African Farm/Family Forestry and Producer Organizations for improved livelihoods and sustainable landscape management

Background Paper

“African Farm/Family Forestry Producer Organizations Conference”

Nairobi from 9 to 11 June 2015

By

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(Research consultants)

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# Acronyms and abbreviations

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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANR</td>
<td>Agriculture and Natural Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATFPs</td>
<td>Agroforestry Tree Products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAR</td>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBO</td>
<td>Community Based Organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBNRM</td>
<td>Community Based Natural Resources Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDM</td>
<td>Clean Development Mechanism</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFAs</td>
<td>Community Forest Agreements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIFOR</td>
<td>Centre for International Forestry Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
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<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAP</td>
<td>Forest and Agroforestry Promoters</td>
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<tr>
<td>FFF</td>
<td>Forest and Farm Facility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFPOs</td>
<td>Forest and Farmer Producer Organizations</td>
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<tr>
<td>FLEGT</td>
<td>Forest Law Enforcement Governance and Trade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FSC</td>
<td>Forest Stewardship Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHGs</td>
<td>Greenhouse Gasses</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICRAF</td>
<td>World Agroforestry Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>IFFA</td>
<td>International Family Forestry Alliance</td>
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<tr>
<td>IIED</td>
<td>International Institute for Environment and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>IUCN</td>
<td>International Union for Conservation of Nature</td>
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<tr>
<td>KFS</td>
<td>Kenya Forest Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KFWG</td>
<td>Kenya Forest Working Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOCAP</td>
<td>Mount Cameroon Prunus Management Company Ltd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGOs</td>
<td>Non-governmental Organisations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<td>---------</td>
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<tr>
<td>NTFPs</td>
<td>Non-Timber Forest Products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NWFPs</td>
<td>Non-Wood Forest Products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PES</td>
<td>Payments for Environmental Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PFM</td>
<td>Participatory Forest Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REDD+</td>
<td>Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RRC</td>
<td>Rural Resource Centres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USD</td>
<td>United States of America Dollars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VNRC</td>
<td>Village Natural Resources Committees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VPA</td>
<td>Voluntary Partnership Agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZNFU</td>
<td>Zambia National Farmers Union</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Jeffrey Campbell, Pauline Buffle, Sophie Grouwels, Dominic Walubengo and Lennart Ackzell for guiding the study and for their constructive feedback on earlier drafts of this report.

The authors are grateful to the country experts and representatives of Forest and Farmer Producer Organizations (Annex 1) for taking their time to answer to the interview questions and for their valuable insights on the situation of farm/family forestry in African countries.

This background paper was prepared as input for the “African Farm/Family Forestry Producer Organizations Conference” that takes place in Nairobi from 9 to 11 June 2015. Any comments and additions to the document by conference participants will be welcomed and appreciated.
Executive summary

This background paper provides an overview on the current status of farm/family forestry and Forest and Farmer Producer Organizations (FFPOs) in Sub-Saharan Africa. It serves as input to the “African Farm/Family Producer Organizations Conference” that takes place in Nairobi from 9 to 11 June 2015. The report is based upon review of literature, policy documents and interviews with key informants and representatives of FFPOs, with focus on twelve African countries (Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Liberia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Zambia).

Farm/family forestry holds great potential for expansion throughout Africa while providing for people’s livelihoods and sustainable land management. Major tree crops, forest products harvested, and products of tree domestication provide poor people with means of subsistence and cash income. Farm/family forestry can offer a variety of ecosystem services (conserving biodiversity, pest control, carbon sequestration, erosion control, soil fertility, etc.) and may be part of landscape restoration and building more resilience to effects of climate change. National forest policies generally acknowledge this potential by referring to: agroforestry; trees on agriculture land; or farm-forestry, and current reforms devolve responsibilities to local levels. In practice however, the institutional measures for tree tenure and locally controlled forestland are still in early stages. Appropriate legal frameworks for benefit sharing and local control are prerequisites to tap the potential of present global initiatives on ecosystem services, carbon sequestration, biofuel markets and compensation mechanisms (Chapter 1).

An enabling environment for farm/family forestry needs to deal with issues around land tenure, market access and capacity needs. Lack of coherence among sectoral policies and competing land claims of different sectors put pressure on land and weaken long-term perspectives for forest-farmers. Land tenure and access to trees in Sub-Saharan Africa are often characterized by a disconnect between official land law and local practices under customary laws, exclusion of vulnerable groups, cumbersome official land registration and pressure on farm lands due to large-scale land acquisition by investors in agrifoods and biofuels. Early experiences with community forestry show obstacles regarding management skills, cumbersome procedures, competition with informal loggers and elite capture. Supporting policies that promote tree-planting, sustainable agriculture and forest management need to be accompanied by measures to secure tenure. Markets for forest products are currently expanding under increasing urban and global demand, offering potential to generating income and targeting sustainable supply. However, farm forestry producers may not benefit from markets due to: low prices; lack of market information; limited value adding; limited access to finances; difficulties and bribes during transportation and competing illegally harvested produce. Policies to stimulate marketing and trade of forest products generally lack behind and implementation of international initiatives, such as FLEGT/VPA or REDD+, may not be inclusive to smallholders. Facilitating market access, business support and partnerships with private sector can help to increase the market potential for forest farmers. Forest farmers’ main needs for capacity and extension services are: secure access to

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1This paper was commissioned by the international Family Forestry Alliance (IFFA) and the Forest and Farm Facility (FFF) under a joint collaboration between the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) and the International Institute for Economic Development (IIED).
land and trees; training on sustainable techniques; materials for tree-planting; training and technology for processing and packaging; business skills; knowledge on market chain and negotiation skills, and; market information systems. Present initiatives to enhancing capacities for farm/family forestry in Africa deal with building new types of partnerships to bridge the gaps between different actors and improve information exchange, introducing new tools and techniques on how to grow and market certain varieties, and improving the policy arena (Chapter 2).

Forest and Farm Producer Organizations (FFPOs) are formal or informal entities that operate at different scales and specialise in certain products or steps of the commodity chain. Good governance, optimal group size, transparency, appropriate product types, and market orientation enhance the role of FFPOs in providing benefits to forest and farm producers. Examples on well-functioning FFPOs show that these organizations generally have one or more of the following elements in place: clear objectives; good management; clear benefit sharing mechanisms; organized group sales; empowerment of vulnerable groups; information dissemination; mutual trust and passion, and; access provision to improved techniques and market (Chapter 3).

FFPOs provide a variety of services to forest and farm producers to benefit sustainably from forest resources and herewith contribute to job creation, food security, poverty reduction and environmental services. FFPOs assist by: increasing political voice for improved rights; enhancing negotiation power; delivering business advice and services; collective marketing efforts; accessing finances or certification schemes; diversifying businesses; gaining market information, and; building capacity for sustainable management and advocating interests. These roles of FFPOs in supporting production and marketing efforts for improved livelihoods are increasingly being recognized. National policies provide for FFPOs with types of associations and official registration is generally easy. Various policies address challenges of FFPOs and related organizations, such as by: providing secure land titles; subsidizing agriculture production; promote sales and transformation of products; support marketing events for agro-forestry products; provide access to credits; promote tree-planting, and; guarantee community rights. Implementation of these policies together with long(er)-term support to FFPOs will increase their effectiveness in supporting farm/family forestry and related outcomes for livelihoods and sustainable land use (Chapter 4).

In conclusion, farm/family forestry and FFPOs in Sub-Saharan Africa can contribute to livelihoods of rural poor and improved landscape resource management but the overall financial and institutional supports are still limited. Future supports can build upon present opportunities, notably on: the institutional reforms on devolving rights to local communities and cross-sectoral land use planning; expanding global markets for forest products; attention to biofuels; climate change mitigation; certification schemes, and; compensation mechanism. FFPOs contribute to benefits for forest and farm producers by i.e. creation of marketing networks and increasing political voice of this group of actors. Main challenges to deal with are: lack of appropriate legal frameworks for benefit sharing and local control; forest farmers’ lack of market access and capacity needs; short-term and fragmented donor support to FFPOs; contradicting messages of forestry and agriculture services, and; uncertainties on prospects for carbon sequestration and carbon finance. To sustain the outcomes of FFPOs in ensuring social, economic and environmental sustainability of farm/family forestry, national governments, donors and development partners could build on the opportunities highlighted and tackle the identified challenges (Chapter 5).
Introduction

In most of Africa, 70% of the population lives in rural areas. This population greatly depends on forests for their livelihoods (Tieguhong & Nkamnia, 2012, Tieguhong et al., 2009). As natural forests get depleted due to unsustainable logging and agricultural activities, these people have the potential to plant desirable trees on their own farms (Foundjem-Tita et al., 2013; Tieguhong et al., 2012a). However, in many African countries, forest farmers are not given the legal and institutional recognition that they deserve to plant, own and sell tree products (Ingram et al., 2014; Unruh, 2008). The implication is that forest policies and laws do not take into account this important segment of forest stakeholders (Macqueen et al., 2015). In particular, forest communities face the following challenges: insecure land/tree tenure; poor market access; lack of access to financial services, poor quality extension and capacity building support services; and ineffective local and national groups for collective actions (DeMarsh et al., 2014; FAO, 2014a; Mala et al., 2012).

In response to these impending challenges facing African forest-dependent populations, this paper was commissioned by the International Family Forestry Alliance (IFFA) and the Forest and Farm Facility (FFF) under a joint collaboration between the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) and the International Institute for Economic Development (IIED) for presentation at an international conference to be held in Nairobi, Kenya from the 9-11 June 2015. The conference is designed to discuss and share experiences on farm/family forestry, tree growing and community forestry groups and their national federations in Africa. Participants to the conference will include high level government forest managers, forest technical agencies, donor agencies, academic institutions, and general forestry groups who are committed to encourage the development of family farm forestry producer organizations and federations in Africa. To this end, the paper documents some important facets of farm/family forestry in selected countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Liberia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Zambia), especially on efforts already being made in the direction of promoting private forestry, farm/family forestry, community forestry, landowner forestry or Forest and Farm Producer Organizations (FFPOs) to ensure poverty alleviation and Sustainable Forest Management (SFM) at the local level.

This background paper sets the scene for farm/family forestry in Africa by an overview of the status of farm/family forestry in national forest policies and its contribution to economic development and sustainable landscape management (Chapter 1). It furthermore discusses what entails an enabling environment for farm/family forestry, with special focus on land tenure, market access and capacity needs (Chapter 2). The importance of Forest and Farm Producer Organizations (FFPOs) and examples of good organizations are presented together with a discussion on main opportunities and challenges for these producer organizations (Chapter 3). FFPOs provide a variety of services to forest farmers for them to better benefit sustainably from forest resources. FFPOs on their turn have capacity needs to enforce their operations (Chapter 4). Farm/family forestry and FFPOs in Sub-Saharan Africa can contribute to livelihoods of rural poor and improved landscape resource management. The conclusion on identified opportunities and challenges offers directions for optimizing these benefits (Chapter 5).
Methodology

The scope of this study is farm/family forestry and producer organizations in Africa (East, Southern, West and Central Africa). Based upon the existing network of the organizing partners, the following twelve countries have been selected for analysis on the status of farm forestry and FFPOs in-country: Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Liberia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Zambia.

The methodology for data collection included 13 structured (email) interviews with key informants and representatives of FFPOs in the selected countries (Annex 1), websites searches, and desk reviews on available literature and country forest policies to assess forest tenure, status, challenges and opportunities for farm/family forestry in Africa. The literature search was conducted in the scientific databases of ISI Web of Sciences (papers) and Google Scholar (books, reports). The collected literature and interviews have been content-wise analyzed on the research themes. Time and resources were limited and did not allow conducting in-depth field studies or undertaking surveys. In this light, this study serves as a scoping study to give a snapshot of existing information on the status of farm/family forestry and producer organizations in Sub-Saharan Africa. This background paper will be presented and discussed on the “African Farm/Family Forestry Producer Organizations Conference” that will take place in Nairobi from 9 to 11 June 2015. This exchange with representatives from organizations, which represent farm/family forestry in Africa, as well as government forest managers, forest technical agencies, NGOs, donor agencies and academic institutes, will serve to validate the findings and to identify possible gaps.
1. Setting the scene for Farm/ Family Forestry in Africa

In developing countries, it is primarily farmers who interact with and manage forest ecosystems, which underlines the strong link between forestry and agriculture. Interactions between farmers and tree-based systems vary, from protecting valuable tree species in natural forests to domestication of trees in home gardens and cultivating forest plantations (Michon et al., 2007). This chapter discusses the current status of farm/family forestry (See Box 1 for definitions and concepts) in Sub-Saharan Africa. Subsequently it presents the contribution of farm/family forestry to economic development and sustainable landscape management in African countries. It concludes by presenting new opportunities for promoting farm/family forestry.

Box 1  Farm/ Family Forestry, what’s in the name?

‘Farm forestry’, a concept mainly used in South and Southeast Asia (Long & Nair, 1999), has no universally agreed upon definition, but it has been used interchangeably with ‘agroforestry’ that refers to land-use involving trees and other woody perennials on farmlands or pastures (Harrison et al., 2002). Present day agroforestry focuses on “trees grown on farms and in rural landscapes” that “provides many livelihood and environmental benefits” (www.worldagroforestry.org). ‘Family forestry’ is a common way of forest management in Nordic countries, also related to the American concept of ‘Nonindustrial private Forestry’ (NIPF). It links to the concept of ‘Community forestry’ that has been widely used throughout the developing world, in which community members manage a communal forest area. These styles of forest management all imply types of ‘small-scale forestry’ that hold different meanings in different regions of the world, but generally contrasts with ‘large-scale or industrial forestry’ in ways of management, motivation and production (Harrison et al., 2002). Small-scale forestry generally serves a greater range of social, economic and environmental services, compared to profit-oriented industrial forestry (Herbohn, 2006). Understanding the range of local types of (community) forest management should take into account the range of people’s livelihood activities within the forest–farm interface (Cronkleton et al., 2013). The Forest and Farm Facility defines ‘Forest-and-farm producers’ as “women and men, smallholder families, indigenous peoples and local communities who have strong relationships with forests and farms in forested landscapes. Such producers grow, manage, harvest and process a wide range of natural-resource-based goods and services for subsistence use and for sale in local, national and international markets.” ‘Forest and Farm Producer Organizations’ (FFPOs) are “formal or informal associations of producers – women and men, smallholder families, indigenous peoples and local communities – who have strong relationships with forests and (often) farms in forested landscapes” (DeMarsh et al., 2014). This paper refers mostly to the term ‘farm/family forestry’ that is being used by FFF and IFFA globally, while recognizing that in the African context there is much overlap with related concepts that describe forest management involving farmers, such as: small-scale forestry, smallholder plantations, community forestry, agroforestry and trees on farms.
1.1 Status of Farm/ Family Forestry in Africa

Locally controlled forestry in Africa is mainly established through individual tree owners and community forestry. Family forestry and forest associations are common forms of local management in some countries (such as Cameroon and Liberia). Review of national forestry policies confirms a trend towards devolving forest management to local communities, with community forestry being developed in most countries. Countries explicitly refer to agroforestry, trees on agriculture land, or farm-forestry, as practices that should be promoted for sustainable forest management (See Table 1). The government of Ethiopia aims to promote farm-forestry practices among rural communities by providing seeds, seedlings, technical support on planting and conserving tree species and training on marketing of forest products (The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2007). The Gambian forest policy encourages tree farming on agriculture lands and aims to facilitate rural communities and regional Farmer Platform in natural resource management (Government of Gambia, n.d.). In Kenya, commercial and sustainable tree-growing is promoted throughout a number of policies and laws, including the Forest Act, the Forest Policy, the Energy Policy, the Energy Act, the Land Policy, the Land Act, the Agriculture Policy and the Agriculture Act. Kenya’s 2010 Constitution provides important basic elements in support of farm/ family forestry. It grants all citizens the rights to land, property and an equitable sharing of natural resources. Moreover it introduces land reforms that hold principles to equitable, efficient and productive land holding and the state commits to achieving and maintaining tree cover of at least 10 percent of total land area (Makhanu, n.d.). The new forest policy of 2014 explicitly supports the development of community and farm forestry and the marketing of forest-based products (Republic of Kenya, 2014).

Despite the objectives set to promote farm-forestry in national forest policies, national institutional frameworks for farm-forestry still appear to be in early development with little official rights granted to rural communities. Experts describe the overall status of farm/family forestry mostly as “weak” or “not developed”. The institutional measures and legal basis to tree and land tenure and locally controlled forestry are largely absent or still in early stages of development. Despite the efforts of numerous public and private organizations listed (such as: Ministry of Forestry; NGOs; FAO; IUCN; ICRAF; Farmers’ Union), there is still an overall lack of awareness on legal rights, techniques and skills regarding farm/family forestry (Interviews, May 2015). This shows the importance of putting the intentions formulated in current policies into actions, or, as formulated in Ghana’s Forest Policy, to: “Enact the legislations that will enable communities to benefit from trees on their farms and fallow lands, provide off-reserve tree tenure security, authority to legally dispose of resources and allocate greater proportion of benefits accruing from resource management to community members individually or collectively” (Republic of Ghana, 2011). In Zambia, the government aims at integration of agriculture and forestry sectors, which could offer a strong institutional basis for Sustainable Forest Management (Mulenga, 2014).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Farm/family forestry in national forest policy</th>
<th>FFPOs in national forest policy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Africa</td>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>Legal provisions for community forestry and related forest products, private (planted) forests and permits for special forest products. The National Forest Domain does not include farmlands or agroforestry, but old fallows can again be considered and managed as national forest domains with conservation objectives and user rights with certain restrictions (République du Cameroun, 1994). The local ministry of agriculture is represented in the commission that advises forest classifications. The Chamber of Agriculture is represented in the technical provincial commission that advises issuing of permits for wood/forest product exploitation (République du Cameroun, 1995).</td>
<td>Community forestry, Communal forestry, village community (République du Cameroun, 1995).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
<td>Promotion of community forestry; Improved use of forest products; Agroforestry (promote techniques, seeds, seedlings,); Afforestation and reforestation to produce woodfuel; Simple management plans for artisanal timber and NTFPs; Agroforestry under Carbon finance (CDM) (Gouvernement de la Republique Democratique du Congo, n.d.).</td>
<td>Promote creation of small and medium enterprises to formalize and valorize certain NTFPs (Gouvernement de la Republique Democratique du Congo, n.d.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Africa</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Objectives on Farm forestry are: promote partnerships with land owners to increase on-farm tree cover; promote investment in farm forestry; promote on-farm species diversification; promote development of forest based enterprises; promote processing and marketing of farm forestry products; promote forestry extension and technical services (Republic of Kenya, 2014).</td>
<td>Community forest associations, forest-based enterprises, non-wood forest product enterprises (Republic of Kenya, 2014).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Provides right to obtain rural land in areas designated for forest development; participatory management plans with communities for conservation and production purposes; Introduce farm-forestry practices among the farming and semi-pastoral communities and provide them with sufficient amount of plant seeds and seedlings; Provide technical support to farmers and semi-pastoralists In the selection and planting of tree and forage plant species and conservation of the existing ones; give technical advice to farmers, semi-pastoralists, individual forest owners and organizations on marketing of forest products (The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2007).</td>
<td>Technical advice on marketing of forest products to be given to farmers, semi-pastoralists, individual forest owners and organizations (The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2007).</td>
</tr>
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This overview focused on the status of farm/family forestry in national forest policies. A broader assessment, including national policies related to land, agriculture, environment, climate change and energy, could provide a more in-depth and cross-sectoral analysis of the formal status of farm/family forestry. See for example Makhanu, n.d. for such an overview for Kenya.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Actions and Policies</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Enact a law that removes restrictions to access to the use of forests and forest products, and promote equity and participation by local communities; Promote proven methods for utilizing forest products and introduce value-adding processes; Enhance sustainable and profitable networks of rural marketing services and the transportation of forest products; Promote increased forestry production, controlled utilization of over-mature trees and access for the collection of non-timber forest products; Encourage agroforestry and establishment of nurseries; Promote on-farm planting; Establish incentives to promote community-based conservation and a sustainable utilization of the forest resources, including on-farm trees, and fostering the growing of trees by all sections of the communities; Strengthen and maintain regular reward system for tree planting and promote growing of trees by individual companies, estates, local communities and authorities, including the integration of forests and trees into farming systems, soil conservation activities and land-use systems; Ensure that the Forest Act makes adequate provision for the conservation and management of forests and trees on private land (Government of Malawi, 1996).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Africa</td>
<td>Creation of work and revenues for the benefit of the population. Participation and responsibilities of the population in forestry activities and decentralized natural resources management. A cutting permit is required for all tree cutting inside of forests, except for trees from permanent agriculture. Forest exploitation of decentralized collective territories should integrate forestry with rural development and should contribute to optimal development of agriculture, livestock and forestry (Le president du FASO, 1997). Underlying options of the Forest Policy linked to farm forestry are: generating work and stable income in rural areas and organization and exploitation of rural space. It entails a participatory approach and integrated management with other land-use functions. Research will focus on i.e. value adding and domestication of forest products and agro-forestry (Burkina Faso, 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>Enhance active participation of communities and land owners in resource management; address issues on tree tenure and benefit sharing; promote the development of viable forest and wildlife based industries and livelihoods; Enact the legislations that will enable communities and individuals to benefit from trees on their farms and fallow lands, Support specialized training and craftsmanship schemes for wood processing, bamboo, rubber wood, cane and rattan and lesser-known tree and NTFP species (Republic of Ghana, 2011).</td>
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<td>Promote development of small-and medium-scale industries in the rural areas and provide an enabling framework for participation of local communities and the private sector in forest conservation and management, eliminating restrictions on sustainable of essential forest products by local communities, and promoting planned harvesting and regeneration of the forest resources by Village Natural Resources Committees (VNRC’s) (Government of Malawi, 1996).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participation by economic operators and rural population organized in groups or appropriate structures (Burkina Faso, 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Promote small and medium forest and wildlife enterprises (Republic of Ghana, 2011).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>Develop and implement a national reforestation program, including realistic annual targets for new planting, enrichment planting and agroforestry; Develop appropriate mechanisms and incentives to encourage involvement of the private sector and local communities in reforestation; Encourage tree planting for environmental improvement and income generation by the private sector, individuals, local communities and community-based organizations; Establish a framework for community forest management that allows communities to maximize benefits from all potential uses of forests and to grant user and management rights and responsibilities to them (Republic of Liberia, 2006).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>Promote community forestry management; encourages tree farming on agricultural lands, grazing lands, and along roadsides to improve their productivity and contribute to soil and water conservation; promotes private sector involvement in non-wood forest products, processing and marketing (Government of Gambia, n.d.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Mozambique</td>
<td>The Forest and Wildlife Code holds mechanisms for the involvement of local communities and sustainable exploitation for the benefit of local communities. The Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development is the dedicated ministry. Local communities can use forest products for commercialization via simple licensing systems or forest concessions (República de Mocambique Conselho de Ministros, 2002). Communities have started to formalize their management’s legal rights from 2002 (FAO, 2010).</td>
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<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Support community forestry; Facilitate the entry of small farmers and entrepreneurs by introducing incentives and by minimizing barriers; Establish the districts within which new afforestation would be most beneficial, as well as the land- use and farming systems best suited to the needs of the local people, and ways of assuring the supply of wood to capital intensive processing plants; Provide training and advice to small farmers, contractors and entrepreneurs in skills such as those needed to negotiate and manage contracts develop district level or catchment level plans for areas where there are many small farmers in forestry developments in order to regulate small-scale afforestation so that social and environmental costs are mitigated and impacts on water resources minimized (Government of South Africa, 1997).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Measures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Promotion of private investments in forestry such as in non-wood forests products, carbon forests, farm forests, plantation forestry and homestead forestry should be encouraged; Promotion of Community-based participation in the management of protected forest areas and forests on customary lands; Provide training in managing certified forests, carbon trade, harvesting and preservation skills for entrepreneurs wishing to deal in NWFPs; Encourage and facilitate private sector investment in the production, value adding and marketing of NWFPs; Encourage harvesting techniques that ensure optimal regeneration of non-wood forest products; Promote involvement of women in small scale enterprises dealing in NWFPs; Establish a comprehensive understanding of the resource base by carrying out periodic inventories of NWFPs; Facilitate the development of appropriate technologies for the propagation and productivity, harvesting, processing and commercialization of economically important NWFPs such as orchids, rattan, bamboo, honey and beeswax to enhance livelihoods (Zambia, 2009).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Providing incentives for the creation of enterprises and forest-based livelihood systems; Support public private partnerships in the establishment of forest industries, especially small scale and cottage industries in potentially high value and marketable products such as honey, beeswax, carbon trading, rattan and timber; Encourage small scale enterprises dealing in NWFPs such as carbon credits and, mushrooms, honey and beeswax processing. Local communities, including community-based organizations (CBOs), shall be the key actors in planning and management of forests and investment in forestry at local levels (Zambia, 2009).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.2 Farm/Family Forestry’s contribution to livelihoods and economic development

Forest and tree resources provide poor people with means for subsistence and cash income. By this it contributes to poverty reduction and provides livelihood diversification to supplement often-low agriculture production (Sunderlin et al., 2005). Contributions of farm/family forestry to economies may range from local trade of food products, medicines, oils, fodder, eco-tourism, providing wood for construction and energy, to trade in valuable tree crops for international markets (Hajjar & Timko, 2014; Makhanu, n.d.; Mulenga, 2014; Nganje, 2013). Also due to this variety of products, sources, and destinations, data on forest and tree products’ contribution to livelihoods and economic development are often fragmented or non-existent. Nonetheless, it is believed that trade of tree/forest products offer important contributions to household budgets and livelihood diversification (Dawson et al., 2014). This impact of farm/family forestry on economic development is likely to be underestimated due to largely informal and domestic markets. For example, the largely informal chainsaw milling and trade of wood for domestic markets in Cameroon, largely sourced from shifting cultivation, is estimated to create 44,000 jobs (Cerutti & Lescuyer, 2011). Woodfuel provides important sources of income to producers in areas of high demand, with an estimated 300,000 people involved for supply of DRC’s capital Kinshasa alone (Schure et al., 2014). Some of world’s major tree crops are being produced in smallholder systems, such as coffee and cocoa. Whereas crop productivity in small integrated management systems may be lower compared to mono-crop plantations, tree productivity can be higher due to the relatively intensive management provided in agroforestry systems. In addition, income from these trees can be supplemented by income from harvesting of forest and tree products from diverse landscapes (Idol et al., 2011).

Below sections illustrate the importance of farm/family forestry to livelihoods and economic development, according to two production categories: Non-Timber Forest Products (NTFPs) harvesting from forestlands and smallholder tree-growing practices producing Agroforestry Tree Products (AFTPs) on farmlands.

Non-timber forest product harvesting

Non-timber forest product harvesting by rural populations involves a large variety of products for trade, consumption or other uses and thus contributes in a large variety of ways to people’s livelihoods. Estimating national market values of NTFPs remains difficult due to lack of official data and fragmented case studies using different methods to calculate real or estimated market values. Overall, environmental income has been estimated to contribute 28 percent of household income to rural populations in developing countries, of which 77 percent is accounted for by income from natural forests (Angelsen et al., 2014). An overview of case studies from Africa shows that the proportion of household income from NTFPs can vary widely, from 15 percent to 80 percent for the groups studied, with generally a higher proportion of NTFP income among poorer groups (Jammnadass et al., 2015). A review of annual market values of NTFPs in Cameroon revealed highest values for woodfuel (379 million USD), *Gnetum africanum*, *G. Buchholzianum* (12 million USD), *Irvingia gabonensis/Irvingia wombulu* (8 million USD) and *Prunus africana* (almost 3 million USD) (Ingram et al., 2012). Surveys of NTFP trade of bush mango, eru leaves, honey, bamboos, gum Arabic, pygeum bark, raffia, bamboo and cola nuts, estimated a total annual market value of 32 million USD, with 34,000 people involved (Ingram, 2014). In the Miombo, NTFPs offer often under-estimated economic importance to rural poor by provision of woodfuel, food and medicinal plants (Syampungani et al., 2009). In Kenya’s arid and semi-arid lands, tree-
planting is rare and wood products are generally collected from naturally occurring woodlots. These products, including woodfuel, frankincense, myrrh, gum Arabic, aloe, resin, sandalwood and herbal medicines have limited contribution to household income due to underdeveloped markets for these products (Makhanu, n.d.).

**Smallholder tree-growing practices**

Agroforestry trees provide services and products (AFTPs) that improve cash income, food security and environmental resilience and ultimately contribute to the Millennium Development Goals of improved human welfare, poverty alleviation and reduced environmental degradation (Leakey et al., 2005). Agroforestry can be one of the strategies towards sustainable intensification of agriculture production. This is of special importance for the African continent where poverty and hunger remain widespread and per capita food production has only increased for North and West Africa (34 and 10 percent respectively, since 1960) with per capita decreases of 21 percent in East Africa, 22 percent in Southern Africa and 40 percent in Middle Africa (Pretty et al., 2011). Agroforestry can be part of poverty reduction strategies by increase of on-farm food production and provision of cash income, when accompanied by marketing strategies and enterprise development (Garrity, 2004). Farmers use tree resources as an important additional source of income, especially when crop prices decrease (Idol et al., 2011). In Africa, hundreds of tree species (of which around half indigenous species) have been identified that perform multiple services to people’s livelihoods, providing apiculture, fibre, fodder, food, fuel, medicine, soil improvement and timber (Dawson et al., 2014). Farmers generally grow single trees of species by planting, transplanting or allowing for natural regeneration of valuable species. Trees are grown in production forests, agroforestry systems or home gardens. Assessment of major globally traded tree-products, palm oil, coffee, rubber, cocoa and tea from African regions show high export values, especially for cocoa and rubber from the Western African region (See Figure 1). These tree-crops are often found on smallholders farmlands, but the exact portion of export value accrued by smallholders is unknown (Dawson et al., 2014). Examples of valuable African tree-products that are harvested by smallholders and traded on regional and international markets are safou fruit (*Dacryodes edulis*), Njansang *Ricinodendron heudelottii* and Kola nut *Cola nitida* and the bark of *Prunus Africana* for the pharmaceutical industry (Ingram et al., 2009; Jamnadass et al., 2011).
Figure 1: Export value of major tree-crops in African regions

Source: FAOSTAT, 2014. Most recent export values are provided for 2011. Cocoa includes beans, paste, butter and powder & cake, coffee includes extracts, greens, husks and skins, and roasted, oil palm includes oil and kernel, rubber includes natural dry and natural.

Tree domestication for tree products in demand, such as mango kernels (Irvingia spp) and Eru/Okok leaves (Gnetum africanum) in Central Africa, can help to reduce pressure on overharvested wild tree species and improve product quality that responds to market demand. Not only the tree products provide for cash income, but also the improved trees and nurseries can offer substantial income generation (Asaah et al., 2014). Domestication of fruits and nuts from Cameroon show a good example of how farmers manage to cultivate commercially attractive trees within diverse agriculture systems, mainly in cocoa agro-forestry (Leakey et al., 2005). Commercialization of ATFPs in Southern Africa confirms the potential of domestication trees for improving livelihoods of poor farmers (Leakey et al., 2005).
Other economic benefits of tree-growing may be provided indirectly, such as the increased crop production and uptake of apiculture as consequences of dissemination of fertilizer trees in Cameroon (Asaah et al., 2014). Growing trees and bushes for fodder by smallholder farmers in Southern Africa contributes to livestock production and related household income (Chakeredza et al., 2007). Tree plantations can be profitable to smallholders when demand is relatively stable and provide additional sources of income to supplement income of agriculture crops (Idol et al., 2011; Pokorny, Hoch, & Maturana, 2010).

Inter and intra-household differences in obtaining benefits from tree products need to be considered. NTFPs play an important role in coping strategies of poor households and vulnerable groups of women and children by either subsistence use or trade (Shackleton & Gumbo, 2010). Poor households tend to have a greater proportion of household income from sales of NTFPs, but absolute revenues are higher for wealthier households (Angelsen et al., 2014). Women have generally less involvement in agroforestry practices in terms of surfaces and quantities of tree planting and when fruits are being commercialized they are more likely to be involved in retailing with little control over the production process (Kiptot & Franzel, 2012). Although in the Congo Basin it are both men and women who benefit from NTFPs for cash income and domestic use, trade of high-value NTFPs is generally controlled by men (Ingram et al., 2014).

1.3 Farm/ Family Forestry and sustainable landscape management

Farm/family forestry is believed to contribute to a variety of ecosystem services including: improved soil and water conservation, conserving biodiversity, weed and pest control and carbon sequestration in plant biomass and soil organic matter (Idol et al., 2011). Whereas natural stands of forest products are likely to become overexploited under increasing demand and weak resource governance regimes, farmers’ efforts in protecting and growing tree resources hold great potential for sustainable landscape management. The West African Sahel and Burkina Faso and Niger in particular have seen massive tree planting by farmers, which has improved soil quality, water catchment, biomass levels and livelihood benefits (Mortimore & Turner, 2005; Pretty et al., 2011). Integrated landscape management approaches that provide incentives to farmers and agroforestry can contribute to diminishing pressure from agriculture on protected areas (Ashley et al., 2006).

Tree planting on farm-lands can serve as windbreaks or living fences, while protecting crops from wildlife, providing for shade and improved soil fertility. Erosion control and aesthetic reasons may be other benefits from the planted trees and shrubs. Local agroforestry in South Africa comprises a number of different practices (in order of importance): ‘living fences’, ‘roadside plantings’, ‘micro catchments’, ‘improved fallows’, ‘open spaces/public areas’, ‘contour’, ‘windbreaks’, ‘borderlines’, ‘waterways’, ‘home gardens’, ‘earthwork structures’, and ‘alley cropping’ (Kelso & Jacobson, 2011). Small-holder land management generally provides for higher biodiversity compared to intensive large scale land systems and they can provide corridors for forest-dependent species to increase connectivity in forest landscapes. Smallholders can be part of reforestation programs “as long as there is flexibility to accommodate tree harvesting, understory planting or manipulation, and the inclusion of non-native species that are of particular value to smallholders” (Idol et al., 2011).
Improved soil fertility by agroforestry can assist farmers in regions with degraded lands and lack of means to buy fertilizers, such as in large parts of Central Africa (Asaah et al., 2014). Tree planting can have different effects on soil fertility and avoiding of degradation. An example from Ethiopia shows how specific trees on farms (C. macrostachyus and C. Africana) contributed to soil fertility of farmlands besides providing for other products and services (Gindaba et al., 2005). In Malawi, dissemination of agroforestry with fertilizer, fruit and fodder tree systems improved soil quality and food production (Beedy et al., 2013). In the savannah regions of DRC’s plateau Bateke, planting of Acacia auriculiformus in a rotating agroforestry system did improve soil fertility, but only to a limited extent that still required slash-and-burn practices to release sufficient nutrients for new cultivation cycle (Kasongo et al., 2009).

Smallholder agroforestry practices can contribute to conservation of tree species on-farm, which helps to avoid further encroachment into forests and acts as corridors of wild stands in the wider landscape (Dawson et al., 2013). Options to manage for diversity of tree-species from more natural induced systems (such as protection or assisted natural regeneration) to more human led systems (such as tree domestication) depend on the stage of landscape change (tree cover transition curve) (Ordonez et al., 2014). Agroforestry or tree-planting by farmers do not automatically protect diversity of tree species, as illustrated for example by a case study on Burkina Faso where, from a choice of over hundred locally found tree species, farmers plant primarily cashew nut trees for cash income and only five different fruit trees (Augusseau et al., 2006). Cameroon’s southwestern lowlands found that agroforestry lands contained far less endemic species (18% decrease of bird species to 90% decrease of understory plants) compared to near primary forests in the region (Waltert et al., 2011). A study on agroforestry systems in Kenya found that most indigenous species were located in the living fences, with little diversity and conservation potential to be found at the smallholder coffee farms (Pinard et al., 2014).

Smallholders’ diversification of agroforestry management systems is likely to create more resilience of these land systems to future climate change (Lasco et al., 2014). Whereas agriculture is a main contribute to greenhouse gas emissions (GHGs), agroforestry can contribute reducing emissions by storing CO₂ in its tree biomass and soil organic matter. Agroforestry is an important sustainable alternative to Slash and Burn agriculture and it is estimated that agroforestry sequesters three times as much carbon compared to croplands or grasslands (an additional 57 Mg C/ ha) (Sanchez, 2000). Carbon finance projects that are inclusive to non-carbon benefits can assist farmers to transition to more sustainable land management (Foster & Neufeldt, 2014). Agroforestry and farm managed natural regeneration can be a low-cost solution for land scape restoration, supported by finances from Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), as illustrated by a project in Ethiopia (Brown et al., 2011).

The fallows and agroforestry systems that follow conversion of forestlands are valued for their variety of goods and ecosystem services. However, based on case studies from developing countries, Pfund et al. (2011) argue that this may just be a temporary phase, eventually to be turned into more profitable, but less diverse, monoculture farmlands. Moreover, it should be noted that tree planting could also have adverse effects on ecosystems. Smallholder plantations that may be effective in providing ecosystem services on degraded land areas have low or even negative outcomes when they replace existing landscapes on fertile (more profitable) soils (Pokorny et al., 2010). Some tree planting that provides cash income and diversification to households, such as Eucalyptus by farmers in Ethiopia, has
been adopted despite farmers’ perception of adverse environmental impacts and possible negative effects on farm lands and crop production (Jenbere et al., 2012). Uptake of producing commercial trees and bushes, such as jatropha for biofuel in outgrower schemes in Zambia, actually leads to more clearing of forests. This is the direct result of need of more land for planting of the tree crop and indirectly to replace the land previously used for food crops (German et al., 2011).

In conclusion, farm/family forestry holds great potential for expansion throughout Africa while providing for people’s livelihoods and sustainable land management. Domestication of new tree crops enhances multi-functionality of agroforestry systems while providing food security and income to poor smallholder farmers (Asaah et al., 2014). Smallholders tree-planting and agroforestry systems are increasingly recognized as way to increase farmers’ resilience to future risks under climate change (Lasco et al., 2014). Current policy reforms in many African countries to devolve responsibilities to local communities offer new opportunities to secure access and tenure over land and trees. Improved farm/family forestry needs to build upon existing best practices and new opportunities, such as benefits from ecosystem services, carbon sequestration and biofuel market. It should answer to present challenges related to climate change, food security and inclusion of vulnerable groups and involve policy frameworks that bring together forestry and agriculture sectors (Mbow et al., 2014).

The next Chapter discusses in more detail the enabling environment for farm/family forestry, with focus on land tenure, market access and capacity needs.
2. Getting the enabling environment right

2.1 Land tenure and other supporting policies

Land tenure

Some of the main issues identified for farm/family forestry related to land tenure in African countries are:

- Disconnect between official land law and customary rights (official land title may be granted without taking community rights into account);
- Local specific and species-specific rules related to tree and land ownership may exclude vulnerable groups;
- Land registration is cumbersome and expensive process;
- Pressure on land because of large concessions bought by foreign investors or local elite and demographic pressure (Interviews, May 2015).

There often is a large gap between existing policies and regulations on land and tree tenure and local practices under customary laws. Farmers in Cameroon for example did not know of official laws on access and trade of indigenous fruit species and most of them did not plan on changing their tree planting behavior (Foundjem-Tita et al., 2014). Unclear provisions on land tenure and accessing trees complicate long term prospects needed for tree planting. Uptake of planting fruit trees or *Prunus Africana* by farmers in Cameroon depended much on their ownership of land (Degrande et al., 2006; Gyau et al., 2012). On-farm tree planting in Ethiopia has been limited due to lack of secure land tenure, abrupt changes in rural policies and heavy burden of acquiring permits to trade on-farm produced wood products vs. *de facto* open and free access to forest resources (Kassa et al., 2011). Rules on tree felling and rights to naturally occurring timber trees on farmlands in Ghana do not allow for farmers to use timber trees for commercial or domestic use. Without the provision of some type of timber cutting permit for individual farmers, they are forced to burn trees on their lands, or, as is often the case, do not comply to these rules and operate their timber harvesting and trade illegally (Ramicilovic-Suominen & Hansen, 2012). In some cases, traditional authorities have actively attempted to fill the void of secure land tenure for tree-planting at local levels, such as via the enactment of bylaws in Zambia (Ajayi & Kwesiga, 2003).

Throughout Africa, it is often customary rules that govern access to land and tree tenure through “combinations of individual/family/lineage/clan rights that interact and vary depending on the conditions” (Karsent, 2010). Access depends for example on local resource abundance, marriage and inheritance customs, whether the producer is a local or an outsider, gender, traditional customs, social relations, gifts and payments, and respect of local rules (Augusseau et al., 2006; Hansen et al., 2005). A study on tree planting under customary tenure in Malawi showed how the tradition of men moving to women’s villages after marriage forms a disincentive to tree planting (Hansen et al., 2005). Temporary access makes reforestation or domestication unattractive and aggravates pressure on tree resources. Also under traditional rights for local inhabitants, access to land may be temporary as reported for Bateke Plateau in DRC (Vermeulen et al., 2011). This is more common for migrant producers who are often granted short-term access for agriculture production. For example in Burkina...
Faso migrants in agroforestry landscapes were only provided with land for short production cycles of 3-5 years and could not access certain wild tree products that have traditionally been reserved for local women to collect. Planting of cashew trees has however been widely adopted as a popular way to guarantee access to trees and cash income, also among migrant farmers (Augusseau et al., 2006).

The pro-poor qualities of NTFPs for rural populations also depend on governance arrangements including secure tenure (Ros-Tonen & Kusters, 2011). Collection of tree products on communal lands is largely governed under customary laws. These may be more or less effective, depending on the commercial value of the product and social cohesion in a region (Laird et al., 2010). Official government policies on most tree products are rather rare, with exception of some protected or valuable species, such as honey (Shackleton & Gumbo, 2010). Government’s initiative dealing with forest products have been criticized for its poorly coordinated laws, little consultation with chain actors, and ineffective implementation. Regulating forest products can also have adverse consequences when new legislation criminalizes extraction practices, marginalizes harvesters, enables or promote corruption, and obstructs effective customary laws (Laird et al., 2010).

**Enabling policies**

Tenure reforms by which smallholders and local communities have secure access to land and trees are the first prerequisite for sustainable farm/family forestry. Community forestry is being developed throughout African countries. In the Congo Basin region, most countries are active developing community forestry in their legal framework, with Cameroon in most advance stage with 470 designated community forests of which 142 were in possession of forest exploitation permits in 2012. In DRC, Congo and CAR the legal provisions for community forestry are not yet finalized. There are continuous conflicts between economic operators and local populations due to unclear rights basis and conflicting interests over land use. For community forestry to be effective in controlling forest resources by local population present challenges to overcome are: lack of management skills and structures; heavy and expensive procedures; vulnerable for overtaking by elite or large economic operators; resistance by local administration to effective transfer of rights, and; difficulties to compete with and to integrate informal small scale loggers (Angu et al., 2014; van de Rijt, 2015). The Southern African region has experience with institutionalizing Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM), mainly applied for wildlife management on private lands. Although these projects have known some successes, for rural poor to benefit of CBNRM it needs to extent to a variety of wild products and be accompanied by secure defendable communal land titles (Child & Barnes, 2010). Present reforms for territorial plans and national zoning are basis for improved integrated land management (Oyono et al., 2014).

Besides policies that improve rights and access to land and products, other policies that would support farm/family forestry address freedom of association and registration of producer organizations (See Chapter 3), facilitating market access, business support and partnerships with private sector, promote tree-planting and sustainable agriculture, and dealing with governance and rural development more broadly (deMarsh et al., 2014; IIED, 2014). Policies that create market opportunities and improve economic perspectives of AFTPs, such as export tree crop promotion, appear to be important for the uptake of farm forestry practices. Policies in other sectors, like expansion of fertilizer use in southern Africa,
can also influence uptake of agroforestry. In some cases the rather withdrawn role of government policy turns out to be favorable as appeared for fruit tree planting in Kenya where the private sector took a lead (Ajayi & Place, 2012).

Compensation mechanisms such as, Carbon finances and biocarbon projects, REDD+ payments, Payments for Environmental Services (PES), sustainability certification, eco-tourism enterprises can offer financial incentives and investments to support long-term sustainability of smallholders’ land use. Such mechanisms need to be accompanied by measures to secure tenure and organize smallholders in ways for them to participate, e.g. direct linking them up with global carbon markets, while avoiding high transaction costs (Child & Barnes, 2010; Idol et al., 2011; Jindal et al., 2008; Karsenty, 2010). Mechanisms aimed at compensating efforts intended for the Reduction Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation (REDD+) are being prepared and implemented throughout Africa (in Cameroon, DRC, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Republic of Congo, Tanzania and Zambia). REDD+ initiatives would benefit from a broad scope on ‘forests’ to include the high potential of agroforestry and wider tree containing landscapes (‘Reducing Emissions from All Land Uses’ (REALU)) for carbon sequestration and generation of co-benefits (Thangata & Hildebrand, 2012; Vanderhaegen et al., 2015).

Policy related challenges

Although governments generally state that they support farm/family forestry, actual national regulations may be contradictory, as was found for the context of agroforestry and tree planting in Cameroon. Legislation tends to focus more on conservation objectives than on development objectives and there are no mechanisms to distinguish between NTFPs and ATFPs (Foundjem-Tita et al., 2013). Another study reported that throughout Africa, contradicting development and conservation measures complicate agroforestry near protected areas (Ashley et al., 2006). At national levels, some of the policy related challenges identified are presented in Box 2.

Competing land claims and development of new infrastructure projects, extractive industries and land acquisition for agro-industries put pressure on land and weakens long-term prospective for forest-farmers needed for sustainable land management. The legal framework in countries such as DRC and Cameroon shows lack of coherence among sectoral policies (Oyono et al., 2014). Large Scale Land Acquisition throughout Africa often ignores local customary land rights and puts additional pressure on land rights for smallholders and communities. A study on land acquisition of a total 2 million ha in Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar and Mali identified agrifood and biofuel as two equally large drivers for investor (Vermeulen & Cotula, 2010). Over the past few years, Cameroon has granted around twenty large-scale concessions for production of palm oil, rubber, rice and maize (Oyono et al., 2014). Throughout the Congo Basin investors acquire forestlands for bioenergy (oil palm and sugar cane), although large-scale investments are still hampered by lack of infrastructure and government control in remote areas (Karsenty, 2010).
International mechanisms aimed at improving sustainable forest management interact with Africa’s national policies and impose new challenges. The FLEGT/VPA that aims to ban illegal timber from European market is likely to benefit trade of industrial concession holder, with very little or adverse benefits for community forest, small or medium forestry enterprises, small-scale loggers who cannot afford its implementation and may be driven out of the market (Atyi et al., 2013; Carodenuto & Cerutti, 2014). Analysis of FLEGT-related reforms in Ghana showed that FLEGT in its present form is unlikely to be inclusive to small-scale foresters and their illegal status, as it is not tackling the underlying issues of tree and land tenure (Hajjar, 2014).

Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation (REDD+) stands for national and global actions and policies that aim to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation and enhance carbon forest stocks. REDD+ seeks to create a financial value for the carbon stored in forests, offering incentives for developing countries to reduce emissions from forested lands and invest in low-carbon paths to sustainable development. Agroforestry can fit into REDD+ targets directly when it meet the forest canopy cover threshold chosen by a country, or indirectly by its contributions to avoiding deforestation (land sparing) and degradation (by growing alternative tree products) (Minang et al., 2014). REDD+ may help to establish mechanisms for local control over benefits over forests and reinforces commercialization of NTFPs and conservation outcomes of agroforestry systems. Up to now, REDD+ has not given much attention to small and medium-scale enterprises and agroforestry may not be integrated in national REDD+ plans. Smallholder farmers may not have adequate

**Box 2: Cases of policy related challenges to supporting farm/family forestry**

- **In Kenya**, policy related challenges related to farm/family forestry are: Lack of incentives to private forestry and out-grower schemes; Insufficient mechanism for benefit-sharing of Participatory Forest Management; No adequate multi-stakeholder platforms; Limited provision of services linked to improved trees and marketing of tree products and insufficient capacity at country levels; Lack of knowledge on improved nursery management, tree species, pest management, forest enterprises and certification schemes (Makhanu, n.d.).

- **In Gambia**, farm/family forestry suffers from conflicts between land holders, weak law enforcement and monitoring of forest and agriculture sector and lack of transfer of ownership to communities. The policy framework in Gambia needs improved long-term tenure arrangements for farm/family forestry. Present reforms of land tenure and land use plans can improve this situation (Natural Resources Consulting (NACO), 2013).

- **In Liberia** there are important reforms that support farm/family forestry, but policies to stimulate marketing and trade of this same forest and tree products lack behind. Forest producer groups lack organizational capacity to access finances (Nganje, 2013).

- **In Cameroon**, the country with longest experience of implementing community forestry in the Congo Basin, difficulties remain regarding: Integration and competition of small-scale informal logging; transaction costs, limited concessions and prohibition of use of industrial equipment that reduce international competitiveness, and mismanagement and corruption of government officials (Eba’a Atyi et al., 2013, Ezzine de Blas et al., 2011 In. van de Rijt, 2015).
capacity and organizations to implement REDD+ initiatives (clarify land ownership, data collection and monitoring, financial management) and remain excluded from any benefits (Cerbu et al., 2013; Hajjar, 2014).

2.2 Market access

Markets for forest products exist throughout Africa in forms of local and urban markets, of which some markets specialize in timber or specific NTFPs (such as for *irvingia gabonensis* or *gnetum Africana* in Cameroon), and wider regional and international markets. Experts report that most of these markets are not properly structured or organized (Interviews, May 2015).

With increasing market exposure, forest and tree products increasingly provide for income generating activities (Ros-Tonen & Wiersum, 2005). Market access determines whether people can use forest/ tree products as additional or even main source of income besides possible subsistence use (Ruiz-Perez et al., 2004). Farmers market access for ATFPs have insufficiently been taken into account when introducing agroforestry programs in the past (Russell & Franzel, 2004). Market conditions influence the choices of where and how much forest resources are being extracted and thus the impact on the natural resource base and economic development (Belcher, 2005). Growing urban markets for forest products provide cash-income-earning opportunities to peri-urban smallholders, especially for scarce products in demand (Robinson et al., 2002). Although high demand is generally related to the risk of overharvesting, markets can also stimulate more sustainable methods, or have a specific resource management role, such as the Rural Wood Markets in Mali that involve a delimited forest with specific harvesting quotas and selling points (Hautdidier & Gautier, 2005). However, there are also limitations related to the potential of NTFP markets for developmental and environmental objectives. First of all, most products are sold in large quantities for low prices within a limited geographical scope (Belcher et al., 2005). These markets for low-value, free-access NTFPs allow a lot of people to engage, but suffer from heavy competition and low profit margins (Sunderlin et al., 2005). Other problems related to NTFP trade are: lack of market information; fragmented markets; low quantities and irregular supplies; perishable nature of the product; lack of storage facilities; poor infrastructure and high transportation costs; lack of organization among producers; lack of credit; and fluctuating prices and demand (Ros-Tonen & Wiersum, 2005).

Markets for specialized, cultivated NTFPs where producers have secure tenure are relatively stable and well developed and concern higher-value products with good returns to investment (Sunderlin et al., 2005). Some farmers have their sales of tree products secured via outgrower schemes as have been implemented especially throughout Southern Africa from the 1960s onwards. In this case, individual tree owners enter contracts with industries to provide them with resources, such as pulpwood and fruits. Conditions for well-functioning and fair schemes are the existence of good infrastructure and secure land rights (Pokorny et al., 2010).

New initiatives around preparation of REDD+ policy and FLEGT are driving new strategies for monitoring carbon stocks and combating illegal timber trade. These developments may improve the position and participation of forest and farm producers in private and communal forest management (Mulenga, 2014). International markets of timber and tree products affect wider trade opportunities of forest/family forestry. A number of African countries have
entered negotiations and agreements (Voluntary Partnership Agreement (VPA)) with the EU to eliminate the export of illegally logged timber to the European Market. These new mechanisms under VPAs potentially exclude smallholders from timber sales (Atyi et al., 2013; Carodenuto & Cerutti, 2014; Hajjar, 2014). Some African countries, such as Cameroon, Gabon and DRC in Central Africa, have put temporary bans on timber exports while reforming national sustainable forest management. In some cases, this has actually led to expansion of local informal timber trade, such as the case in DRC (Oyono et al., 2014). Global demand for renewable energies has driven investors’ interest in expansion of growing biofuel feedstock, such as in the jatropha outgrower schemes with small-scale farmers in Zambia. These financial flows may offer benefits to rural livelihoods but also imply a risk when farmers depend on single cash crops with still uncertain markets and possibly unfavorable long-term contracts with a company (German et al., 2011).

Besides the importance of secure market access, farm forestry producers may face the following challenges in selling their products:

- Low prices due to low bargaining skills/ power, lack of market information
- Limited value adding and waste of product due to absence of processing facilities and technologies
- Lack of organization and knowledge of the market chain to respond better to demand (by group marketing, certification etc.).
- Lack of access to finances
- Maintaining quality product standards (freshness, storing, packing)
- Lack of transport and bad roads
- Bribes during transport
- Competing with ‘illegally’ harvested products (Interviews, May 2015).

Access to finance is one of the main challenges for development of farm/family forestry enterprises. An overview of present barriers for African forestry farmers to accessing financial services is presented in Box 3. In Cameroon, the government provides credits for agriculture development and farmers, who are organized in groups and possess a guarantee for payment, can access microfinance institutions throughout the country (Interviews, May, 2015). Nonetheless, most farmers in Cameroon depend on informal finances from collective saving programs or loans from third parties (Awono et al., 2013). In Liberia, forest producer groups can in theory benefit from microfinance loans provided for by the Central Bank of Liberia; but mostly lack organizational capacity to access these funds (Ngenje, 2013). In Zambia, attempts to apply for national Carbon funds to finance planting projects have been unsuccessful due to lack of appropriate institutional framework (Mulenga, 2014).
2.3 Capacity/ technical assistance

Forest farmers’ needs for capacity and extension services involve a number of issues, mainly related to their capabilities for marketing and natural resources management. Main needs listed by experts are:

- Organization in groups or cooperatives;
- Secure access to land and trees and awareness on legal rights;
- Training on sustainable harvesting, conservation, production and post-harvest management;
- Materials for tree-planting and nurseries;
- Training and technologies on processing, packaging;
- Business skills (e.g. conduct cost/benefit analysis before starting new operation), bookkeeping;
- Knowledge on market chain and negotiation skills/ bargaining power;
- Market information systems (Interviews, May, 2015).

Present approaches to enhancing capacities for farm/family forestry in African countries mainly deal with building new types of partnerships, introducing new tools and techniques and improving the policy arena.

New partnerships aim to bridge gaps between different actors. These may involve forming cooperatives and exchange travels among countries or with enterprises and collaboration with research institutes (Interviews, May 2015). For example the Rural Resource Centers (RCC) in Cameroon function as demonstration centers in bringing together research centers and farmers to test and disseminate new techniques. This has contributed to widely adopted planting of fertilizer trees and resulting benefits from higher crop production and apiculture (Asaah et al., 2014). Also in Cameroon, efforts are being made to link producers to potential buyers. In Liberia, there are plans to engage palm oil plantation investors into financing of smallholder plantations and attract other international investors into agroforestry. In Ghana, the Modified Taungya System of plantation development allows for landless persons to enter into partnerships for access to land for tree growing and farming in return for share of the

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**Box 3: Main barriers to access financial services by forestry farmers**

- Lack of knowledge, network, and organization or legal status of farmer groups to enter mainstream financial services
- Financial institutions perceive investments in smallholder forestry as high-risk (forest fires, lack of land tenure)
- Lack of collateral security and/or land tenure
- Micro-finance are limited to small investments and durations may be too short for long-term forestry activities
- Conditions for loans can be unattractive or complicated by heavy procedures, high interest loans (Interviews, 2015).
revenues. The existing arrangement between government, land owners and forest fringe communities in forest reserves offer share proceeds of 40% to both the government and the farmers, 15% to the land owners and 5% to the community (Interviews, May 2015).

Technical advice on product market chains or on how to grow certain varieties can improve farm/family forestry’s prospects. This involves information transfer from research and providing necessary technologies, skills and materials. Information booklets in the form of illustrated manuals can assist illiterate farmers to identify desired products to develop. The ‘Model Forest Approach’ works in collaboration with farmers (mainly women) to transform and add value to forest products (such as by making oil, pens, charcoal) (Interviews, May 2015). Introduction of fast-growing and N-fixing shrubs in Malawi, Tanzania, Mozambique, Zambia and Cameroon has improved maize cultivation developed by on-farm testing and continuous farmer involvement. Farmers’ involvement in participatory trials has brought many locally adapted innovations in pruning, planting and nurseries from farmers themselves (Pretty et al., 2011). In DRC, NGOs are actively disseminating tree-planting techniques among rural populations (Interviews, May 2015).

Present reforms of forest policies across African countries are expected to provide a more enabling environment to farm/family forestry. In DRC, new regulation on exploitation of NTFPs is presently being negotiated (Interviews, May 2015). Awareness raising among Forest Farmers on their rights and obligations is an important prerequisite for any meaningful implementation.
3. Forest and Farm Producers’ Organizations (FFPOs)

FFPOs are of various kinds and sizes with varying objectives and responsibilities to their members (Owusu, 2013; Paumgarten et al., 2012). Their scale of operation ranges from community, national and regional levels depending on the enabling legal, institutional and policy environments. In some countries, the formation of FFPOs is governed by district or provincial regulations such as in DRC while in other countries such as Cameroon the regulations are of national scale. The scale of FFPOs can also be influenced by the spatial distributions of the products that drive the formation of the groups.

3.1. Why FFPOs are important

Recognising the importance of strength in numbers (IIED 2014), many forest farmers have recognised the value of getting together but are still facing multiple challenges such as inadequate skills for collective actions, record keeping, business management, access to information and often insufficient support (France-Lanord 2014). Some authors pinpoint that with incentives and capacity building FFPOs may be in a better position to provide desirable services to their members (deMarsh et al. 2014, FAO 2014a, IIED 2014). In this direction, FFPOs are increasingly being recognised in unleashing the economic power and entrepreneurial potential of indigenous peoples, local communities and private smallholders at scales that transform landscapes (FFF 2015, IIED 2014, Owusu 2013). They do this by:

- Increasing the political “voice” of small-scale forest and farm producers to secure tenure and other rights to the natural resources on which their enterprises are based.
- Increasing the negotiating power of forest and farm producers to obtain fair value for their products and environmental services.
- Delivering business advice and services to forest and farm producers through partnerships with non-governmental organizations, consultants, private companies and governmental and development agencies.
- Building the capacity of otherwise isolated and marginalized producers to achieve financial, food and energy security, increase their resilience and adaptability to climate change, sustainably manage their forestlands and farms, and boost their participation in policy processes (FAO 2014a&b).

Collective marketing efforts via producer groups can enable access to markets for smallholders and increase their profits. These groups can offer benefits by reducing transaction costs and increase bargaining power and market chain connections. A study in Cameroon found that continuation of partnerships on trade of NTFPs was especially driven by the mutual benefit of reducing transaction costs, despite low levels of trust and satisfaction on the relationship (Foundjem-Tita et al., 2012).

FFPOs can spread risks by diversifying businesses to include several NTFPs and by providing to both local and international markets (Shackleton et al., 2007). This helps deal with seasonal fluctuations and years of bad harvests. Financial stability can also be improved by including
processing of NTFPs and adding value as part of the business operation. FFPOs improve their markets opportunities by knowing the institutional framework for trade and gaining market information. Use of inventories, improved harvesting techniques and post-harvest techniques to stimulate regeneration or cultivating and domestication all contribute to more sustainable extraction of NTFPs (Awono et al., 2013).

3.2. What a good producers organization looks like

If FFPOs are to provide effective and adequate services to their members, a few institutional arrangements and conditions need to be carefully set up. Indeed, good governance, optimal group size, transparency, appropriate product types and market orientation can enhance the role of FFPOs in improving access to markets (FAO, 2014a; Paumgarten et al., 2012; Macqueen et al., n.d.).

Producer organizations struggle with their internal structure, in particular in the early years of their set up. First of all, it seems to be difficult to establish the necessary capacity, which includes technical, managerial and leadership skills. Another challenge is to find ways to maintain members’ commitment and interest through effective and continued communication. Finally, women and youth are still too often excluded from the services delivered by the producers’ organizations.

Box 4: Important internal conditions for a strong producer organization (adapted from FFF (2014))

- Organization based on a clear sense of purpose with voluntary membership
- Well structured, using democratic governance tools, with an open and accountable leadership and administration, including transparent financial management; and autonomous functioning
- Particular sensitivity to social inclusion and gender equality, and engage with youth
- Strong grassroot support
- Respect for indigenous people rights and cultural perspectives. Business opportunities generated by FFPO should respect and strengthen the traditional values in addition to delivering social, economic and environmental benefits.
- Well established communication strategies and mechanism help increase visibility and strengthen their voice and message
- Collaboration between FFPO can strengthen their effectiveness and exchange visits between FFPOs in same region or between regions are proven to be powerful tools
- Organization of FFPO into federations at different levels (local, national, regional, international) facilitates spreading policy issues form grassroot to relevant arenas. It can also provide complementary services and increase pace of dissemination of information on policy, products and services
Some data gathered during the interviews have confirmed the importance of the conditions above. Some elements of effective FFPOs identified in the examples given are: clear objectives; good management; clear benefit sharing mechanisms; sales in group; empowerment of vulnerable groups; information dissemination; mutual trust, and; access provision to improved techniques and markets.

The success of Mount Cameroon Prunus Management Company (MOCAP) lies in the clarity of objectives, good management and accounting and well-defined benefit sharing mechanism to guide and ensure equity for annual proceeds to all stakeholders, thanks to the support of several regional and international NGOs. For instance, the benefit sharing mechanism applied by MOCAP for the Prunus harvested and sold from the Mount Cameroon National Park is as follows:

- 43% to prunus harvesters
- 20% to park management
- 16% to village development projects
- 7% to regeneration programme
- 7% to MOCAP management and coordination
- 4% to transportation of Prunus barks from forest to villages
- 3% to warehousing of products (Interview, May 2015)

Another important reason for success is that the middlemen have been cut from the trade chain because MOCAP either exports or sells directly to exporters. They have greater access to market information and are less likely to be duped by dubious traders. Overall, the activities of MOCAP have led to greater revenue to individual members and communities for improved livelihoods (Tieguhong & Ndoye, 2007; Tieguhong et al., 2006).

Songtaaba is a national organization of women created in 1997 in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso. The group was legalized in October 1998. Songtaaba strives to (i) help its women members improve their living conditions, (ii) assure their autonomy and self-promotion, (iii) enhance the value of local products (iv) fight women’s poverty, particularly in rural areas.

According to Mbile et al. (2009), the success of Songtaaba as a model FFPO could be linked to four interrelated functional and organisational attributes:

- A well-functioning group, association/cooperative based on trust, purpose and passion. The group started small with possibility of regular exchange visits in which all the members participated in turns. Regular internal meetings are key to strengthen the cooperative spirit, share information and purpose and reduce internal competition.
- Fullness in access, control, ownership of the natural resource base with full trade rights. It is important for the group to be fully registered with the relevant Ministries so that all transactions are legal. Ownership of the resource should be legal because for the organization to enter into firm agreements with outlets, supply must be fairly well assured as leakages of resources to unauthorized collectors can be prejudicial to expected volumes.
- Access to technology for communication to reach potential customers, globally and knowledge, training, skills and technology to collect, process products to customer specifications. The skills of the members in collection and processing products; and in communication with clients, government and investors are very critical. Resources must be committed to acquire the right equipment in processing technology, information and communications technology. Exchange visits by group members to
appraise technology should be considered. Third party quality control is always an advantage.

- Optional certification of brand rendering it an assured outlet in which case control or at least influence over the outlets of the products. Pro-poor certification arrangements abound in the developing world. This is an optional mechanism, but where it has worked well such for the Songtaab-Yarglé Association it can be a very effective small forest enterprise tool.

3.3. How policy and resources can support FFPOs to better perform

How much technical, financial, institutional or legal support do FFPOs need to sustain their activities? It is pertinent to keep in mind that supports to FFPOs vary and may be influenced by its size, technical capacity of members and administrative procedures of the supporter (Tieguhong et al., 20012b; Macqueen et al., 2009; Donovan et al., 2006). It is however unfortunate that not much is yet being done to fully support FFPOs in many African countries (Tieguhong et al., 2012b). In this light our focus is on countries where there is some support. Preliminary synthesis shows that various policies address challenges of FFPOs and related organizations (See Box 5). However, it is important to pinpoint that most of these initiatives in Africa are usually poorly consolidated, short-lived and fragmented resulting in weak or dispersed long term social, economic and environmental impacts.

Experts interviewed report that the policy environment is generally favourable (positive legal provisions exist to encourage their registration at provincial or national levels) for registration and the formation of associations or federations in Africa (Interviews, May 2015).

Box 4: Positive examples of policy and/or resources support to FFPOs

The Kenya Forest Act (2005) provides the possibility and recognizes the importance of Community Forest Associations (CFAs). Once the CFAs are established, they apply to the Kenya Forestry Services (KFS) to obtain permission to participate in the management of the state forest. After identifying the area they want to co-manage, carrying out a forest resource inventory, identifying the areas that need to be rehabilitated through enrichment planting and preparing a forest management plan, the KFS and the CFAs draw a forest management agreement. CFAs are allowed to grow annual crops alongside the young trees. They also sell seedlings produced in their nurseries to the KFS. In addition, as part of the forest management agreements, CFAs are allowed to collect dead wood for fuel wood for their own use but not for sale. Further, the CFAs may graze their livestock in the forest or collect fodder for the animals.

The KFS is also currently employing the Farm Forestry Filed School (FFFS) methodology as one of the ways of increasing Kenya's forest cover to the prerequisite 10%. This has led to several farm forestry enterprises in Kenya including tree nurseries, fruit orchards, and woodlots with the main products being honey, mango, seedlings, timber and charcoal (Andika et al., 2014).

In Zambia, the Citizen Economics Empowerment Commission (CEEC) provides loans for tree planting to individuals, cooperatives, and small, medium and large enterprises (before 2007 this was the Forest Development Credit Facility (FDCF)). Small grants, of around 2,000 USD, have been provided to individuals and groups such as beekeeping groups, forest nursery groups, fuel wood collection groups etc. Grants did not depend on official land titles, as is a frequent problem for access to credit for those without land, but also went to people based in joint forest management areas, on customary lands and in local forests.
In Gambia, the new Forest Act has improved commercial forest rights to forest products for communities by its provision to develop community forestry and co-manage national park areas under Joint Forest Park Management. Social organization has been enhanced by the Forest Acts obligation to establish a participatory forest management unit and community management committees and product interest groups with representation at national levels. Product based groups and communities have received training through support by FAO on improved business skills, marketing and finances (Macqueen & Team, 2010). The Government’s efforts in transferring land tenure to local communities, capacity building, such as by providing training in Market Analysis and Development methodology and reforestation techniques and providing of support activities, such as start-up capital and micro credit, materials, have improved conditions for SMFEs (Tomaselli et al., 2012).

In South Africa, commercial forest rights have been addressed in the 2007 Forest Sector Transformation Charter towards Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) that aims to provide better opportunities to black people to own and manage forests through communities or enterprises. Social organization that enables transition to local community forestry has been improved by MOUs between different sectors involved, such as land, forest, SME, water, trade and industry and economic development. Forestry South Africa, a national forest enterprise umbrella organization, provides capacity training in land management and fire control, business planning and access to markets information (Macqueen & Team, 2010).

In Cameroon falls, the formation of FFPOs fall under the general procedures and regulatory business environment for small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs). To reinforce and improve the business environment for small and medium enterprises, the Cameroon government established “the Ministry of Small and Medium Size Enterprises and craft” in 2004 with responsibilities to promote and supervise Small and Medium Enterprises; promote SME products; monitor the activity of organizations providing support to SMEs; monitor professional SME organizations; establish, with professional organizations, a databank and projects for investors in the SME sector; identify, mentor and train informal sector actors to foster their migration towards SMEs. Accordingly, to carry out a formal business or form a working group in Cameroon, certain regulatory processes and procedures are involved. The registration of an FFPO follows the general procedure to open an enterprise in Cameroon but FFPOs are exempted from paying business taxes and registering all members with the national insurance fund (Djoumessi & Akinboade, 2011).

In Liberia, there are strong government and donor supports including: The Children Youth organization supported by World Bank; Forest Connect, Growing Forests Partnerships, and the Forest and Farm Facility (FFF). FFF is supporting FFPOs by working with the Liberian Farmers Union Network (FUN). The aim is to establish at district, county and national level integrated structures of Forest and Farm producer organizations, including the CFF and CFDC. The USAID/PROSPER is trying to build the capacity of communities that have gained Community Forest Management Permit so that they can be able to extract their own resources instead of giving it to outside investors. Government has a National Tree Planting Day that allows the Government to demonstrate the tree planting in the community every year. However, individual tree planting concept is yet far from reality (Interview, May 2015).
4. FFPOs provide multiple services to address policy and market challenges

Forest and farm producer organizations unleash the economic power and entrepreneurial potential of indigenous peoples, local communities and private smallholders at scales that transform landscapes (deMarsh 2014; FAO 2014a). To do so, FFPOs provide a wide range of services to their members, from lobbying for their rights, to facilitating access to market or providing technical support services.

Viability of commercialization of NTFPs depends on market/economic, social, environmental and technological considerations. Outside support by Market Analysis and Development methodology, facilitation of producer groups and enabling business and financial capacity, group sales and market information can assist to expand the markets for NTFPs and opportunities for NTFPs based enterprises (Tieguhong et al., 2012).

4.1. Multiple forms of FFPO in Africa

The product or service base for the formation of FFPOs include timber, non-timber forest products (NTFPs), and ecotourism in countries such as Cameroon, DRC, Ethiopia, Liberia, Zambia and Burkina Faso. In countries such as Ghana, Kenya and Mozambique, FFPOs are formed around producer groups along the chain of custody such as tree growers association, artisanal milling groups, or domestic lumber traders associations. A combination of these arrangements (individual product based and producer groups) can be found in Gambia and South Africa. In Gambia, tree crop growers associations are based on Cashew production, ecotourism, fuelwood, honey/honey by-products as well as timber and other NTFPs. In Zambia, FFPOs, such as the Zambia National Farmers Union (ZNFU), are loosely organized around timber and seasonal NTFPs.

In Cameroon we find common initiative groups, associations and federations formed around NTFPs or timber. Community forestry forms the entry point for associations formed by village communities to harvest and sell timber. Examples of NTFPs-based FFPOs in Cameroon include Mount Cameroon Prunus Management Company (MOCAP) and the Forest and Agroforestry Promoters (FAP). In Kenya, an example of an FFPO advocating for the rights of their members and providing commercial services is the Farm Forestry Smallholder Producers Association of Kenya (FF SPAK). FF SPAK is an umbrella organization based in Nairobi and working with grassroots organizations in Kenya to promote farm forestry. FF SPAK mission is to promote Sustainable and commercially oriented Farm Forestry and advocate for the rights of the small Farm Forestry. An example of a women’s FFPO is the Songtaab-Yarglé Association (ASY) that produces and commercializes shea butter or Karité in Burkina Faso.

4.2 Examples of services provided by FFPOs in Africa

Lobbying for the rights of their members

Based on their “strength in numbers”, FFPOs can have a strong political weight to defend the rights of their members related to land ownership or benefit sharing for example.
In Kenya FFPOs such as the Kenya Forest Working Group provides the platform for the engagement of tree growers, lobby for enabling legal/policy support and provide market access/partnership services. The added value is that there is increased tree planting with little direct government intervention (Makhanu, n.d.)

In Liberia, FFPOs support forestry farmers mainly in dissemination of policy and information on rights. The added value is that FFPOs are trying to provide enabling business environment to producers and traders as well as provide the hope for the implementation of the Post 2015 Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) through SMEs (Njange, 2013; Interviews, May 2015).

**Strengthening bargaining /negotiating power**

FFPOs work with forest and farm producers to enable them to obtain fair value for their products and environmental services. In Cameroon, FFPOs have been noted to assist forestry farmers by bringing them to discussion tables with traders for price negotiation for their NTFPs and to meet the challenges linked to access to markets, and capacity development. The added value is that forestry farmers gain access to small equipment and better negotiation skills for better prices of their products (Mala et al., 2012).

**Business advice**

FFPOs have been noted to deliver business advice and services to forest and farm producers through partnerships with non-governmental organizations, consultants, private companies and governmental and development agencies. FFPOs ease the process for their members to sell their products in new or bigger markets; increase access to finance or insurance; or enable sharing of information on price and quality requirements.

In Burkina Faso, shea tree (*Vitellaria paradoxa*) products have been documented as key in triggering the formation of FFPOs that promote women’s economic empowerment through the collection of shea nuts and their processing into shea butter (Harsch, 2001). Songtaaba facilitates the integration of their members in the fair trade market. The association focuses on two types of activities: (i) socio-cultural and self-improvement activities (literacy, training, health), (ii) economic activities aiming at providing income to women, primarily through the manufacturing and marketing of shea butter or Karité. From selling wild nuts, the Songtaaba women have integrated vertically, controlling their value chain by creating a subsidiary to process shea nuts to butter and soap. They have increased and stabilized revenue benefits accruing to their more than 3100 members.

**Capacity building**

FFPOs build the capacity of otherwise isolated and marginalized producers to achieve financial, food and energy security, increase their resilience and adaptability to climate change, sustainably manage their forestlands and farms, and boost their participation in policy processes (IIED, 2014).

In DRC and Cameroon, FAO and partners used the market analysis and development (MA&D) approach to build the capacities of 14 NGOs in DRC and Cameroon that in turn build the capacities of 233 farmer groups involved in the production and sale of NTFPs with overall impact that 3515 people were trained including 1514 women on business development.
skills (establishment of enterprise development plans, record keeping and savings) (Tieguhong et al., 2012).

In Burkina, Sontaaba also provides technical training in shea butter processing, fair trade requirement to meet the required standards. The association also provides training to their members on computer literacy to improve their book keeping skills.
5. What kind of future for farm/family forestry and FFPOs in Africa?

5.1. Farm/family forestry – key considerations and opportunities

Farm/family forestry holds great potential for expansion throughout Africa while providing for people’s livelihoods and sustainable land management. Major tree crops, harvested forest products, and products of tree domestication provide poor people with means of subsistence and cash income. Farm/family forestry can offer a variety of ecosystem services (conserving biodiversity, pest control, carbon sequestration, erosion control, soil fertility) and may be part of landscape restoration and building more resilience to future climate change. Review of the present situation of farm/family forestry throughout African countries, identified the key issues that stakeholders such as forest and farm producers, policy makers and development partners will need to keep on their radar and integrate in their planning. Related to most of these key issues, positive developments and opportunities for the farm/family sector should be closely considered.

Land tenure insecurity

Institutional measures for tree tenure, locally controlled forest/land management and benefits sharing, including community forestry initiatives, are still in early stages. Weak land tenure and access to trees limit long-term perspectives for forest farmers. This is aggravated by conflicts between official land law and customary rules, cumbersome official land registration and pressure of competing land claims and land-scale land acquisition. However, national forest policies increasingly acknowledge the potential of farm/family forestry by referring to agroforestry, trees on agriculture land, or farm-forestry and current reforms are being undertaken to devolve responsibilities to local levels and to improve cross-sectoral land use planning.

In Cameroon, opportunities for smallholders lie in the development of NTFP value chains for job creation, green economy, greater profits to producers and higher contribution to the national economy in terms of contribution to gross domestic product (GDP) (Interview, May 2015). Some of the challenges for these developments are how to integrate customary property rights into the management of rural lands, how to deal with land grabbing phenomenon in rural areas and how to promote family farming over individual farm holdings (Interviews, May 2015).

Limits to markets

Market access may be limited due to: lack of support mechanisms and conducive policies; low prices; lack of market information; limited value adding; limited access to finances; difficulties and bribes during transportation, and; competing illegally harvested produce. Even though market access is difficult, it is positive to see that markets for forest products are currently expanding under increasing urban and global demand, offering potential to generating income and targeting sustainable supply.

Capacity and extension services

Forest farmers lack capacity and extension services, mainly for: sustainable production techniques; tree-planting materials; training and technology for processing and packaging;
business skills; knowledge on market chain and negotiation skills, and; market information systems.

**Smallholders and international initiatives**

Global attention and support to ecosystem services, carbon sequestration, biofuel markets and compensation mechanisms such as Carbon finances and biocarbon projects, REDD+ payments, Payments for Environmental Services (PES) and certification schemes, if informed correctly, could integrate investment to farm/family forestry to support transitions to sustainable smallholder land use. Knowledge gaps regarding potential carbon benefits of agroforestry and related tradeoffs, costs of monitoring mechanisms and who could access benefits (Ajayi & Place, 2012) needs to be better understood and profiled.

**Strengthening the knowledge on farm forestry’s contribution to economic development**

Data on forest and tree products’ contribution to livelihoods and national economies are fragmented or non-existing due to informal and domestic markets, which leads to underestimation of its importance in economic development and national policies.

**Inclusion of vulnerable groups**

Livelihood benefits of farm/family forestry depend on contexts and poorer households and vulnerable groups, including women, may benefit least.

**Unintended environmental outcomes**

The environmental benefits of diverse farm/family forestry practices may be temporary if farmers transition to monoculture farmlands. Tree planting can have adverse effects on ecosystems when tree planting replaces other land uses or leads to encroachment of forests elsewhere. While smallholder agroforestry practices can contribute to conservation of tree species on-farm, which helps to avoid further encroachment into forests and acts as corridors of wild stands in the wider landscape.

**5.2. Role of FFPOs to contribute to the sustainable development of farm/family forestry**

It is encouraging to see that FFPOs can provide services to address the key issues faced by farm forestry in Africa mentioned above. They can lobby continuously for the recognition and improvement of the rights of smallholders to plant trees and benefit from their products. They can enhance capacities by building new types of partnerships to bridge the gaps between different actors and improve information exchange and improving the policy arena. FFPOs can facilitate market access, business support and partnerships with private sector to increase the market potential for forest farmers. Producer organizations can provide capacity and extension services, including sharing information on the dangers of engaging in monoculture for smallholders and providing advice in diversifying culture and agroforestry techniques, and introducing new tools and techniques on how to grow and market certain varieties.

In Kenya, many opportunities for FFPOs depend on the 16000 trees growers in Kenya that have added over 17000 ha to tree cover and created 30000 jobs (Makhanu, n.d.). There are numerous international donor-funded activities underway (EU, USAID, FFF, etc.) and a supportive policy environment for increased wood production (Makhanu, n.d.). The main challenges that FFPOs could address in Kenya include: inadequate incentives for private
forestry and out-grower schemes, inadequate legal mechanisms for ensuring equity in benefit sharing, limited mentorship and marketing of forest-products-based entrepreneurs, inadequate knowledge and technologies (clonal forestry, nursery operations, SME development), poor operational efficiencies in terms of credit opportunities, risks posed by pests and diseases etc, inadequate extension services for tree growers and poorly developed markets for environmental services (Makhanu, n.d.).

5.3. Challenges and opportunities for FFPOs in Africa

FFPOs can contribute to job creation, food security, climate change mitigation and conservation, timber supply and environmental services. Their importance is crucial for the development of family forestry. FFPOs face internal and external challenges that hinder the services they provide. However there also exist some positive opportunities for strengthening the FFPOs and their service delivery.

Some of the identified challenges to FFPOs in Africa are:

- FFPOs receive **inadequate investments** from donors.
- Project-based funding to FFPOs is (too) **short-term** to build desirable long-term forestry initiatives.
- Initiatives to support FFPOs often include rather **fragmented initiatives** dealing with farm/family forestry.
- The **weak capacity of forestry services** and sometimes **contradicting messages** of forestry and agriculture extension impedes the work of FFPOs.
- **Uncertainties** on how to deal with **prospects for carbon sequestration and carbon finance**, obstructed by complicated tenure situations in most African countries, (Unruh, 2008) and lack of institutional mechanisms (for monitoring, information dissemination, benefit sharing etc.) makes it difficult for FFPO to engage in the processes.
- Negative aspects need to be taken into account to assess the total development outcomes of **collective marketing** for rural poor. Examples of negative consequences are the high costs (sometimes temporarily carried by a project) of organizing groups, costs of free-riders’ behaviour by non-group members, and exclusion of certain vulnerable groups who may then receive less for their individually sold products (Markelova & Mwangi, 2010).
- Overall weak capacity, lack of knowledge and organization of farmers require long term monitoring and capacity building (Interviews, May 2015).
Some of the identified opportunities to FFPOs in Africa are:

- FFPOs can **enhance their role** in providing benefits to forest and farm producers by: good governance, optimal group size, transparency, appropriate product types and market orientation.

- National policies provide FFPOs with types of associations and **official registration** is generally easy. **Present reforms** regarding land and tree tenure and community forestry and creation of multi-stakeholder platform offer enabling policy environments for FFPOs to take advantage and promote sustainable forest management with increased benefits to local populations.

- Global markets for forest products are expanding, which provide FFPOs with the opportunity to **create good market networks** and information centers for their members.

- FFPOs can benefit from growing international attention on financial mechanisms, such as REDD+ projects, Carbon finances, Payments for Environmental Services, to sustain their activities and increase benefits to its members.

**Box 5: Country examples of opportunities and challenges**

In the **Democratic Republic of Congo**, the main **opportunity** is that policy makers in the country are fully aware of the importance of farm forestry and the different producer organizations. The **major problem** lies with the political will to prioritize the promotion of FFPOs with some financial supports. Developing new ways to persuade them to take the expected actions remains a challenge and may take time (Interviews, May 2015).

In **Liberia**, the **opportunities** for the development of FFPOs include: availability of donor funding like FFF to build the capacity; government support to the implementation of community forestry; a move to solve the land tenure rights issue in Liberia and large forest resource and forest lands available for communities to use for improving livelihoods. The **challenges** in Liberia include: limited access to funding to run their own activities i.e. lack of capital to invest, most donor funding is limited and activities are dictated by them, high cost of loan/interest rates, lack bargaining skills and power or limited capacities, poorly organized FFPOs, weak enforcement of policies, ownership to land is problematic, unwillingness of some communities to join cooperatives; and difficulties to sustain initiatives after donor supported project timeframe (Interviews, May 2015).

In **Zambia**, donor support is the biggest **opportunity**. New measures instituted to reform land management laws to increase the proportion of customary over statutory lands are another great opportunity. The Forest and Farm Facility works with Zambia National Farmers Union and government to develop FFPOS. FFF has just started the organization of FFPOS in two pilot districts in Zambia. However, the involvement of the private sector, micro finance and insurance are both opportunities and **challenges** for the future (Interviews, May 2015).

In **Ghana**, the biggest opportunity is that farmers will own planted trees on their farms and have a share of benefit on trees planted in forest reserves. With a large rural farming population putting in place conducive incentive schemes can result in several thousands of farmers engaging in farm forestry to increase the stock of trees across Ghana’s landscape for
carbon sequestration, income generation, timber availability, jobs creation and environmental benefits. The potential for greater efficiency of FFPOs lies in the prioritization and reformation of tree and forest tenure arrangements by government that promote sustainable forest enterprises. It is suggested that international development partners should provide some portion of annual grants that go solely to governments to support and strengthen FFPOs. Moreover, it is suggested that funding support to FFPOs should be given for reasonable length of time (3-5 years) and should address capacity gaps in product and services diversification through targeted funding (Interviews, May 2015). The challenges lie in very short time span of supportive projects, over-reliance of FFPOs on NGOs and inability to raise funds own finances, insecure land tenure for “migrant communities” vis-à-vis “land grab” phenomenon and political polarization - factions in FFPOs lead to break up of groups (Interviews, May 2015).

FFPOs have better chances of accessing finances when they are formally registered and have a well-developed business plan. Finances could be provided by government institutions, financial institutions, in the form of microfinance, grants or project finance and new instruments such as PES and REDD+ (Awono et al., 2013). Certification of products can provide incentives to sustainable management and assist producer organizations in entering new market for their products. It is suggested that small farm holders along the Kenyan coast could benefit from certification mechanisms, such as FSC, to help increase transparency and quality of carving wood and establish stronger linkages with carving groups for supplying more markets (Obara et al., 2004). Often certification fees and lack of knowledge on how to obtain certification complicate farmers’ participation in such schemes, as has been the case for forest coffee in Ethiopia (Stellmacher & Grote, 2011).

5.3. FFPOs of tomorrow

Taking the example of Sontaaba women group that processes and sells shea tree products in Burkina Faso, the key functional and organisational attributes for a successful FFPO may include:

- **Build trust, purpose and passion.** The group may start small with possibility of regular exchange visits in which all the members participated in turns. Regular internal meetings are key to strengthen the cooperative spirit, share information and purpose and reduce internal competition.

- **Fullness in access, control, ownership of the natural resource base with full trade rights.** It is important for the group to be fully registered with the relevant Ministries so that all transactions are legal. Ownership of the resource should be legal because for the organization to enter into firm agreements with outlets, supply must be fairly well assured as leakages of resources to unauthorized collectors can be prejudicial to expected volumes.

- **Access to technology for communication to reach potential customers, globally and knowledge, training, skills and technology to collect, process products to customer specifications.** The skills of the members in collection and processing products; and in communication with clients, government and investors are very
critical. Resources must be committed to acquire the right equipment in processing technology, information and communications technology. Exchange visits by group members to appraise technology should be considered. Third party quality control is always an advantage.

- **Optional certification of brand rendering it an assured outlet in which case control or at least influence over the outlets of the products.** Pro-poor certification arrangements abound in the developing world. This is an optional mechanism, but where it has worked well such for the Songtaab-Yarglé Association it can be a very effective small forest enterprise tool.
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## Annex 1: Experts and Resource Persons interviewed

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