agencies where doing before making a move. As group members grew to know and trust each other, there was a marked behavior change. Members began to focus on the common issues and turned their attention to solving problems.

Improving human capacity

Through training, mentoring and learning-by-doing, the working group members have learned to interact across disciplines and hierarchies, improving the relationships between various government agencies and enabling different interest groups to work effectively together to address coastal issues. The training workshops and field visits have transferred knowledge about the how, why, and wherefore of collaborative management outside the boundaries of the TCMP.

Studies and assessments, such as the mariculture and coastal tourism profiles, the *State of the Coast 2000* and information generated through the GIS project have increased technical knowledge within the TCMP. These studies and assessments have improved the overall understanding of the state of coastal resources in Tanzania, providing reference materials for planning, decisionmaking and implementation within local projects.

Learning from and contributing to regional collaboration and capacity-building efforts

Over the years, the TCMP has become a regional leader in ICM, contributing to regional and international meetings and conferences on coastal management. The TCMP has also continued to partner with regional organizations such as WIOMSA and the Secretariat for Eastern Africa Coastal Management (SEACAM). The government of Tanzania is also active in regional coastal management forums. Probably one of the most important of these is the Nairobi Convention and its Coral Reef Task Force. CRMP II's experience from the Mombasa and Zanzibar REDSO-funded pilot projects was a means for introducing CRMP II to the East African players and context and its "practical exercises" allowed CRMP II to better apply its approach in a Tanzanian context.

Learning from and supporting local ICM initiatives

Before the TCMP began, local Tanzanian ICM programs worked in isolation, while today there is a culture of collaboration and common purpose

among them. Retreats and other means of information exchange (e.g., the E-Pwani listserv and *Pwani Yetu* newsletter) have contributed to improved linkages and cross-project learning. As an information hub, the TCMP office provides an extensive library of compiled reports, books and other documents. The library is open to partners, students, researchers and others who wish to learn more about coastal ecology, planning and management, and related topics.

SEEDS FOR THE FUTURE

Coastal management is at a critical inflection point in Tanzania. Over the next two to three years, it will be essential to shift the program's emphasis from planning and the development of enabling conditions to implementation of tangible on-the-ground actions. Phase III of the program, approved by the USAID Tanzania mission in early 2003, will focus its efforts—largely at the district level—on implementation activities for the national strategy.

Implementing the national coastal strategy at the local level

The goal of Phase III is "to improve the well being of coastal residents and their environment through the implementation and strengthening of the Tanzania national coastal strategy." The TCMP will continue working with the districts involved in Phase II to promote on-the-ground implementation of the coastal tourism and mariculture investment guidelines. This phase will look to build partnerships for improving food security and quality of life along the coast. Finally, the TCMP's Phase III will increase its investment in research and monitoring of environmental change, economic development, population dynamics and social trends in the focus districts.

Improving the enabling conditions for national-level ICM

The Phase III program recognizes that investments in coastal management should go hand-in-hand with continued support to ICM at the national level. Since the national strategy was approved, new institutional mechanisms need to be established. This includes the need to form a

national ICM steering committee and a NEMC ICM unit, and to reconstitute the working groups. During this phase, the TCMP will also assist NEMC and the DoE to draft coastal sections of the national environmental law. The TCMP will also produce an expanded state of the coast report to include more information on economic development and poverty alleviation. Efforts at the national level will include preparing a communications strategy, collaborating with new organizations such as the U.S. Peace Corps, and expanding the TCMP's reach to Zanzibar.

Continuing to work at a regional scale

In Phase III, the TCMP will continue to collaborate with regional organizations and programs. It will be important to track new initiatives in the region that are spurred by commitments made at the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development or by the anticipated implementation of the Nairobi Convention.

The TCMP will continue to partner with regional organizations such as WIOMSA and the SEACAM—partners who should play an important role in building regional ICM capacity through training courses and other activities that can benefit national and local ICM programs.

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CRAFTING COASTAL GOVERNANCE IN A CHANGING WORLD

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COASTAL RESOURCES CENTER

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The relationship between the U.S, Agency for International Development (USAID) and the Coastal Resources Center (CRC) at the University of Rhode Island has been a true partnership. Together we have faced the difficulties, surprises and successes that mark any attempt to apply new ideas to old problems. The knowledge that we are a single team working for the same goals, and defining together the changes in strategy required by our own learning and the changing circumstances in each country and the world at large, has been central to success of the Coastal Resources Management Program.

A great many people in USAID, in CRC and in the countries where we have worked have contributed to what has been achieved and learned. The authors of this volume thank everyone involved for their creativity, their energy and their leadership in addressing the complex issues in coastal regions. Most especially we thank our in-country teams and our partner institutions who taught us how what was being learned elsewhere could be appropriately applied to their own cultures and the needs of their countries. We have not attempted to list all those that have contributed to the ideas and the experience presented in this volume. To do so would require several long paragraphs.

While so many contributors to the program, one name stands out: Lynne Hale, former associate director of CRC. Lynne left CRC in the last year of the program—but only after setting in motion the drafting and redrafting that has resulted in this volume of reflections, experience and future directions. Lynne was CRC's point person with USAID. She led the design of the CRMP II field programs and made sure that they capitalized on what had been learned from the first set of filed programs. Throughout the 18 years of the program Lynne's passion, perseverance and perception made it the success it became. All who have contributed to this volume thank her and wish her well in the next stage of her career.

PREFACE

OCEANS, COASTS, WATER, AND THE EVOLVING USAID AGENDA

By Bill Sugrue
Director
Office of Environment and Natural Resources
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U.S. Agency for International Development

Since 1985, the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) has
partnered with the University of Rhode Island Coastal Resources Center
(CRC) in carrying out the Coastal Resources Management Program
(CRMP). CRMP is a pioneering initiative working with developing coun-
tries around the world to advance the principles and practices of integrat-
ed coastal management (ICM). During this 18-year partnership, USAID
and CRC, together with partners in the field, have learned a great deal
about the complexities and challenges of better managing our coasts. This
has included learning how to balance the need for ecologically healthy
coasts with the need to promote a better quality of life for those who live
and work there. Throughout this process, CRC has been an instrumental
force in promoting a "learning agenda" for (ICM). In the selected CRMP
stories included in this book, you will share in some of that learning. Let
me summarize here some of the key principles that underlie the ICM
learning agenda.

Advance Integrated Water and Coastal Resources Management for Improved Environmental Protection and Management

It is essential that ICM and integrated water resources management (IWRM) be mainstreamed into sustainable development efforts. ICM and IWRM are essential foundations for improvements in health, food security, economic development, democracy and governance, and biodiversity conservation. We must recognize the interdependence of these development goals. The interdependence of human health, food security, governance and the other human activities is obvious. How development objectives are pursued in these sectors can have dramatic impacts on biodiversity, and on the biosphere. The biosphere is currently in free-fall, so the significance of these impacts is not trivial. Conversely, biodiversity conservation programs, properly conceived, can significantly support CRMP objectives in economic development, food security, governance and other areas. The challenge to development assistance organizations is to ensure that they move beyond single sector responses to more integrated, cross-sectoral approaches that do justice to the exceedingly complex and interrelated factors that shape our world. Principles of integration as practiced in ICM and IWRM must be given the commitment of time and resources that they deserve.

Create Strong Governance at All Levels

Good governance is more than just good government. It encompasses a range of processes in which public, private and civil societies organize and coordinate with each other to make decisions, and distribute rights, obligations and authorities for the use and management of shared coastal resources. A central operating principle of the CRMP has been that effective governance systems are what create the preconditions for achieving sustainable environmental and social benefits. We have learned that good coastal governance functions best when it exists as part of a nested system—that is, one that operates simultaneously at scales ranging from the local to the global. For example, sub-national and community-based management efforts stand the best chances to be effective and to be sustained

over the long term when they are supported by policies and institutional structures at the national level. Meanwhile, national-level initiatives build capacity for ICM governance across spatial and sectoral scales, providing support to local initiatives while addressing coastal development and conservation of more wide-ranging national interest.

PROMOTE PRIVATE AND PUBLIC PARTNERSHIPS

Participatory approaches to conservation are now recognized as one of the few means to ensure sustainable management of ecosystems and natural resources while also meeting local peoples' livelihood needs. This participation is most effective when it includes both the public and private sectors. ICM and IWRM are too complex for one institution or group of constituencies to "go it alone." Forging carefully selected, strategic private-public partnerships can help.

Eco-tourism is just one of the issues around which coastal programs are testing such partnerships. The hope is that by partnering with the private tourism sector, chances improve for achieving environmentally sound, financially sustainable, and culturally appropriate coastal tourism development. When these partnerships succeed, eco-tourism can have significant, positive impacts on local economies and can provide strong incentives for sound environmental protection and management. A caution is that "environmentally sound" and "culturally appropriate" cannot be throwaway lines. They need to be taken seriously. Not all eco-tourism is very "eco," and unless there is true and transparent participation—i.e. the local community is fully engaged, not simply consulted—the impact of tourism on local communities can be destructive economically, socially, and culturally, and the impact on the environment catastrophic and permanent. It is not easy to do this right—but it is essential to do so.

EMPOWER COASTAL COMMUNITIES TO SELF-MANAGE THEIR RESOURCES

This must be done while promoting alternative livelihood and food security objectives. In cases where local social and economic networks are

already well established and thriving, even at relatively low income levels, poorly conceived outside interventions can be extremely and negatively disruptive. Since poverty is not solely a function of income, but also of control of assets, empowerment, and control over one's fate, even the most well-intentioned efforts at poverty reduction or economic growth can have the opposite effect on people if existing arrangements are not taken fully into account. This is especially worthy of consideration in the case of indigenous communities. In such cases, poverty prevention, rather than poverty reduction, may be the appropriate goal. In this way, intact communities with essentially sound traditions of resource management may best be assisted by simply strengthening and supporting their control over local resources. Only modest, incremental initiatives aimed at ensuring continued food security and additional income streams may be called for; but here again, full engagement of the community, not simply consultation, must be the norm.

ADVANCE INSTITUTIONAL STRENGTHENING AND CAPACITY BUILDING AT BOTH THE NATIONAL AND LOCAL LEVELS

Inadequate capacity to practice ICM and to design and implement strategies that lead to more sustainable forms of coastal development remains a primary factor limiting progress in ICM. Too often, development projects bring in external expertise and funding without a parallel effort to build and strengthen in-country partner organizations—leaving partner organizations and the larger ICM effort vulnerable to failure when outside assistance ends. CRMP has used a different approach. Its preference has been to strengthen institutions over extended periods of time and to transfer the skills and the responsibilities for implementation to CRMP collaborating organizations. This approach is grounded in the belief that long-term collaborative relationships with partners maximizes learning and increases the probability that productive efforts will be sustained over many years.

The CRMP experience has also demonstrated the value to be derived from cross-portfolio learning. For example, we have seen how communities in the Philippines that developed community-based marine sanctuaries were able to provide useful insights to Indonesian practitioners attempting to

establish their own marine reserves. Similarly, experience in Ecuador and Sri Lanka in the development of shoreline management guidelines helped CRMP undertake the process more efficiently in Tanzania.

While USAID, through its overseas missions, presently supports coastal and marine activities in over 40 countries, only a small handful of those USAID missions have been able to invest in a more comprehensive ICM approach, with broad attention to all of the general principles cited above. The challenge remains to enhance the dialogue between development agencies and national governments on the economic, social and environmental values of marine and coastal resources, and the proper level of investment to maintain these resources as national and local assets. These priority challenges, which must be faced, and which will help guide USAID's future directions include the need to:

❖ Mainstream applied fisheries research and management into ICM programs, and promote effective governance of commercial, artisanal, and subsistence capture and culture fisheries. Science and technology advances must influence decisions on coastal resource management in a context of good governance. Both are crucial.

❖ Establish networks of marine protected areas with substantial ecological reserves in all regions, while ensuring the sustainability of these activities through the development of alliances and partnerships. Conservation groups and their allies in government and the private sector have made good progress over the past 20 years in establishing parks and reserves to preserve terrestrial biodiversity. The scientific basis for defining these reserves, and managing and linking them, has grown more sophisticated. The number and variety of partners supporting these efforts has grown as well. Coastal and marine reserves need to catch up. Strong partnerships among conservation groups, government, the private sector, and local communities will be essential.

❖ Enhance coastal and nearshore water quality through partnership programs to control both point and non-point sources of marine pollution, while addressing the impact of the growing number of coastal megacities. There has been little meaningful engagement in a significant way with the challenges of coastal resource management in the context of megacities. This is a huge challenge that needs to be confronted for reasons of human welfare and environmental quality.

❖ Reduce the vulnerability of coastal populations and their infrastructure to the growing threat of flooding, storm surge, and coastal erosion due to climate change and rising sea levels. Mitigation efforts are essential. A great deal remains to be done that has not yet been done. But serious—even drastic—efforts in mitigation do not eliminate the need to undertake, simultaneously, ambitious initiatives in adaptation because sea level rise and other effects of global climate change seem inevitable.

What is next? Clearly, coastal and freshwater management challenges and needs will not abate in the foreseeable future. World leaders reaffirmed at the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg the central role that these resource issues will continue to play in the sustainable development agenda. USAID is in full agreement with that affirmation and remains committed to full engagement on these issues.