



French Institute of South Africa [IFAS] Research Newsletter - no. 15 - January 2013

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In addition to being published on the website of the French Institute of South Africa, the content (French language only) of this issue will also be available on the site **Lesedi, les carnets de recherche de l'Institut français d'Afrique du Sud** : <http://ifas.hypotheses.org>
It will relay all research work conducted at the French Institute of South Africa and will allow you to follow most of our activities.



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Editorial...



The first time I came to IFAS was in 2001, as part of a Master's Degree in Sociology on the relations between memory and history in South Africa. At the time, the Nelson Mandela Bridge did not exist and I used to walk to the Newtown offices through town. Today, more than ten years later, things have certainly changed with IFAS being established in Braamfontein. What has not changed, however, is the fact that researchers from all disciplines are still being hosted by IFAS and offered financial, logistic and scientific support to do research in Southern Africa. Whereas IFAS-Research has been active for almost 20 years, it has definitely fulfilled its mission of building a sustainable bridge between France and South Africa in the Human and Social Sciences. Research programmes in Geography, Development Economics, Urban and Migration Studies, Political Science, Anthropology or, still, Archaeology, continue to bring both countries closer, to produce reciprocal knowledge and to contribute to a shared understanding of the world. At this stage, I would like to pay homage to all my predecessors and to the last one in particular, Sophie Didier, who is back in France after four years of proud and loyal service. Also, ensuring the continuity of the current programmes and building up from the young yet solid history of the Institute is the first of my priorities.

What has not changed either, despite the many research works and publications of the past years, is the extent of the challenges and research fields of human sciences in Southern Africa. Some prefer to talk about potential rather than challenge, which brings me to my second priority which is just as important to me as the first one: involving IFAS-Research in long-term history in humanities, and African humanities in particular. The need to see beyond the "South African present" alone, which to date has been monopolising if not dazzling research in the Social Sciences on Southern Africa, and which has become confining, is now being felt. While today the page of the troubling past has fortunately been turned, the role of social sciences in understanding such a past remains all the more necessary. Contrarily, History, by trying to grasp South African reality in its multiple temporalities, can hope to take on the role of contemporary critique.

While South African reality is not reducible to South Africa alone as an individual entity, it is not reducible to the consecutive changes of the democratic transition either. In this regard, the second phase of my mandate will be to try to look beyond the national borders and, to this end, to develop research programmes paying attention to the exchanges, circulations and connections shaping the region. Through its regional calling, IFAS also aims at finding the dynamics across nations, Africa and beyond which preceded and shaped countries south of the DRC. Indeed, since the beginning of the modern era, Southern Africa has been a place of articulation between the Atlantic and Indian Oceans. As such, in the coming years, the intentions of IFAS-Research could be summarised as opening chronological and geographical horizons, without sacrificing the scientific requirements of precision and specificity for all that.

2013 promises to be full of events which are described in detail in this fifteenth edition of *Lesedi*. Let me mention here, still, the launch of the *French Institute Seminars in Humanities* (FISH) which are to begin at the end of January 2013, and of the *Book History Seminars*, in collaboration with the University of Pretoria, starting the following month. For now, I will leave you with the reading of the two feature articles by Maud Orne-Gliemann and Agathe Maupin on the economic, political and social stakes around water management in Southern Africa.

Enjoy!

Adrien Delmas
IFAS-Research Director

A Participatory Water Management?

The South African Policy of Local Water Management



Maud Orne-Gliemann

Maud Orne-Gliemann is a postdoctoral fellow with the Human Economy program at the University of Pretoria, South Africa. She has a background in political science and geography. She completed a PhD in geography at the Université Paul Valéry, Montpellier 3 (France) in 2011. Maud's research focuses on generally accepted notions in development discourse, water management policy and small-scale farming in Southern Africa. Her PhD thesis looked at the public policy of local water management within small-scale irrigation schemes in South Africa and small-scale farmers' social representations of water management.

The notion of participation has been central to discourses on development, good governance and sustainable environmental management. At each level of intervention, users, citizens and stakeholders of all types have been encouraged to invest and organise themselves to take part collectively in the development of their communities and the management of their resources. This movement is justified by economic logic, efficiency but also a principle of democratisation and the sharing of decision-making power between the government and the users, citizens and/or stakeholders with varying positions of power.

The 1998 South African water reform is a good example of an attempt to democratize water resource management. It created new decentralised water management bodies and openly called for the participation of all individual water users (1). Yet, if the reform and discourses of the time unequivocally declared the intentions of the South African water law, the conditions surrounding the implementation of the reform left many grey areas in the materialisation of active user participation objectives, almost fifteen years after their adoption (2). The case of the small-scale irrigation schemes developed in the country's former Bantustans is particularly worrying (3).

1. The 1998 National Water Act: a democratisation on paper of the South African Water Management System

After four years of the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWA)¹ reviewing the current legislation, assessing needs and resources, and elaborating a national water resource management project, the South African Parliament adopted a new water law on August 26th, 1998. As such, the National Water Act (NWA) replaced the 1956 Water Act which symbolised the segregationist policy of the *grand apartheid*². The management principles conveyed by the NWA were “nothing short of a quiet revolution”, asserted Kader Asmal, then Minister of Water Affairs and Forestry, during their conception in 1996 (DWA, 1996). Nationalising resources,

introducing usage rights, separating land from water issues, setting water fees, decentralising and democratising water resource management, protecting the environment, establishing a minimum guaranteed universal access: South African politicians sought “*do it all' at once rather than move by piecemeal reform*” (Muller, 2009: 184), an attitude which had been made possible by the window of opportunity (Muller, 2001a: 10) that the double context of political revolution and constraints on the resources was at the end of the 1990s.

Since its adoption, the NWA has been constantly lauded by the international community and praised by the actors of the South African water sector. The Act is indeed considered as one of the most advanced piece of legislation on water in the world, taking fully into account the international recommendations of the time as regards 'good' management. The influence of the integrated water resource management principles (IWRM) (see insert p.9), is unquestionable and multifaceted: (a) introducing the catchment basin as the new referent in the territorial division of management; (b) introducing the notion of economic efficiency and recognition of water as an economic good; (c) recognising access to water as a *basic human need*; and finally (d) opening water resource management to user participation.

The Act of 1998 provides for the decentralisation of water resource management for the first time in the South African national water system. The new legislation establishes a three-level institutional system of management. In addition to DWA, the NWA provides for the creation of two new types of management bodies: the Catchment Management Agencies (CMA) established at the level of each of the nineteen Water Management Areas (WMA; see Figure 1), and the Water User Associations (WUA) established at the local level.

According to the NWA, CMAs and WUAs are established after public consultation, the formers on the initiative of the relevant communities and stakeholders, the latter on the initiative of the users, or in both cases, on the initiative of the

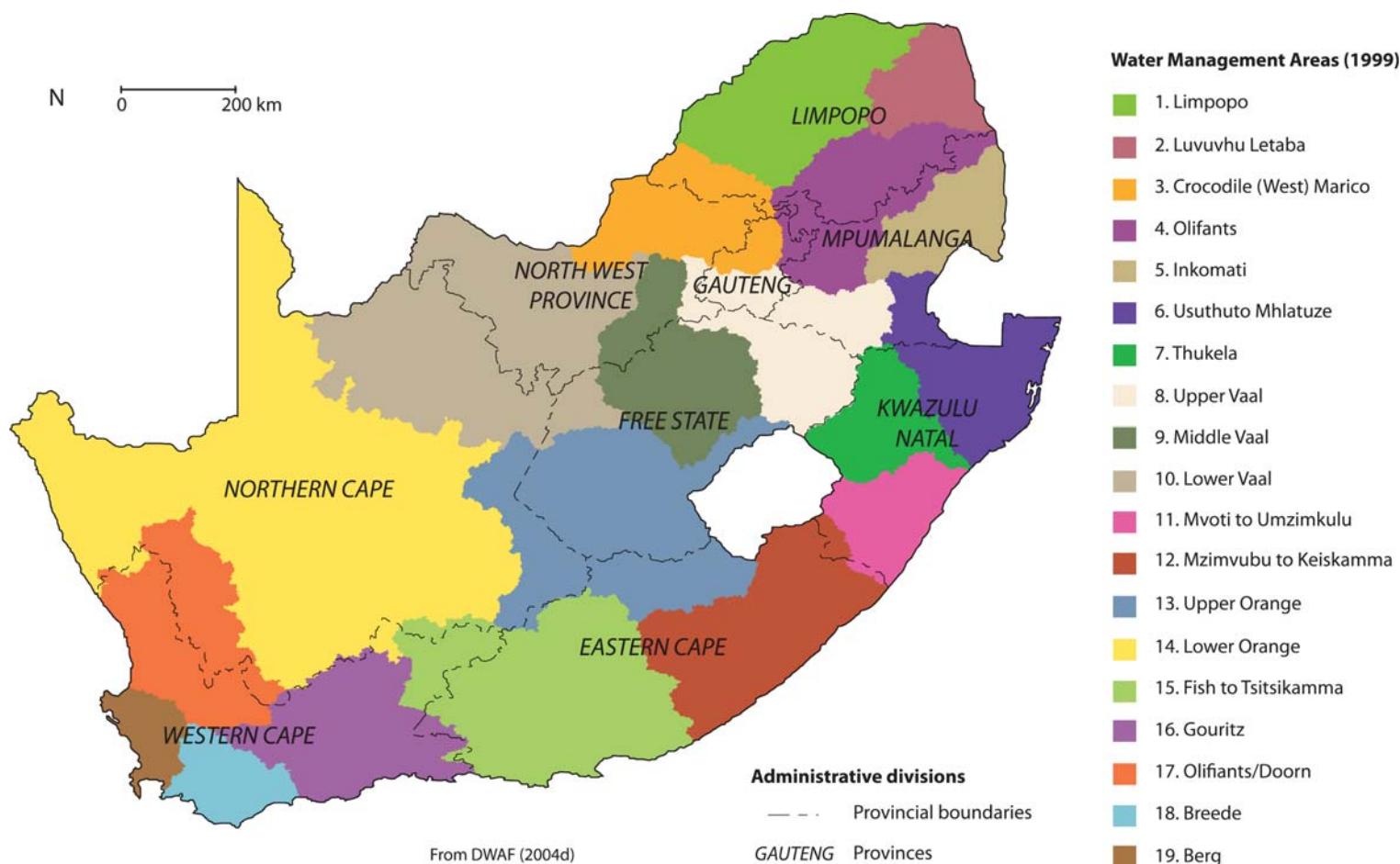


Figure 1. The division of the South African territory into nineteen water management areas (1999)

Minister of Water Affairs and Forestry. The main functions of the CMAs are: (a) to gather information and advise users; (b) to elaborate a management strategy for the WMA for which it is responsible; (c) to co-ordinate users and other water management organisations in the management area; and finally, (d) to promote community participation in water resource management in the WMA (Article 80 of NWA). WUAs "[...] operate at a restricted localised level, and are in effect co-operative associations of individual water users who wish to undertake water-related activities for their mutual benefit", declared the NWA (RSA, 1998). The primary functions of WUAs are varied. The Act proposes in its annexes a constitution model for their creation, and also provides the possibility for the Department or the CMAs to delegate certain water resource management functions to WUAs.

As representatives of local water users, WUAs are key instruments in opening the decision-making process to the South African population as a whole; they are key instruments for democratising the country's water management processes; finally, they are a key element for righting past inequalities and constructing a new South Africa. More than a technical breakthrough or the successful adaptation of international principles of good management, the NWA is a true tool for national redemption following the end of apartheid.

"The chief importance [of the Act] [...] goes much deeper than a technical policy. It goes to the heart of our society. It is the moral demand that the voiceless and the impoverished make on us. It is the need to invest people with dignity. It is the call to roll back the awful iniquities of the past" (Asmal, 1995b). The 1998 water reform is to give rise to the country's reunification and to the reintroduction of the former homelands in the national territory. It must lead to the simplification of the institutional arsenal and the unification of water legislation which, at the time, was scattered in over sixty different pieces of legislation (Asmal, 1996). For the first time in the national water management strategy, it must lead to taking into account the needs of former homeland populations still poorly documented at the time. Finally, it must take part in rallying the South African people around shared values of equality and democracy.

As such, a major objective of the institutional water management reform is to remedy past access, advantages and participation inequalities resulting from the apartheid regime. Today the idea is to guarantee water management for all and by all. The government must no longer be the only one to guide the water legislation review and implementation process. A large movement of national consultation was actually organised between 1994 and 1997, through which

South African citizens were called upon to comment, assess and improve working documents and political programmes distributed by the DWAF as part of the reform process (Backeberg, 2005; De Coning, 2006). This habit of consultation endured after 1998 for the elaboration of following policies and through the participative creation processes of the WUAs and CMAs.

But while the processes of democratisation and decentralisation of water management were so clearly defined in 1998, their implementation was toned down by practice: the evolution of ideas, the slowness of the establishment processes, users running out of steam or disagreeing, and/or the persistence of inequalities inherited from apartheid transformed the format of decentralised institutions, and kept the decision-making power away from South African users and citizens.

2. Water User Associations: The 'Local' Participative Water Management Institution

"The National Water Act was purposefully formulated as a framework Act, to minimise the complexity of technical details and to achieve economy of drafting time and effort" (Pegram and Mazibuko, 2003:1). This format gave the DWAF and other actors involved in the implementation of the reform a certain margin of interpretation. As a result, the Department and 'its' consultants resorted to a set of guidelines published after 1998 to clarify the Department's position, and spell out the role of each new institution or new action model in the national water management system: guidelines on the establishment of the WUAs as well as on the transformation of Irrigation Boardsⁱⁱⁱ, the establishment of CMAs, the participative processes or, still, the contribution of the water reform to the empowerment of the poorest.

The NWA defines WUAs clearly: WUAs are "co-operative associations of individual water users" operating at the local level. Yet, this seeming clarity exposes the absence of tangible ideas in 1998 on what WUAs, which had been created on paper, were going to become in practice. This discovery was made progressively, by trial and error, through the different guidelines published by the Department. As such, the implementation of the WUAs evolved during the various creations and transformations, to which the Department reacted by modifying the specification requirements of future associations, one at a time: creation procedures, form of consultative process, representation quotas etc. This creation by trial and error, applied to a South African landscape still strongly marked by segregation and socially diverse, has led to the establishment of a disparate corpus of associations with modes of existence and operation strongly marked by their location and year of creation.

The Department conventionally distinguishes between three types of WUAs according to the identity of the main users involved: (a) WUAs stemming from the transformation of one or several former Irrigation Boards (IB) made up essentially of large commercial farmers; (b) WUAs stemming from the transfer of Government Water Schemes^{iv} (GWS) to farmers;

and finally (c) WUAs bringing together historically disadvantaged individuals (HDI) such as small-scale irrigation schemes' farmers (DWAF, 2002a; DWAF, 2007). Yet, this typology is incomplete in that it does not take into consideration the differences in the scales of action, does not account for the diversity of situations within a category of associations, and omits the new WUAs bringing together middle size commercial farmers (and not just disadvantaged populations). Lastly, it does not account for the evolution of the policy and practice of WUA establishment which, since 2004, favour multi-sectorial associations established at a scale which is becoming increasingly larger.

The case of WUAs for Small-Scale Irrigation Schemes (SSIS) is a good illustration of this evolution. The idea of generations of WUAs is implicit in the political discourses which easily oppose the very first associations created for SSIS, to the following projects. As such, three generations of WUAs for SSIS can be distinguished: a first generation of single WUAs emanating from the rehabilitation programmes of SSIS between 1998 and 2000; a second generation of cluster WUAs organised around a cluster of irrigation schemes since 2004-2005; and finally, a third and currently evolving generation of widened WUAs which resemble more mini-CMAs than localised water management institutions (Figure 2). Cluster WUAs result from the economic rationalisation of local modes of participation. Widened WUAs are still in the early stages. Introduced by a revision project of the national water management policy, i.e. the 2008 Institutional Realignment Project (DWAF, 2008a), they are to solve the problem of the increasing number of institutions under the control of the DWAF, the problem of financial and personnel capacity, and the problem of governance and possible co-operation between a large number of institutional organisations^v.

As a result, WUAs lose their 'restricted local' character as described in the NWA, and progressively move away from the main concerns of SSIS farmers. This tendency in fact limits the participation capacity of small farmers, and ultimately calls into question the slogan of the water reform: 'Management for all, management by all'.

3. Management by All? How Small-Scale Irrigation Schemes are Affected by Progressive Changes in the Interpretation of the Role of WUAs

Changes to the South African model of WUAs give insight into how the thinking of the DWAF regarding local water management has evolved. As mentioned above, the framework format of the NWA gave much room for interpretation to the Department which, as guidelines were being drawn up, was able to match the format of institutions with the progress of the reform and its own operational needs.

As early as 1998, the NWA's definition of Water User Associations contained two visions: on the one hand they were to be 'co-operative associations of individual water users', and on the other a third-tier institution under the control of the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (Article 95 of

the NWA). While these two visions rely on very different approaches as far as the creation and existence of institutions are concerned, they are not for all that irreconcilable. Their tension is indeed inherent to the IWRM principles, calling on the one hand for an increased decentralisation and public participation, i.e. promoting the interests and strategies of citizens, and on the other pushing comprehensive and 'integrated' water management objectives, i.e. safeguarding and promoting the interests of the State (Miller and Hirsch, 2003). Balancing this tension is a major stake in the implementation of IWRM by national public policies (*Ibid.*). However, in South Africa, the relative and theoretical balance contained in the NWA began to dwindle less than one year after the adoption of the reform. What the NWA presented as a 'possibility' as regards WUAs in the more or less near future, i.e. taking on integrated management functions and conforming to the general interest – became, throughout guidelines and implementation practice, an imposed requirement from the very creation of the associations. This evolution was not a sudden but a progressive change. It is expressed in the increasingly pressing assertion of the political role of WUAs, and the increasingly systematic intervention of the Department in the creation of associations, to a point where the idea of a simple revocation of the voluntary nature of WUA creation and the obligation for users to become members of their respective WUA has been voiced by certain agents of the Department in the last years.

Thus, the co-operative nature of these associations and the interests of the users disappear behind a stronger assertion of State interests, the 'common good' and the necessity of making sacrifices for the completion of national development and reconstruction objectives. This progressive change results from an ideological positioning of DWAF officers confronted with national redemption requirements following years of exclusion and segregation during apartheid; it is also the result of a structural delay in the creation of decentralised water management institutions (only 3 CMAs out of the 19 planned initially are established and operational to date). Indeed, the slowness with which CMAs are created has led to an institutional vacuum which resulted in an increased dependency of the DWAF on WUAs, in the quasi-systematic delegation of catchment management functions to WUAs (DWAF, 2008b), and in the perception of the potential role of WUAs in the implementation of the national water management policy as being all the more promising and

central (DWAF, 2007).

The additional responsibilities delegated to WUAs and the widening of their scope of action are presented by DWAF officers as a means to further empower users and revolutionize power relations. Yet, in reality things are quite different. Indeed, widening participation runs the risk of distorting the political process of empowerment of users and other people of modest means. Participation spaces and scales influence people's capacity of action (Kesby, 2003). They determine the strength and relevance of knowledge. They determine also the objects of negotiation around which power relations between actors are established.

Lastly, they are the settings of people's and groups' political competence (Whitehead and Gray-Molina, 1999). Thus, it appears that the widening process of WUAs, undertaken by the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry since 2002, has been carried out to the detriment of the capacity of action, participation and influence of small-scale irrigation scheme farmers on water management decisions.

What is more, changes in the models or in the generation of associations correspond to changes in the creation approach. The case of WUAs for SSIS is once more a good illustration of such processes. Until 2002, the first concern of the DWAF as regards local water management was the transformation of the former Irrigation Boards, and not the creation of new institutions (DWAF, 2004b). This lack of intervention and the vagueness

surrounding the definition of WUAs resulted in the Department of Agriculture being able to appropriate for a while the format of WUAs for the implementation of its strategy, for the transfer of SSIS management to farmers. While an agricultural logic had motivated first generation WUAs, the DWAF – by reassuming the responsibility for creating WUAs for SSIS – has progressively emphasized a hydrological approach at the expense of any other (economic, political or social) foundation for the creation of associations. The advent of second generation WUAs has also coincided with an ever decreasing acknowledgment and integrating of previously existing management institutions within SSIS, such as the management committees created at the level of each scheme well before the agricultural revitalisation programmes and which, for most, still benefit today from a strong legitimacy with farmers.

On the ground, these evolutions result in the multiplication of paper-WUAs, i.e. institutions which are created officially,

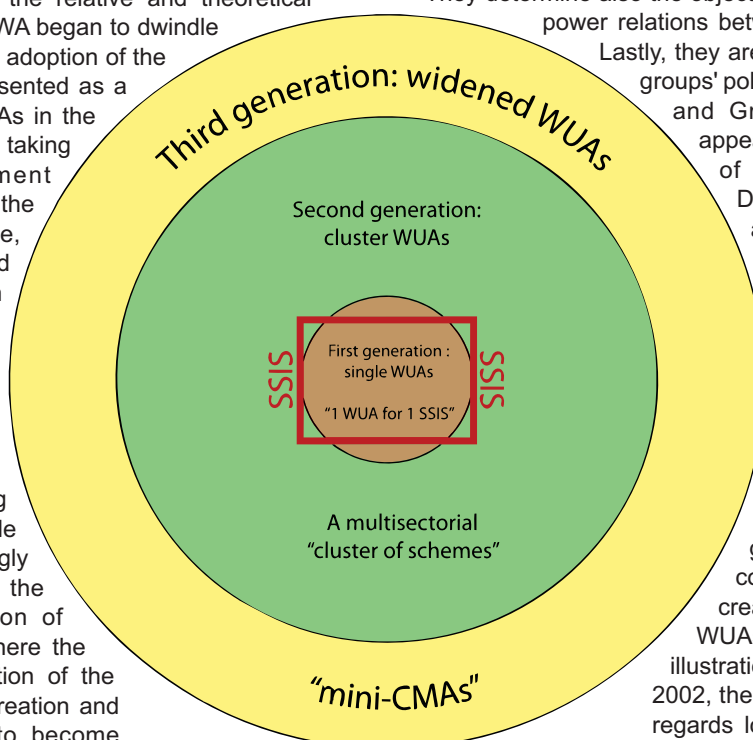


Figure 2. Three generations of water user associations for small-scale irrigation schemes

with constitutions recognised by the DWAF, but which offer no concrete and operational reality to their members. In addition, and more worryingly, they also result in a feeling of powerlessness by SSIS farmers, a lack of control over water management and the creation process of WUAs. *"I am the Chairperson. I just don't know what I am the Chairperson of"*, deplored the Chairman of the Sekhukhune WUA in 2008, a few months only after the creation of this association.

Conclusion

Close to fifteen years of NWA implementation have led to changes in the definition of WUAs, addressing in the process the difficulties with which the reform has been implemented as well as the political and operational needs of the Department of Water Affairs. However, these evolutions took place to the detriment of the participation of the most disadvantaged users and of the democratisation of water management despite it appearing prominently among the reform's objectives.

"The [South African] model [of water user associations (WUA)] is more drawn politically than from the needs on the ground", explained one of the resource-persons interviewed in 2007⁴, and it is precisely this characteristic of the institutional water reform in South Africa which puts the democratisation project and active participation of users in a difficult position. Users, citizens and stakeholders of all kinds are encouraged

to become involved and organise themselves to take part collectively in the management of their resources, but according to formats and within instances which are imposed upon them, which do not take into account their past collaborative experiences (even informal experiences) and which disregard their original co-operation dynamics.

In this regard, Green (2000) notes that *"as genuine 'development' [genuine 'governance, or genuine 'management' as defined by outside actors] refers only to certain types of transformation [of interaction or action], [...] [people's] agency can only be accomplished through imported structures for participation, structures that are imposed and are outside of people's control"* (Ibid.: 70). As such there is a real paradox in the participation of local actors as recommended these days by development programmes, principles of good governance or more generally still, public management policies. The participation of local actors must enable them to take control of their lives, their decisions, but without them being free to define, on their own, the tools and form of such participation. The South African water sector is not an exception to this tendency but is, on the contrary, a striking and worrying example of an increasing influence of the State on the establishment of local democratic and participative structures.

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- i. In 2009, the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWAF) became the Department of Water Affairs after the Minister of DWAF became the Minister of Water and Environmental Affairs.
 - ii. The expression 'grand apartheid' refers to the period, from the 1960s onwards, when racial laws (territorial, social, economic or political) and the repression of resistance movements were radicalised by the National Party government, in power since 1948.
 - iii. Irrigation Boards are co-operation structures for the management of irrigation water which were established by the 1956 Water Act. Their responsibilities were (and still are for some) variable, going from operation and maintenance of infrastructures to their development and the monitoring of watercourse flow rate and quality. They were powerful – and often wealthy – authorities of control of water resources, supply infrastructures and distribution infrastructures in many areas of the country. The National Water Act of 1998 provides for their abolition and transformation into WUAs.
 - iv. The Government Water Schemes are monitoring areas of the government introduced by the Water Act of 1956 with a view to ensuring, for the benefit of the general public, the national management of water resources (Blanchon, 2009).
 - v. Following a logic of reduction in the number of decentralised water management institutions, the Institutional Realignment Project provides for the grouping of the 19 CMAs (created or under creation) into 9 institutions (DWAF, 2008a). However, to date, the project which has been officially accepted has not yet been implemented.
 - vi. Conventionally in research, a resource person is a person who has key information on the situation under study, the history of its evolution and the identity of the persons involved.

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Integrated Water Resource Management (IWRM): Philosophy and Principles of Intervention

The IWRM is a philosophy, an objective, a process and a set of actions all in one. It relies on the fact that the entire water cycle is taken into consideration and the interdependence of the different uses, actors and other natural resources of the cycle are being acknowledged.

Like so many other international paradigms, there is no unique definition of IWRM. The Global Water Partnership (GWP) has been working for a long time on an 'official' definition of IWRM: "Integrated water resource management is a process which promotes the co-ordinated development and management of water, land and related resources, in order to maximising the resultant economic and social welfare in an equitable manner without compromising the sustainability of vital ecosystems." (Global Water Partnership, 2000: 24). For project managers, IWRM serves to "[internalise] ecological sustainability, human development/poverty alleviation and democratic governance into the 'core business' of water bureaucracies" (Mollinga, Meinzen-Dick and Merrey, 2007: 699). For politicians, the IWRM leads to "balancing and making trade-offs between different goals in an informed way" (Jonch-Clausen and Fugl, 2001: 503).

The GWP has also been contributing to translating integrated management philosophy into principles of intervention, by identifying steps and requirements – what the GWP calls 'enabling environments' – needed for the emergence of integrated management situations. This led to building up a real intervention and behaviour manual, a 'toolbox' from which reforms can be selected to conform to the requirements of the international community and an inventory of successful stories to be reproduced. These tools are available for use by anyone: <http://www.gwptoolbox.org>. But despite the GWP's desire to avoid such a situation, this approach of IWRM is largely criticised for its effects on the conceptualisation of the reform processes which are excessively simplified, depoliticised and de-contextualised (Molle, 2008).

Despite what appears to be a consensus, there are many debates around IWRM: whether validity, innovative character or applicability, the different aspects of IWRM are regularly challenged. As early as 2003 for instance, the University of Bradford (UK) began to regularly organise the Alternative World Water Forum, which aimed at questioning the so called World Consensus on Water which participants considered more as a compromise than a consensus (Mollinga, 2006). Questioning the innovative character of integrated management, Rahaman and Varis (2005) consider that forms of management which are similar to IWRM, have been in existence for many decades if not centuries and, to illustrate this, quote the 1926 Spanish Hydrological Confederations or, still, the Tennessee Valley Authority created in the 1940s.

Nonetheless, consensus exists between many authors over the slack period of the 1980s as regards international thoughts on water management, and over the IWRM's dominant place in international and national debates today, whether in criticising, questioning or defending it. Described as a bottom-up alternative to conventional resource management (Ferreira, de Loë and Kreutzweiser, 2008), IWRM aims at reconciling economic efficiency, environmental protection and social equity, within the same water resource management policy. In the end, while there is consensus due to the fact that the significance of these principles is internationally acknowledged, such consensus does not extend to the interpretation of what these principles are effectively supposing (Mollinga, 2006).

In Southern Africa, IWRM is a model for thought: IWRM-type projects have been elaborated at various levels, in the main transboundary catchments of the region, as well as at the level of sub-catchments (Swatuk, 2008; Swatuk and Wirkus, 2009). Far from only being the fruit of a North-South transfer, IWRM has resulted in and continues to give rise to many research works and discussions on the multidimensional and multi-scale approaches proposed to manage water.

Regional Approach for Water Policies in Southern Africa



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Introduction

In Southern Africa, international and regional influence (via the elaboration of treaties, protocols or models¹), as well as political and economic changes, have encouraged and contributed to reorganising water management. The region includes around fifteen transboundary catchment areas, i.e. watercourses shared between two or more States².

During the 1990s, several States modified their laws and policies on water, following the evolutions of their political contexts. Other elements contributed also to new legislations, such as the Orange-Senqu River Treaty followed by the Orange-Senqu River Commission which recommended the reorganisation of national water management to certain riparian States, e.g. Botswana and Namibia³. Approaches and models diverged from one State to another: Botswana and Namibia relied on very centralised methods of resource management, while South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe followed decentralisation policies more or less successfully.

Since 1994, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) decided to favour policy harmonisation. What place does water have in the regional integration policy launched by the SADC? What interactions can be brought out between regional and national policies?

Regional integration as planned by the SADC is not yet ready, despite the presence of regional legislative and institutional initiatives (1). Disparities within SADC States are not only economic, political and social: important factors of differentiation and organisation as regards water resource management also exist (2). Sharing water resources at the regional level, with institutional links at the national and local levels remains partly theoretical (3). Some initiatives, while implementing partnerships between several States around the shared management of water resources, give hope for evolution (4). Transboundary initiatives are often the product of actions carried out outside a complex institutional system

(5), and supported by multiple partnerships.

1. A Regional Integration?

Since its creation in 1992, the SADC has been promoting regional integration, including water management. Several reference texts on water management have been promulgated, the SADC Water Protocol and its revised version in particular. On the basis of these protocols, agreements have been signed, ratified and have come into force for certain transboundary regional watercourses. They are behind the establishment of organisations in charge of managing river basins, i.e. River Basin Commissions. Subsequently, the SADC, which was restructured at the beginning of the second millennium, also elaborated policies and strategies concerning water resources in the region, and developed action plans.

The SADC operates on the basis of protocols which are ratified by member States, and which lead to the establishment of institutional mechanisms to fulfil its objectives. These protocols are elaborated jointly around a sector or resource (energy, transport, water, forests etc., in total 21 sectors) and require the approval of all member States.

The SADC did not wait for the 1997 Framework Convention of the United Nations⁴ to ratify its first protocol on water: in 1995, the Protocol on Shared Watercourses (SADC, 2008a) was the first sector-based protocol developed by the SADC (Ramoeli, 2002). In the preamble of the first version, the Helsinki Rules⁵ were mentioned. The revised version of 2000 (SADC, 2008b) includes certain general principles of the 1997 Framework Convention of the United Nations, on the initiative of certain States like Mozambique, which is the “downstream State” of Southern Africa: several transboundary watercourses of the region, like the Limpopo and Zambezi Rivers for example, end their course on Mozambican territory before flowing into the Indian Ocean⁶.

At the beginning of the second millennium, the 21 sectors

of the SADC – each one being managed by one of the member States – were restructured: until then the Water Sector had been managed by Lesotho from Maseru. In 1998, its Water Sector Coordination Unit had elaborated a Regional Strategic Action Plan (RSAP) for the Integrated Management of Water Resources (SADC, 1999, RSAP I), which was adopted by all the member States within the framework of the general regional development plan. In 2004, a new plan was established (SADC, 2003, RSAP II): the development of the Integrated Management of Water Resources (see Insert on IMWR) became the responsibility of the new Water Division of the Directorate of Infrastructure and Services of the SADC. Since 2011, the RSAP III has been taking over and will do so until 2015. It relies on three pillars: water governance, infrastructure development and water management, carried out in the form of a “water cube” (SADC, 2011, RSAP III). These three successive plans serve as reference to fulfil and assess the SADC’s regional objectives as regards water management (provision of water, food security, establishment of waterways and hydroelectric production).

Transboundary River Basin Commissions, with their establishment being recommended already with the first water protocol, represent a form of institutional support in realising these objectives^{vii}.

Out of all transboundary catchment areas included in Southern Africa, several are endowed with multilateral River Basin Organisations: Okavango, Orange, Limpopo, Zambezi^{viii}, while others are managed jointly by agreements that did not give rise to the establishment of a Commission, such as the Incomati-Maputo^{ix} system. Moreover, the SADC mentions several difficulties around these agreements, i.e. signature, ratification or membership (SADC, 2009).

The regional management of water, as elaborated by the SADC, is supposed to be a general framework which would include international agreements, national laws, environmental projects, without for all that losing sight of the long term regional development objective (including making up for inequalities between members States in all areas). The structural reorganisation of the SADC only partly explains the difficulties in assessing the importance of water as far as regional integration is concerned: several waves of institutional reforms have also taken place at the national level.

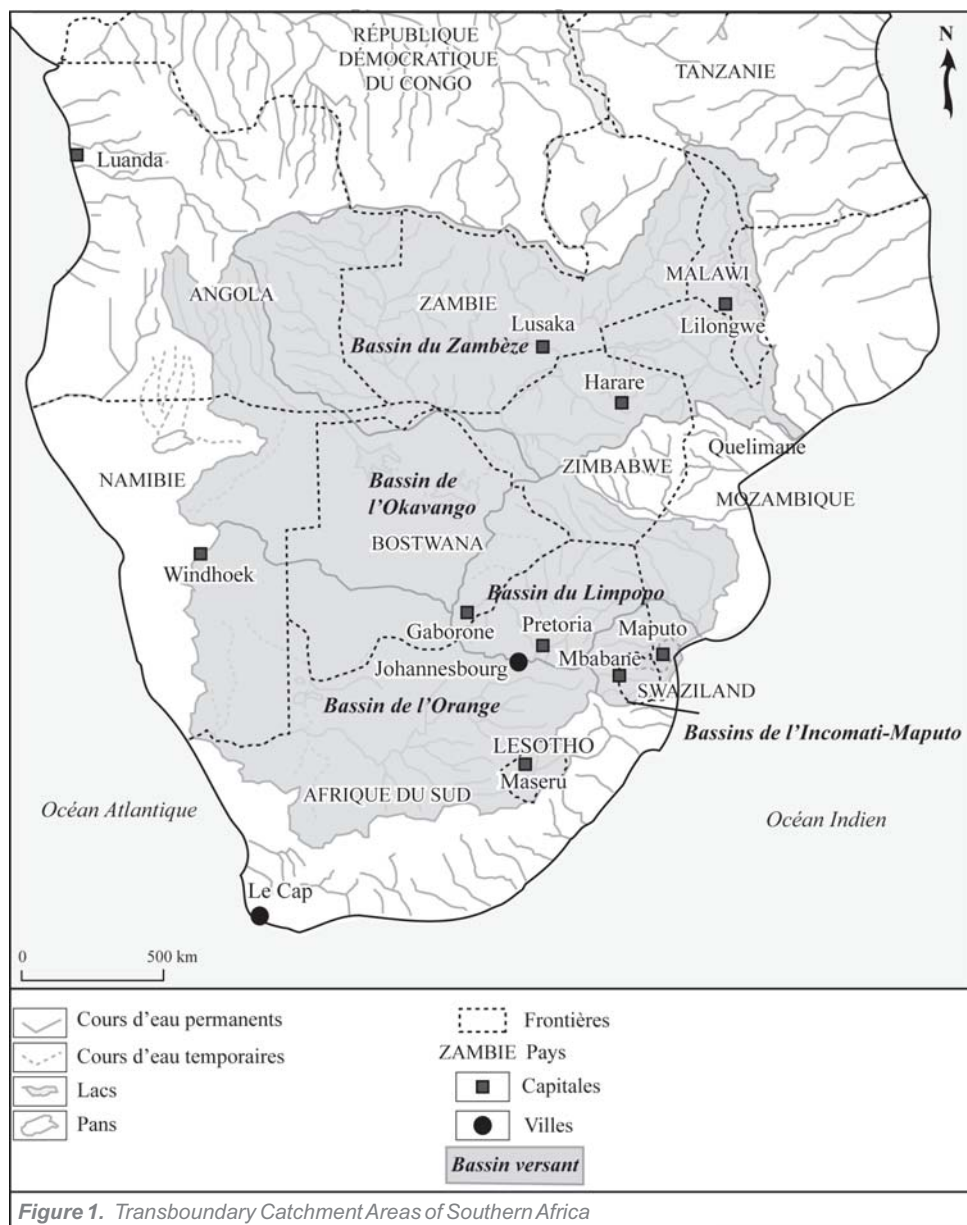


Figure 1. Transboundary Catchment Areas of Southern Africa

2. Different National Policies

Even before adopting the above-mentioned regional plans and protocols, several national legislations and policies of SADC member States were renewed. Certain States chose to adopt an even more decentralised water management system organised around river basins, while others maintained their national water management organisations centralised. While similar institutions came into existence, making contact between them within the framework of transboundary river basin division has been a rather difficult situation. From one State to another, water management institutions do not have the same functions and autonomy, and as such their interactions are not obvious. The recent legislative formulation and the establishment of water institutions took on different forms: national plans, national policy, development policies, etc. All of these led to the establishment of an orientation framework for the national water policy of the States.

Responsibilities are shared generally between institutions managing legislative aspects and institutions dealing with water services. As such, the elaboration of new water policies in Southern Africa did not systematically go through the promulgation of new laws on water. This is the case of Botswana which still relies on the 1968 law on water; other laws in other countries have been regularly amended before being replaced altogether^x.

Botswana continues to modify progressively its water legislation^{xi}. Water services in Botswana have been restructured thanks to a new sectorial plan promulgated in 2006. The Ministry of Minerals, Energy and Water Affairs (MMEWA) is behind the orientations of the new national water policy. The two units under the directives of the Ministry are the Department of Water Affairs (DWA) and the Water Utilities Corporation (WUC). These two bodies manage water for the entire country. Botswana has been relying on a form of management which is still very centralised nationally but autonomous locally, which corresponds to dynamics specific to the way the territory is organised. In Southern Africa, Botswana is somehow the State of all Commissions: it is the only State which is a signatory of treaties instituting four transboundary River Basin Commissions, i.e. OKACOM, ORASECOM, LIMCOM and ZAMCOM as previously mentioned. All of Botswana's water resources are shared. Indeed, adding to the fact that it is enclosed in the Southern region, it is the Southern African State which depends the most on good neighbourly relations.

The reorganisation of the national water policies of the Republics of **Malawi** and **Angola** took place in similar political, economic and social contexts. In either case, the State and its President in particular, are the guarantors and owners of water resources: they rely on decentralised bodies at the level of provinces or catchment basins, when these are used as a reference for management units. The cases of the Kingdoms of Lesotho and Swaziland are different. **Lesotho** recently modified her legislation on water which dated back to 1978. The management of environmental resources is currently being reorganised (Environment Act, Lesotho, 2001), and a new legislation on water has recently been promulgated (Water Act, Lesotho, 2008). With this new legislation, the nation, through its sovereign, is still considered as the owner of water resources. Related legislations, those concerning local governments in particular, such as the 1997 Local Government Act of Lesotho, serve as medium for the establishment of water institutions at the local level. **Swaziland** being also a kingdom, the configuration of its national water policy is linked to the fact that the king owns water resources, while the traditional chiefs who are his representatives are those in charge of water management. The Republic of **Namibia**, which has been independent since 1990, benefits from a national water policy very similar to that of South Africa, since 2008 only. Namibia adopted as early as the beginning of the millennium, the principle of integrated water resource management per river basin, by creating Basin Management Committees (BMC).

As such, the decentralised hierarchical management

model has known some degree of success in Southern Africa: a Ministry and a Department, an Authority or Council globally manage resources at the national level and subdivide the territory into Regional Authorities often based on the catchment basin unit. The local scale is often represented on the one hand by Water User Associations and on the other by urban or rural Municipalities.

3. Potential Institutional Structuring

The South African, Zimbabwean and Mozambican cases offer an interesting institutional comparison. **South Africa** created Catchment Management Agencies (CMA), **Mozambique** Regional Water Agencies or *Administrações Regionais de Aguas* (ARA), and **Zimbabwe** Catchment Council (CC). The institutionalisation process turned out longer than expected in all cases^{xii}. These agencies and councils are headed by the central bodies of the country^{xiii} and their roles for now remain limited. Operating on similar scales, CMAs, ARAs and CCs have begun to establish partnerships in transboundary river basins.

Theoretically, the objective of water resource management decentralisation resides in a division of responsibilities and authority at the regional and local levels. Without listing the complete composition of the South African legislative arsenal, the National Water Act of 1998 involves the creation and establishment of Water Resources Management Institutions such as CMAs, each one overseeing a Water Management Area (WMA). The legislation on water in Mozambique (*Lei de Águas*, 1991) which was elaborated in 1991, makes of water resources a property of the Mozambican State, and of water management (infrastructures, large-scale works etc.) a State prerogative. This law was later on completed with the elaboration and publication of national water policies (1995 and 2007), which contributed to specify and re-orient priorities. The National Water Department (DNA) established five ARAs, determined according to catchment basins (for example, ARA-Zambezi includes the Mozambican section of the Zambezi River Basin). ARAs are in charge of managing water resources based on a model similar to that of CMAs in South Africa (see Maud Orne-Gliemann's article) or, still, Water Agencies in France. The new tasks of these decentralised administrations are developing progressively: they touch various domains (elaboration of integrated basin management plan, tax collection, regulating water licences according to usage, etc.). ARAs relay the Mozambican State within Transboundary River Basin Commissions. As such, representatives of ARA-Sul (which covers the basins of the Limpopo and the Incomati-Maputo system in Mozambique) are present in addition to DNA representatives in the meetings organised by the Transboundary River Basin Commissions which include Mozambique.

As part of a general decentralisation process, the Government of Zimbabwe established seven CCs via its new Water Act of 1998, the year during which South Africa also promulgated her new Water Act. That same year, the Zimbabwean Government also instituted the Zimbabwe National Water Authority Act, thereby establishing the Zimbabwe National Water Authority

(ZINWA) which operates as a public enterprise with a Committee. The decentralisation process in Zimbabwe was carried out with the creation of a centralising national water management authority and with river basin institutions. With the ZINWA, water management was divided into two distinct branches: on the one hand, that of water management policy which remains the jurisdiction of the Ministry, and on the other that of the development and the economic as well as technical management of water, under the aegis of the ZINWA. Subsequently, CC autonomy was considerably restricted with the compulsory nomination of an executive member employed by the ZINWA.

Theoretically, CMAs, ARAs and CCs are in contact with transboundary river basin organisations. Within the framework of the tripartite agreement between South Africa, Mozambique and Swaziland^{xiv}, which concerns the joint

management of the transboundary basins of the Incomati and Maputo Rivers, it is mainly the Incomati CMA (ICMA) which is in contact with ARA-Sul: these two institutions take part in the institutional meetings planned in the Agreement on the Incomaputo. The Komati Basin Water Authority^{xv} also takes part in it.

In the case of the treaty concerning the Limpopo River Basin establishing the Limpopo Watercourse Commission (LIMCOM)^{xvi}, the South African CMAs (Limpopo, Levuvhu-Letaba, Crocodile West-Marico and Olifants), ARA-Sul for Mozambique and CC Mzingwane should work together during the LIMCOM meetings. Yet, the reports distributed by LIMCOM highlight significant differences concerning the way ARAs, CMAs and CCs operate: the ARA-Sul offers a consultation platform for actors who are concerned with the integrated management of the Limpopo River Basin, while the CMAs and the CC Mzingwane allow for active participation.

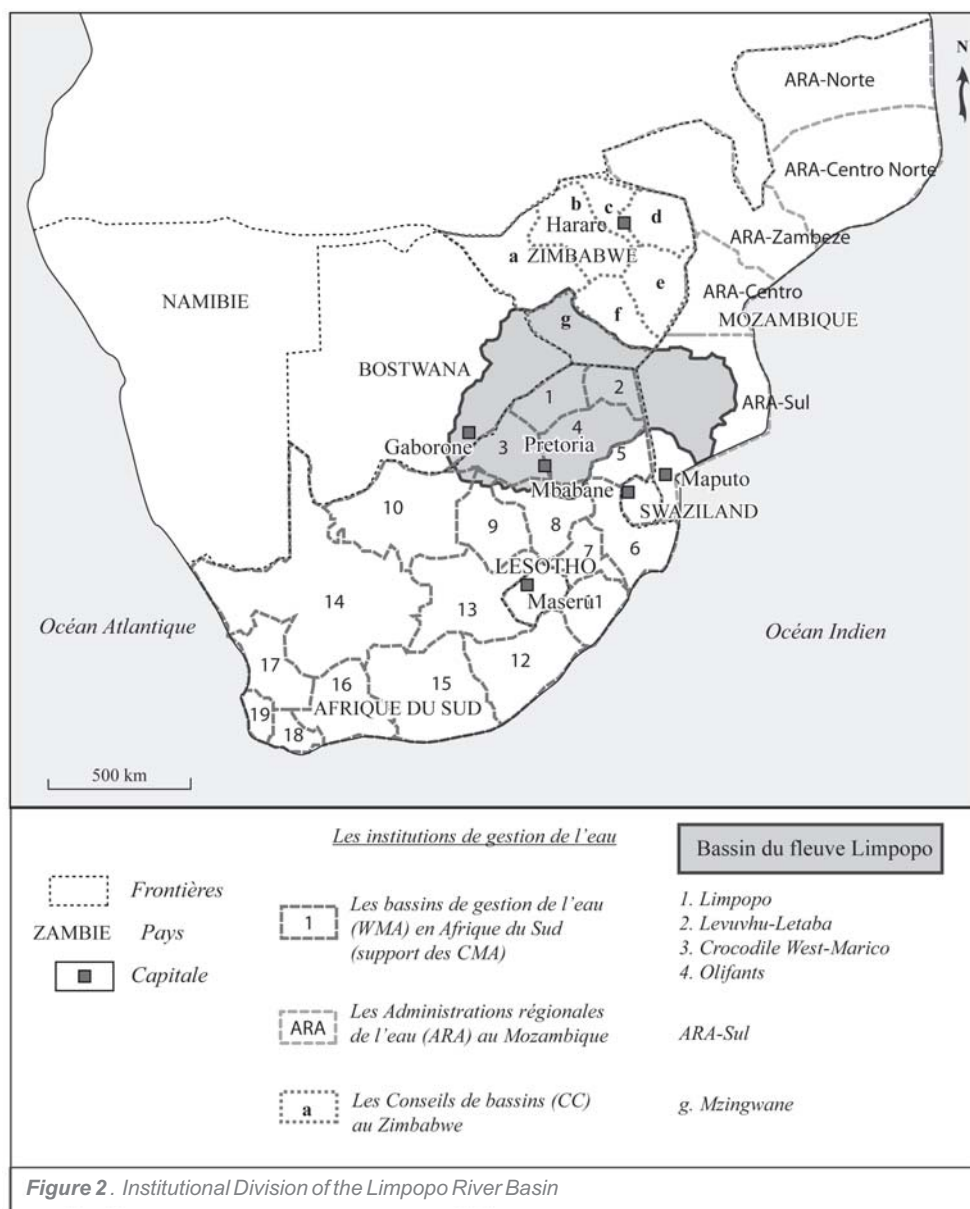
The case of Botswana is mentioned as a 'separate' case, due to the distinctive organisation of its water management^{xvii}.

The similarities and disparities between institutions in charge of water management do not facilitate exchanges from one State to another, including within the Transboundary River Basin Commissions. It can be difficult to identify institutional interlocutors, thereby affecting the time it takes to build relationships.

Moreover, outside the Zimbabwean crisis which partly explains why the institutional restructuring of water management is blocked, to date the establishment of CMAs and ARAs is still unachieved. Problems linked to decentralised institution financing and to the lack of skilled personnel per basin, partly explain their delay. The fact that former power relations were not challenged, whereby the same actors with the same powers continue to manage water resources, is also another plausible reason.

4. Initiatives per Basin

Water management initiatives slipping from institutional frameworks are quickly taken over by preferred management units, i.e. the catchment basin bodies. As such, research conducted on ephemeral watercourses has been slowed down by institutional divisions which differ in Namibia and Botswana. Conversely, the initiative called *Every River Has Its People*, launched by the Kalahari Conservation Society, highlighted and made up for a number of problems within the



framework of the joint water management of the Okavango River Basin. Since then this initiative is being tested in the Zambezi River Basin.

The project on ephemeral river basins in semi-arid and arid regions (*Ephemeral River Basins*, ERB), concerned the study of pilot areas in Namibia, Botswana and South Africa, with a view to improving their management. The Fish River, Buffels River and Boteti River were part of these pilot areas. Confronted with multiple institutions and uses to be taken into account^{xviii}, several analyses highlighted the difficulty and necessity of integrating all these institutions in the same River Basin Committee^{xix}.

The *Every River Has Its People* initiative concerned the Okavango River Basin which is shared between Angola, Botswana, Namibia (and Zimbabwe). It was to facilitate community participation within the Permanent Okavango River Basin Commission (OKACOM). The project enabled communities to take decisions on issues relating to the evolution of the management of the Okavango River Basin. Such increased participation was materialised during the Basin Wide Forum (BWF)^{xx}.

A similar initiative has since then been launched in the Zambezi River Basin and named *Zambezi Has Its People* (ZHIP). This initiative operates as part of the vast action programme called ZACPRO 6.2, conducted by ZAMCOM under the aegis of the SADC. Its objective is to succeed in integrating all actors into a regional participative model, to ensure they join in the management of the Zambezi River Basin^{xxi}.

The restructuring of water management in Southern Africa is above all a legislative and/or an institutional matter. Increasing importance has been given to the elaboration of integrated water resource management plans. Results are currently very mitigated, and this for several reasons. On the one hand, the elaboration of such plans requires first that institutions be established and exchange the necessary information. Yet, while the functions and powers of these institutions are often described in detail in legislations and national policies, interactions between them are rarely mentioned. On the other hand, the links between national/local and international institutions are not determined any clearer in national laws and policies. Finally, inter-institutional interactions do not represent a priority for the States which are more concerned about restructuring water

services, than linking the various scales of water resource management.

5. Conclusion: An Increasingly Complex Institutional System

Southern Africa does have at its disposal more or less recent legislative and institutional tools to manage water resources. The coexistence of a regional water policy and an institutional framework and national water policy restructuring contribute to the current institutional complexity of the region.

Despite the States' desire to see regional development benefit from joint management, priorities vary from one State to the other: South Africa, through internal reforms, is trying to structure the management of resource distribution by sector and within her population, while Botswana is busy securing water resources shared with other States. Mozambique remains one of the States of Southern Africa and in the world where the water and sanitation access rate is very low: although the institutional structure of water management in Mozambique is similar to that of South Africa and Zimbabwe, the water and sanitation access rate urgently needs to increase by almost two-thirds.

Discourses on institutional reorganisation are structured around two elements: integrated water resource management and restructuring water services. Yet, in the end, a truly integrated water resource management is obscured by these two very distinct priorities in the pieces of legislations promulgated by the Southern African States.

The bilateral and multilateral agreements evoked in this article reflect also the difficult reconciliation of national and regional policies, as well as national and supranational managing bodies: according to the regional States, the completion of institutional reforms is more or less at an advanced stage. Yet, the main idea behind effecting change among institutions in charge of managing water resources is to make them more efficient, so as to meet growing needs, catering for competition between sectors and making up for inequalities, among others. Therefore, while it is difficult to assess exchanges between water institutions, the processes and stages of their institutionalisation can constitute interesting indicators of their regional integration in Southern Africa.

- i. The 1997 United Nations Convention on the Law of the Non-Navigational Uses of International Watercourses, also known as the New York Convention; Protocol on the shared watercourses of the Southern African Development Community (SADC, 1998, 2003); Integrated Water Resource Management (IWRM) model, see insert p.9.
- ii. According to the accounts of the SADC <http://www.sadc.int/english/regional-integration/is/water/river-basins/> (consulted online on 10 October 2012).
- iii. According to the technical report for ORASECOM (Tompkins, 2007).
- iv. This Convention was adopted on the 21st of May 1997 by the United Nation General Assembly. It offers a general framework of co-operation between States to improve the sharing, management and protection of international watercourses. To date, this Convention has still not come into effect, for lack of ratification: in October 2012, only 16 countries out of 28 had signed it (ONU, 2012).

- v. The Helsinki Rules consist of a series of principles which were defined by the International Law Association in 1966. They are known as the "Helsinki Rules on the Uses of International Rivers" (Salman, 2007).
- vi. As far as international law on water is concerned, the Convention ensures the recognition of certain principles, particularly the rights of States situated downstream of transboundary watercourses.
- vii. These River Basin Commissions can be defined as "permanent structures of consultation for managing transboundary hydrographical catchment areas, with the purpose of co-ordinating the actions of the various States in favour of regional integration and in accordance with the socioeconomic and environmental principles evoked in the Protocol for the management of shared watercourses in the SADC." (Carles and Maupin, 2010).
- viii. The basins of the Okavango, Orange, Limpopo and Zambezi Rivers benefit from the OKACOM (*Permanent Okavango River Basin Commission*), the ORASECOM (*Orange-Senqu River Commission*), the LIMCOM (*Limpopo Watercourse Commission*) and the ZAMCOM (*Zambezi Watercourse Commission*) respectively.
- ix. The Incomati-Maputo system is managed by a tripartite technical agreement signed by the Republics of South Africa and Mozambique and the Kingdom of Swaziland in 2002.
- x. This is the case of the Zambian water legislation which has been amended in 1950, 1955, 1959, 1965, 1970 and 1994 before being replaced altogether in 2011.
- xi. In 2005, Botswana developed a Draft Water Bill to reinforce or even replace its 1968 water legislation.
- xii. Only a few South African CMAs were truly autonomous before the announcement of a complete restructuring in 2011, going from nineteen to nine CMAs, and in the case of ARAs, only three are fully operational. The Zimbabwean case is different following the major difficulties with which the country has been confronted in every domain since 2000.
- xiii. Department of Water Affairs (DWA) is the central organ for water management in South Africa; Direcção Nacional de Aguas (DNA) is the Mozambican equivalent; finally, the Zimbabwe National Water Authority (ZINWA) is in charge of centralising water management in Zimbabwe.
- xiv. The Tripartite Incomati-Maputo Interim Agreement was signed symbolically in 2002 during the Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg. The Agreement provides for the creation of commissions on the Incomati and Maputo River Basins. However, the current Technical Committee does not consider the elaboration and implementation of a Commission as a priority.
- xv. The Komati Basin Water Authority (KOBWA) is a bilateral management organisation which was established by South Africa and Swaziland in 1993, after the signature in 1992 of the Treaty establishing a joint commission between the two States to manage the Incomati River Basin (this Treaty excluded Mozambique). A joint South African-Swazi website exists in this regard: <http://www.kobwa.co.za>
- xvi. LIMCOM was formally established in 2009 with the establishment of a permanent Secretariat in Maputo (Mozambique), following the ratification of a multilateral treaty between South Africa, Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe (LIMCOM, Mozambique, 2003).
- xvii. According to a report available online: [http://www.limpoporak.com/_system/DMSStorage/3451en/LIMCOM%20Stakeholder%20participation%20workshop_workshop%20report_draft%20final_1%20Dec%202010%20\(2\).pdf](http://www.limpoporak.com/_system/DMSStorage/3451en/LIMCOM%20Stakeholder%20participation%20workshop_workshop%20report_draft%20final_1%20Dec%202010%20(2).pdf)
- xviii. 45 organisations have been identified in the Fish River Basin within the framework of this study.
- xix. Desert Research Foundation of Namibia – DRFN (2010), *Ephemeral River Basins – ERB-SADC project, Proceedings of the eighth Orange-Fish River Basin Stakeholder Forum Meeting*, 16-17 February 2010, Keetmanshoop, Namibia, DRFN, Windhoek. http://www.drfn.info/docs/erb/workshop_proceedings/Proceedings_8th_OFRB_stakeholder%20meeting_Feb_10.pdf
- xx. The initiative concerning the Okavango River Basin is available online <http://www.kcs.org.bw/index.php/programmes/erp>
- xxi. This participative community project is all the more difficult to realise since Zambezi River Basin is shared between no less than eight States (Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe). The initiative concerning the Zambezi River Basin is available online: <http://www.kcs.org.bw/index.php/programmes/zhjp>

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Urban National Parks in Emerging Countries and Cities (UNPEC)

Rio de Janeiro, Mumbai, Nairobi, Cape Town

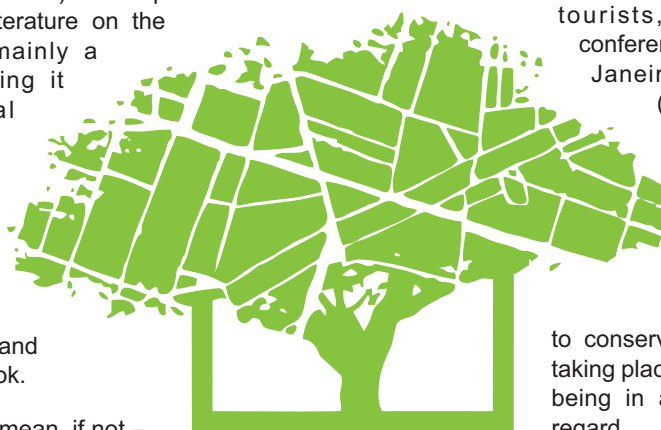
Generally, the national park issue is still being considered from the perspective of an antagonistic relation between (nature) conservation and (societal) development. There is extensive scientific literature on the subject, which advocates mainly a participatory approach making it possible to integrate local populations into the protection policy and, de facto, to reconcile equity and efficiency. Revisiting this issue on the subject of metropolises in countries of the South or emerging countries (Rio de Janeiro, Cape Town, Bombay and Nairobi), affords an original outlook.

For what does “emergence” mean, if not – from a sociocultural viewpoint – the juxtaposition of increasingly different groups whose nature representation systems diverge? The emergence process modifies the structure and dynamic of social classes and makes of the park a place of encounters and conflicts, as in Brazil, India, South Africa and even in countries like Kenya, which are marked by recurrent crises, and for which “emergence” still seems to be an objective to be reached more than an actual development process. In the societies of Europe or North America, well-off populations adopt dominant representations, perceiving urban parks as a space of leisure and relaxation or protection of biodiversity. Conversely, the residents of shanty towns sometimes tend to see protected areas as building land, while farmers in Nairobi or Bombay view parks as potential resource fields. Urban spreading raises even more the issue of park location and, conversely, protected areas tend to grow, which increases “front lines”.

Finally, the emergence process brings to light new issues: although they are part of a local urban dimension, these so-called “national” parks are confronted with a challenge: managing must take into account the multiple scales. Parks can contribute to reinforcing the image of a city and reach iconic status (e.g. Cape Town and Rio de Janeiro), even though they might have been perceived up until then as a local financial resource above all (e.g. Nairobi), or been completely neglected by the urban authorities (e.g. Bombay). The environmental issue can be a rallying objective, a factor of local integration (e.g. Rio) or even national integration according to the official discourse (e.g. Cape Town), but it can also function as a tool of spatial and social segmentation (e.g.

Bombay). When a metropolis competes internationally to obtain the status of “World City”, a national park can be an efficient logo, a symbolic brand image attracting tourists, capitals and international conferences (e.g. Cape Town and Rio de Janeiro). It can also be neglected (Bombay). In the first case, it seems that we have emerging parks attached to emerging cities which are the driving force behind emerging countries. In the second case, parks remain marked by the old “fortress” approach to conservation, with very little integration taking place into the city – the park of Nairobi being in an intermediary position in this regard.

While these “national” parks are part of a “local” metropolis, they must face “world” issues: their management is made difficult by the diversity of actors operating at all the different levels, bringing often divergent representations, meeting often contradictory interests, and endowed with unequal powers.



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Seven Themes:

- Models and their Circulation (co-ordination: Estienne RODARY)
- The Heritagisation of Nature in Urban Promotion Discourses (co-ordination: Jean-Fabien STECK)
- Urbanisation Frontlines and Co-Management of Parks (co-ordination: Sylvain GUYOT)
- Autochthons and Agriculture (co-ordination: Emmanuel LEZY)
- Geographic Information Systems (co-ordination: Julie ROBERT)
- Assessing Biodiversity and its Contexts (co-ordination: Yanni GUNNELL)
- Adaptation to Climatic Change Based on Ecosystems (EbA) (co-ordination: Louise BRUNO)

www.upa-network.org

BiodiverCities Rio 2012

Urban protected areas: issues, actors, spaces

The **BiodiverCities 2012** international conference took place at the Catholic University of Rio de Janeiro on the 29th and 30th of October 2012, within the framework of the research programme entitled **Urban National Parks in Emerging Countries & Cities (UNPEC)** (2012-2015), financed by the Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR), France. UNPEC is an interdisciplinary programme of fundamental and applied research which compares urban national parks in the large metropolises of the South: Rio de Janeiro, Cape Town, Mumbai and Nairobi.

Research works dealt with actors' convergent and divergent dynamics, and with the many challenges and great diversity of urban protected areas which are too often considered as "natural" against cities as the ultimate human artefact. The main themes which were discussed during six sessions are as follows:

1. The importance, role and challenges of urban protected areas;
2. The role of research in managing urban protected areas;
3. Urban protected areas: towards a new model of relationships between nature and culture?
4. Public policies and urban protected area management: synergies and contradictions;
5. Local population participation in managing urban protected areas;
6. The conservation of ecosystems and urban protected areas: how to combine economic and environmental sustainability.

In addition to research results, the BiodiverCities 2012 conference revealed tensions founded in the local geopolitical context, giving rise sometimes to lively discussions. Indeed, Rio is currently undergoing a lot of pressure in relation to on-going urban transformations, for the preparation of major international events such as the World Cup of Football in 2014, or the Olympic Games in 2016, and this in addition to the conflicts linked to the structural urbanisation pressures on protected natural areas.

The conference worked towards deconstructing the philosophical and cultural opposition between city and nature, urban and natural spaces, as well as Man and the environment, before contributing to the main objective of new relationships between humans and what we call nature. In this sense, BiodiverCities has three goals: thinking about the diversity of life and living beings, including human beings; taking into account the diversity of cities; and taking into consideration the great variety of cultures and their relationship with nature in particular. In this context, urban protected areas (UPAs) represent life-size laboratories where

new experiences can unfold. UPAs cannot be the tree which is being preserved to warrant destroying the forest; they must be recognised for their specificities and be an educational showcase of *biogeosphere* conservation, which also includes mankind.

Contributors drew attention to the importance of knowing why and for whom conservation is necessary and what type of conservation is possible according to which context. Practice shows that conservation in the strict sense does not seem adapted to the urban context. As such, it is time to switch from a theoretical to a practical phase so as to view UPAs no longer as problems but as opportunities.

UPA challenges concern the evolution of the fortress conservation concept towards a mutual host relationship between parks and cities, where the dynamics and treatments of the interface between these two entities play a dominating role. This interface is called upon to play a role of integration border as opposed to separation border as was previously the case. The evolutionary process, which has been studied in the UNPEC programme, can mean hybridisation areas in the field. In this context, environmental education becomes a fundamental tool to transform human relations, and those between urban dwellers and nature in particular: it is a social, environmental and developmental integration policy.

In order to question the "role of research in managing urban protected areas", the contexts of the four urban national parks have been examined by the UNPEC programme. The complexity of the socio-economic situation in the large metropolises of emerging countries, requires us to adopt a new look as regards environmental management policies. Despite the difference of contexts, the four pilot parks of the UNPEC programme are all directly confronted with the impacts of socio-economic dynamics marked by strong inequalities. The notion of emergence brings out the juxtaposition of social groups and spaces which are increasingly contrasted, with often divergent nature and city representation systems. The four sites, i.e. Mumbai (at the foot of the Western Ghats), Cape Town (in the Cape Floral Kingdom), Nairobi (at the foot of the Eastern Afromontane) as well as Rio (in the Atlantic tropical forest), are situated in or near world hotspots classified as Biosphere reserves. These urban parks seem like very significant laboratories for testing the capacity of a society – in an emerging economy specifically – to cohabit sustainably with a rich biodiversity of global importance, via different modes of governance and public awareness.

What emerges from this are two types of protected natural areas under the influence of urban dynamics. On the one hand

we have the old “fortress conservation-type” sanctuary park model, in poor shape, as illustrated by the Sanjay Gandhi National Park. On the other, we have a second type of park which could be referred to as an “emerging park”, with a dynamic similar to that of emerging metropolises where contrasts and contradictions are also the driving force behind the rise of a new city model. This type of park is that which carries the image of the city, with a double iconic role, i.e. becoming a showcase of conservation on a national and international scale, and being a model of urban biodiversity management. As such, this involves a double dynamic: integrating the park into the metropolis and identifying the latter in terms of the former. The experience of the Table Mountain National Park, in Cape Town, is a typical ideal which the Park of Tijuca in Rio uses as a model. As such, the park is used as an urban logo when competing with other metropolises to appear as “sustainable world city”, even if this aspect of things was not openly discussed during the conference. The National Park of Nairobi is still not sure which type it falls under.

However, we find a model transfer difficulty in the example of the Hoerikwaggo Trail in Cape Town, which inspired the establishment of the Transcarioca, a path which is hoping to connect Eastern and Western Rio through UPAs. In this regard, a major difference has been highlighted between the two parks: Table Mountain is surrounded mainly by well-off suburbs while in Rio, the Park of Tijuca is surrounded by 102 favelas. This creates serious urban tension issues (although such issues actually also exist in Cape Town). The issue of hiker safety appears nonetheless secondary next to that concerning the penetration of the city's heights. This action can be interpreted as an attempt to appoint a managing body for these areas which are doomed to failure without the support of the residents of the suburbs concerned. In the context of emerging countries marked by strong social inequalities, protected areas also need the support of the disadvantaged populations in order to improve their management and potential as regards services rendered (maintenance of biodiversity, safety and protection among others). The problems encountered in Nairobi, Mumbai and Cape Town as well as the striking example of geopolitical context in Rio, show how difficult it is to integrate the knowledge of local populations, their relationship with nature and their needs in conservation policies. While protected areas become useful elements of the urban landscape for nature and cities at the same time, and while cities appear as fertile lands for the construction of a true “urban nature”, the major challenge remains to ensure that urban nature is really democratic, open and accessible to the entire urban population.

The difficulties encountered in the concrete application of the different categories of conservation stemming from international models, show that they can represent space and time perception monitoring instruments which differ according to culture. They also testify to integration difficulties encountered between scientific and traditional knowledge. Other challenges have also been raised: the application of the

“buffer zone” notion (how to apply in the cities regulations which comes from protected areas?), monitoring exotic species which must be better adapted to the urban context, or still the need to integrate the city and its residents into conservation policies. The protected area management plan, the urban development master plan and other documents on soil rights must be complementary, and this despite the long time it takes for cultures to evolve and for this to be reflected in laws and legislations.

To prevent protected areas from becoming islands surrounded by urban networks, the notion of green infrastructure means to link natural spaces to guarantee the protection and durability of biodiversity, ecosystemic services and the quality of urban life. Nonetheless, the experience of “conservation mosaic” or “green and blue network” requires consultation between the different levels of government responsible for the management of protected areas, as well as the integration of the civil society and its representatives. The establishment of the Mata Atlântica Campus of the Fio Cruz in Rio de Janeiro, illustrates an integration process between the city and its actors around an integral conservation unit, the State Park of Pedra Branca, through a sustainable urban project: land regularisation by local populations in consultation with the different actors, and an active participation in the Park's Advisory Committee. On the contrary, mobilising people with a view to protecting the Serra de Gandarela, an area coveted by major mining companies in the metropolitan region of Belo Horizonte in the Minas Gerais, draws attention to the extent of the conflicts of interest and the strength of the economic power faced with environmental protection constraints and its ecosystemic services. This example illustrates the need for a paradigmatic change, i.e. actually taking into account the development of goods and services associated with conservation units, as well as their true contribution to the national and global economies in a context of global climate change.

Other experiences showed how integrating local populations into the management of protected areas can contribute to improving the quality of conservation, while contributing to the quality of life of the populations concerned. The Park José Guilherme Merquior which was created in 2000 in Rio de Janeiro, integrates a “Quilombola” community (which comes from runaway slaves) recognised as a “special area of cultural interest”, a legal instrument of the city's master plan. The Park of Serra de Tiririca which was created in 1991 and managed by the Federated State of Rio, integrates a traditional community which has been present on the site for 130 years, through a “contract of environmental compromise”.

From this, it emerges that it is necessary to recognise that urban protected areas have several vocations. They must fulfil their initial functions as spaces of biodiversity conservation, through a dynamic and progressive form of management meeting various issues:

- Maintaining and increasing biodiversity;
- Preserving the ecological balance or even improving ecological quality (water, soil, air, noise, light,

- protection against fires, various pollutions etc.);
- Satisfying the cultural demand (in the human, environmental, social, cultural as well as economic sense): leisure spaces, landscaping or even subsistence production, cultural benchmarks and constructions, development of goods and services;
- Rapprochement of man and nature, function of environmental education and awareness;
- Adaptation to the consequences of climatic changes.

Confronted with so many challenges, we were reminded that there is a need to develop applied research further by associating scientific knowledge with the evolution of protected area management.

The next BiodiverCities conference will take place in Cape Town in 2014.

Interview with Estienne Rodary

Where does the UNPEC Programme come from?

This research project on the relationship between protected areas and megalopolises was initially formulated by the Gecko laboratory of the University of Nanterre, as well as the Libertas Institute which is linked to the Laboratory. A number of projects were submitted to different organisations, which led to financing the project in 2010. Then we submitted other projects, to the ANR in particular, which approved our application in 2012.

The programme's objective is to think further about the place of protected areas in cities, which currently is not the subject of many studies. The programme focuses on four cities: Cape Town, Rio de Janeiro, Mumbai and Nairobi. This objective is established in relation to a group of experts from the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) working on urban protected areas. This group which is meant to spread information, co-ordinate and research on urban conservation themes, has been very motivated by the project right from the beginning.

Which partners are involved in this programme today?

First of all, we have the scientific partners: we are currently working in South Africa with the Universities of Stellenbosch and, to a lesser extent, Cape Town. Then we are also working with the managers of various parks and cities. On the South African scale, it is mainly SanParks and the city of Cape Town. It is on the account of the programme that Cape Town residents and Table Mountain National Park members, came to the first BiodiverCities conference organised in Paris in 2010, and that the Table Mountain Park Director came to Rio de Janeiro for the second conference which ended a few months ago. Concerning the third conference which will be organised in Cape Town in 2014, we would like to see all actors becoming involved and exchanging information, and using this opportunity to meet their counterparts from other cities. In this regard, fruitful exchanges have already taken place between the Director of the Table Mountain Park and his counterpart in Rio de Janeiro, in October last year. Central to the programme is the idea that we should be active to favour

exchanges, collaboration and network development between urban operators, park operators and researchers.

What are the programme's objectives?

First of all, there is a practical facet to the programme, which aims at connecting different actors working in or on protected areas in the large cities of the South. These can be managers of urban parks or nature reserves, actual city managers, actors from the private sector or associations, or still researchers. The practical objective of the programme is to establish a working network which can link all operators on a global scale, whence the establishment of the Urban Protected Areas Network website (<http://upa-network.org>).

Then there is a scientific facet to it too, the idea being to find problems and understand the connection and rapprochement between, on the one hand, protected area management, and on the other, urban dynamics and policies in the megalopolises of the South. The UNPEC programme takes a particular interest in cities with several million residents, with significant population developments in so-called "emerging" countries, i.e. with large socioeconomic disparities in particular. Moreover, the programme works specifically on national parks, which are part of high protection categories and in which residences and permanent natural resource usage are forbidden. This forces us to think about the issue of the relation between parks and cities differently from the way we would have, if we had worked on much more flexible protected areas such as urban parks or leisure and recreation areas. As such we are confronted with two *a priori* antinomic elements: on the one hand, national parks which are highly protected and, on the other, significant urban dynamics with major economic disparities between social groups. The question is how to view these two elements as being together and no longer as opposites, and as such how to redefine what nature can be like in town.

Obviously, it is not a simple matter! National parks are most of the time structures which are managed nationally and not locally. Thus, there can be level issues between park and city managers. The international level can also come into play,

particularly with international labels such as UNESCO World Heritage Sites, as is the case for Table Mountain in Cape Town. External interventions can have specific requirements or demands concerning this type of park, which does not automatically suit local objectives, particularly town planning which is carried out at the level of towns and cities.

Moreover, the conservation world tends to reinforce protection, and therefore to limit park usage modes deemed harmful to biodiversity. Yet, there is a lot of pressure on using parks, leading to a certain managerial contradiction which is difficult to overcome. When we are in an urban context and, more specifically, in a city with several millions residents, displacing populations under the pretext that a park must be protected is out of the question. Yet conversely, from a political viewpoint, we simply cannot say that we are going to delist the parks of Table Mountain or Nairobi under the pretext that we need more space for residences or economic activities. Thus, we have no alternative but to link these two types of issues. This, in turn, leads to conciliation and co-ordination exercises between park and city, which are not found in rural areas.

What similarities or differences can be observed between the different countries under study?

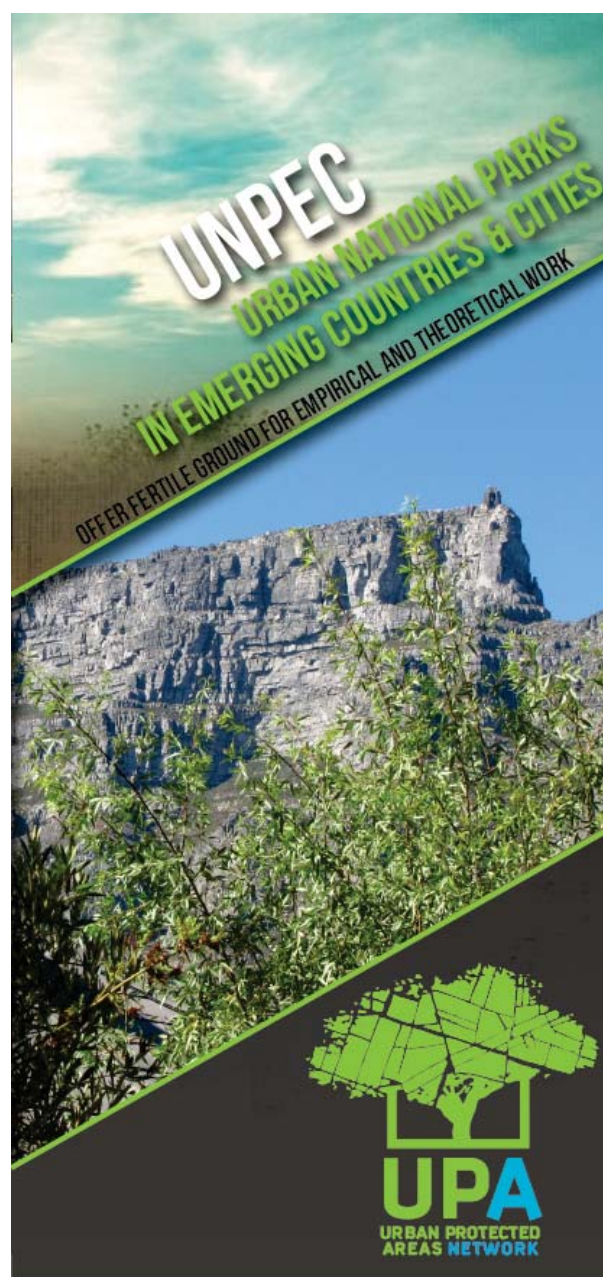
Although research for this programme is on-going, we can already observe different models. For example, Cape Town and Rio de Janeiro are slightly different from Nairobi and Mumbai, in that they have more means and resources, as well as different management and follow up capacities for their activities.

Nairobi is specific in that the northern section of the park contains a fence, due to the presence of animals which could be a potential risk for urban populations. It is different still from Mumbai, even if there are leopards in Mumbai which could also constitute a risk. There is an interesting theme which we have not yet exhausted around the issue of illicit border crossing. Depending on the political history or economy of the different countries, we see differing ways of managing this issue. In South Africa, even if the park is free of access, border crossing dynamics between the park and the city are very limited; they exist but are very controlled and, generally, the social dynamics are not critical in relation to that. On the other hand, Rio de Janeiro is more confronted with these dynamics where people settle within the park. In Mumbai, a significant population lives inside the park, from very poor to middle classes.

Configurations are different and cannot be passed off simply as a matter of monitoring capacity within parks. They also depend on social issues and a history linked to segregation, as well as symbolic or material border management.

Another important point is the issue of access to parks and the socioeconomic determinants linked to it. In Cape Town, wealthy suburbs and very few townships are found around the park. As a result, the park is mostly accessed by well-off populations, while the poorer classes of the city benefit less

from it. This raises the issue of usage mode transformation of these spaces, to ensure that parks benefit everyone, irrespective of economic or geographic origin. Despite political will, conditions evolve slowly. This is also true, to a certain extent, for Mumbai and Rio. The issue of access and utilisation of protected areas in cities, marked by important economic



disparities, is part of the themes we are working on. In Mumbai, for example, we are trying to show the extent to which, from a qualitative point of view, the presence of a park in town provoked a real estate price increase. This would in fact have a counter-productive effect insofar as access to the park is supposed to benefit the greatest number of people. This is already the case in South Africa, where it is very likely that the

presence of the park has been increasing the value of the peripheral areas. Indeed, because of the attractiveness of the living environment and the landscape, the economic impact tends to segregate even more the way space is organised on the scale of the city, rather than opening it up to very different social categories.

What consequences are expected in terms of public policies?

I think we need to remain modest as far as expectations are concerned. Within the programme or at the time of its valorisation, we would like to facilitate a dialogue between the different operators. People must be able to talk to one another and meet institutions they would never have otherwise. For example, in Paris in 2010, the manager of the park of Nairobi met for the first time a member of the city's administration who was in charge of managing protected areas. They had never talked to each other before, in Nairobi.

These networking elements between, on the one hand, various operators who actually ignore one another's existence and, on the other, these operators and various researchers who are undoubtedly less connected to the realities but who offer critical reviews, can result in fruitful comments. Our aim is to share all comments, more so than most research programmes would allow for, programmes which often consider sharing information and results for the sole purpose of their on-going research.

We need to think about new ways of integrating nature into cities, although their implementation can be complicated in terms of public policies, due to lack of time, but also due to tensed political contexts, particularly as regards petty political questions or questions concerning people who must not be neglected.

What did the Rio Conference in October 2012 mean for the programme and what was debated?

The Rio Conference, which took place half way through the programme, was a good opportunity to bring together all the different actors involved. It was also an occasion to have an overview of the dynamics at stake in Rio, including for those

who do not work directly on this city. This also revealed the limits of the exercise, in that political logics specific to Rio, came up during the conference. This was the case for the National Park of Tijuca in particular, which certain local, national or federal institutions would like to see connected to other protected areas of Rio de Janeiro, so as to make a mosaic of parks, or even a large park. Within this framework, Cape Town was used as an example. The director of the Table Mountain National Park showed what they had done in South Africa. The conference was also about comparing and presenting management models. We were able to observe the external dynamics unfolding around the parks, the political reasoning or the economic context concerning, for example, the World Cup of Football and the Olympic Games which will take place in Rio in 2014 and 2016 respectively, and which are putting a lot of pressure on the real estate sector, particularly on the *favelas* situated near the park.

The conference showed how difficult it was to link the three components of science, cities and parks. As yet we do not have any results which can only be presented at the end of the programme in 2015.

What are the next dates of the programme?

We are currently in a field work phase. Each team is conducting studies in the four cities concerned. In South Africa, a student from Stellenbosch University is finishing her master's degree, under the supervision of Steven Robins from the Department of Social Anthropology, and we have three students, two French and one Swiss, who are also going to work on programme-related issues. Several researchers will be coming to South Africa this year to carry out field work.

The next conference linked to the programme will take place in Cape Town during the first semester of 2014. The following year will be dedicated to compiling data and writing articles, i.e. finalising in a typical manner this type of research programme. Finally, during the first semester of 2015, the last programme conference will be organised in Paris. At the end of the programme, the idea will be to give feedback to operators in cities and parks, thereby justifying the existence of the programme.

The New Global History: Outlook on the First Globalisation from the South

University of the Witwatersrand / University of Cape Town
15 - 19 April 2013

Among the many challenges with which South African history is confronted, one has become increasingly pressing: the decompartmentalisation of national history, not only inside but also outside the national borders. While from the beginning of the democratic transition and even before it, it has been clear that it was urgent to propose a history taking into account those who had been forgotten from official 20th century history, another need saw the light more recently, a need which emphasises South Africa's position in what is now called the first globalisation since the 16th century. Perhaps South African history is less peculiar than we thought, and its integration into processes of greater scope and longer duration has become necessary: circulations of people and goods between Europe, Africa and Asia, global economic integration, migrations on the scale of the African continent, Atlantic history, the Indian Ocean slave trade, scientific networks between different continents etc. In many respects, South African history appears, since early modern time, as the local crystallisation of global phenomena.

However, integration should not mean rough simplifications. To apprehend such phenomena on a large scale, the new global history which can be defined as the meeting of world and cultural histories, offers new perspectives and valuable decentring. Against a "world history" which is too often unilateral, teleological, not to say Eurocentric, this approach which is always concerned with symmetry in the way sources and experiences are treated, pays attention to encounters, connections, synergies as well as discontinuities, impositions and parallel routes used or abandoned by such large-scale phenomena. Far from repeating the major divisions between Europe and the rest of the world, between history and myth, science and superstition, written and oral traditions, such a history endeavours to deconstruct the logics of power which presided over their elaboration. Because these processes of distinction have also constituted South African society since the 17th century, the history of South Africa offers the possibility of decentring them, giving them back all their complexity, discontinuities and

contingencies, and understanding the social and cultural forms of their implementation.

This event is shaped as a historiographical dialogue between new global history and new South African history. Along the way, this dialogue will try to supply some of the historical keys to understanding current North-South relations.



Cantino Planisphere, 1502

Provisional programme:

Monday 15 April, 15:00, University of the Witwatersrand
Wiser seminar: Joan-Pau Rubiès (UPF, Barcelona),
Travel Writing and the origins of the Enlightenment
Discussant: Pamila Gupta (CISA, Wits)

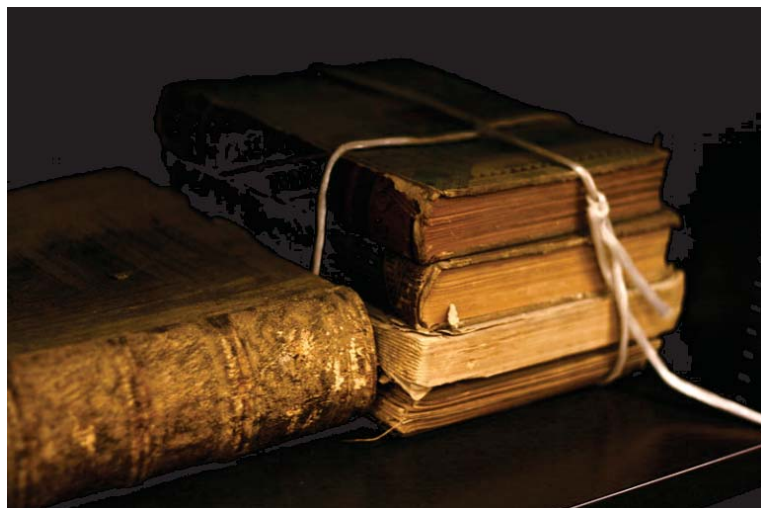
Tuesday 16 April, 14:00, University of the Witwatersrand
Public lecture: Romain Bertrand (Sciences-Po, Paris),
L'histoire à parts égales / history on equal grounds
Discussant: Peter Delius (Wits)

Wednesday 17 April, University of Cape Town, Historical Studies Department
Public Conference
New perspectives on global history
Romain Bertrand (Sciences-Po, Paris), Adrien Delmas (IFAS), Bodhisattva Kar (UCT), Ashley Millar (UCT), Silvia Sebastiani (EHESS, Paris), Joan-Pau Rubiès (UPF, Barcelona), Nigel Worden (UCT)

Friday 19 April, University of the Cape
Round table
La formation universitaire en histoire globale / Academic training in global history

Book History Seminars 2013

In 2013, IFAS and the University of Pretoria will be co-organising a series of transversal seminars on book history. At the crossroads of several disciplines (history, literature,



archive science, palaeography etc.), book history has become the spearhead of cultural history worldwide. Introduced in South Africa through the works of Isabel Hofmeyr (*The portable Bunyamn*), it has since then led to the major renewal of regional and national history problematics, as found in the recent works of Adrien Delmas (*Written Culture*), Archie Dick (*Hidden history*) and Andrew van der Vlies (*Print culture*).

The history of books and, more generally, writing in Africa, is confronted with new challenges which these seminars intend to examine: the rediscovery of a long history, much earlier than the arrival of the Europeans on the continent, as proposed by Shamil Jeppie for example, or still going beyond the simplistic oral tradition paradigm which has been applied far too much on the fields and past of Africa.

Far from wanting to structure a field characterised by diversity, the objective of the seminars is, first of all, to explore and list research avenues, whether at the level of concepts (materiality, supports, writings, genres etc.) or themes (from the issues of non-Latin alphabets in Africa to the problems of digital broadcasting). Two main lines will be favoured in this regard: trans-nationality, offering a better chance to grasp the circulation of the written word than the generally adopted national framework; and secondly the African dimension, which is largely under-documented in the current literature, and yet which offers many perspectives, including very long-term ones.

The seminars in which the universities of UCT, Wits, UJ and UP will participate, will take place once a month in turn at IFAS and UP.

Provisional Programme:

Tuesday 26 February, University of Pretoria, 14.00
David Johnson (Open University)
Publishing and Imagining the Union of South Africa in 1910

Tuesday 12 March, French Institute, 14.00
Adrien Delmas (IFAS/EHESS)
Towards a history of philology from a global perspective

Wednesday 3 April, University of Pretoria, 14.00
Peter McDonald (Oxford University)
Book History as a Discipline Today

13-17 May, University of Pretoria
Print, Publishing and Cultural Production in South Africa
Workshop University of Pretoria/Oxford Brookes University

12-14 June, Wits University
Textual Commodities in Empire
International conference

PhD Defense: Pauline Guinard and Lydie Cabane

It is with great pleasure that we would like to inform you that two former IFAS researchers, Pauline Guinard and Lydie Cabane, have successfully defended their PhD thesis.

Pauline Guinard's thesis entitled **Public Spaces through Art in Johannesburg (South Africa): When the City Makes Art and Art Makes the City** deals with public spaces in Johannesburg, the economic capital of South Africa. At the crossroads of urban and cultural geography, her thesis re-examines the concept of public spaces through the prism of art in Johannesburg, to figure out – between attempting and

resisting normalisation – which city today is at work in Johannesburg.

Lydie Cabanes' thesis entitled **Governing Disasters – Policies, Knowledge and Organisation of Disaster Management in South Africa**, focuses on the development of forms of interventions on disasters (security threats, industrial disputes, droughts, flooding etc.) by the South African State (Civil Defence then Disaster Management) since the beginning of the 20th century. Her thesis questions the forms of protection deployed by the State during the apartheid and democratic eras, and puts forward an original analysis of the South African State.

Congratulations to both.

Launching of FISH *French Institute Seminars in Humanities*

In 2013, the French Institute of South Africa is launching monthly seminars to give IFAS researchers an opportunity to present their work in Human and Social Sciences. The FISH will relay all programmes in humanities conducted at IFAS and make them available to the research community in South Africa.

January 29: Emerging Middle Class in South Africa

The first seminar will take place on the 29th of January 2013 at 14:00 at the IFAS conference room, 62 Juta Street, Braamfontein.

Elodie Escusa (Sciences-Po Bordeaux / LAM) will present a study called: *Making One's Way up the Social Ladder in Johannesburg, the Strategies of the Lower Middle Class and Social Trajectories. An Ethnographic Study of First-Time Home Owners in Protea Glen, Soweto.*

Ivor Chipkin (Public Affairs Research Institute - PARI) will give a presentation entitled: *Capitalism, City, Apartheid in the 21st Century.*

February 13: Linguistics

The next seminar will be presented on the 13th of February 2013 at 14:00 by **Pierre Aycard** (PHD Candidate - UCT) whose research focuses on *the use of Iscamtho by children in White City, Soweto.*

Thabo Ditsele (Tshwane University of Technology - TUT) will present a paper called: "Perceptions of Black South African languages: A survey of the attitudes of Setswana-speaking university students toward their first language".

Re-opening of the library

The library of IFAS-Research will be re-opening its doors to researchers wanting to consult Human and Social Science classics in both French and English. With a view to building up the library collection, IFAS-Research will be acquiring books over the years, in keeping with IFAS-Research programmes.

All researchers are more than welcome to consult the Library, here at the Institute, as of this month already.

To remain informed about upcoming seminars, send us an email to research@ifas.org.za requesting to be added on our mailing list.

Publication: The adaptive nature of Neoliberalism at the Local Scale: Fifteen Years of City Improvement Districts in Cape Town and Johannesburg

Sophie Didier, Marianne Morange, Elisabeth Peyroux
January 2013
Antipode, Vol. 45, Issue 1, pages 121–139



Antipode A Radical Journal of Geography

This is a new publication stemming from the IFAS programme on Security in Southern African Cities (2003–2006). In addition to previously published papers (see IJURR symposium in previous Lesedi), this publication focuses more on the *in situ* BID model being contested than on the circulation process per se.

By unravelling the adoption and adaptation of the North American Business Improvement District (BID) model in South African cities, this paper considers the way neoliberal principles are progressing in the post-apartheid context. Drawing on a comparative approach of BIDs in Johannesburg and Cape Town, we analyse the tensions and conflicts

surrounding their implementation and unpack the resilience of this model. As unexpected as this resilience might be in such a context, i.e. far away from the heartland of neoliberalism, we argue that this resilience is linked to the permeability of local contexts and to the plasticity of the model itself at the city and neighbourhood levels, reflecting a capacity to adapt to inherited regulatory frameworks, patterns of territorial development and embedded socio-political alliances of local terrains, as well as an ability to accommodate post-apartheid issues through the crafting of what we refer to as "local Third Ways"

<http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1467-8330.2012.00987.x/abstract>

About us...

The French Institute of South Africa was created in 1995 in Johannesburg. Dependant on the French Department of Foreign Affairs, it is responsible for the French cultural presence in South Africa and to stimulate and support French academic research on South and Southern Africa.

IFAS-Research (Umifre 25) is a joint CNRS (French National Centre for Scientific Research) - French Foreign Affairs Research Unit, and part of USR 3336 "Africa south of the Sahara". Under the authority of its scientific council, IFAS-Research takes part in the elaboration and management of research programmes in the social and human sciences, in partnership with academic institutions and research organisations.

The Institute offers an academic base for students, interns and visiting researchers, assists with the publication of research outcomes and organises colloquiums, conferences, seminars and workshops.

IFAS-Research Director

Adrien Delmas

Administrative Staff

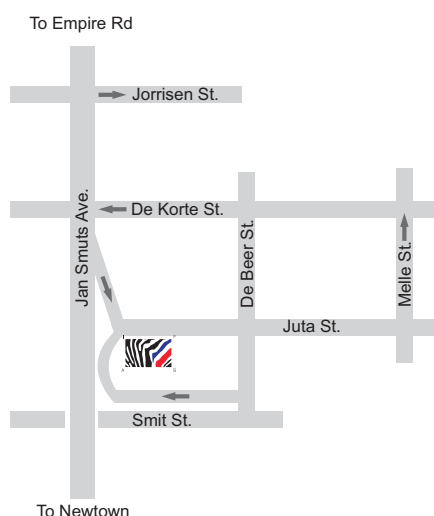
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Lesedi: Sesotho word meaning "knowledge"

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