Leveraging SFM-REDD+ Synergies Towards Sustainable Development in African Small Island Developing States

Mansha Mohee

Abbreviations

AFECONECT	Africa Forest Enterprises Connect Network
AFF	African Forest Forum
AFWC	African Forestry and Wildlife Commission
AMCEN	African Ministerial Conference on the Environment
AOSIS	Alliance of Small Island States
ART	Architecture for REDD+ Transactions
AU	African Union
BPOA	Barbados Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
COFO	FAO Committee on Forestry
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
COP	Conference of Parties of the UNFCCC
CPF	Collaborative Partnership on Forests
CSA	Climate Smart Agriculture
CSD	United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development
EAC	East African Community
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council of the United Nations
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
ECREE	ECOWAS Centre for Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FLEGT	Forest law Enforcement, Governance and Trade
FOSA	Forestry Outlook Study for Africa

M. Mohee (✉)
The Governance and Shareholder Relations Section of the Office of the Secretary General of the African Development Bank Group, Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire

A. O. Jegede (ed.), *Implementing REDD+ in Africa*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-39397-6_13

GFEP	Global Forest Expert Panels
GGSSWI	Great Green Wall for the Sahara and the Sahel Initiative
IFF	Intergovernmental Forum on Forests
IOC	Indian Ocean Commission
IORA	Indian Ocean Rim Association
IPF	Intergovernmental Panel on Forests
ITTO	International Tropical Timber Organization
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources
IUFRO	International Union of Forest Research Organizations
MRV	Monitoring, Reporting and Verification
MSI	Mauritius Strategy for the further Implementation of the BPOA
NDC	Nationally Determined Contribution
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
REC	Regional Economic Community
REDD+	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation
REFACOF	African Women's Network for Community Management of Forests
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAMOA	Small Island Developing States Accelerated Modalities of Action
SFM	Sustainable Forest Management
SIDS	Small Island Developing States
SIS	Safeguards Information System
UNCCD	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNFF	United Nations Forum on Forests
UN-REDD	United Nations Collaborative Programme on REDD

1 Introduction

Sustainable development, a prime policy goal of the new millennium, strives to reconcile economic development, environmental protection and social equity.[1] As a normative framework guiding state legal obligations to protect and promote human rights, it gives credence to third-generation rights to development, environment and

[1] See the three pillars of sustainable development: Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development: Our Common Future (Brundtland Report) (1987) UN Doc. A/42/427 (Annex), p. 46.

democracy.[2] Small Island Developing States (SIDS)[3] are recognised as a 'special case' for sustainable development, meeting intrinsic challenges in its implementation as a result of their insularity and manifold vulnerabilities to external shocks.[4] Climate change adaptation and mitigation and the sustainable management of natural resources have recurrently been identified as key priority areas for sustainable development in SIDS.[5] Particularly, the management of forests and forest resources has consistently been underscored as a component of their sustainable development, notably in furtherance of food security, agricultural productivity and social development.[6] This has been reaffirmed more recently, during the Mid-Term Review of the SAMOA Pathway, the overarching framework on the sustainable development priorities of SIDS, whereby further action was called for in the development of policies for sustainable forest management to prevent and address desertification, land degradation and drought.[7] Although the extent of forest cover varies among SIDS and is insignificant in global terms, empirical research has illustrated their

[2] See Leib (2011), pp. 109–156. On sustainable development as a norm in international law, see Barral (2012), pp. 377–400 and on the interplay of sustainable development and international human rights law, see McGoldrick (1996), pp. 796–818 and Savić (2020), pp. 319–335.

[3] SIDS are a distinct group of over 40 heterogeneous island nations across the Caribbean, Atlantic, Indian Ocean and Pacific, sharing common features, such as their small size, remoteness, narrow resource base, economic volatility, dependence on international trade and exposure to shocks, and special vulnerability to the adverse effects of climate change, demonstrated to cause significant setbacks to their socioeconomic development. There are six SIDS on the African continent, namely Cabo Verde, Comoros, Guinea-Bissau, Mauritius, Sao Tome and Principe and Seychelles.

[4] First highlighted in Chapter 17g of Agenda 21, adopted at the UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), Rio de Janeiro, 3–14 June 1992, UN Doc. A/CONF.151/26, Vol.II (Annex II). It was further reaffirmed in subsequent global instruments on the sustainable development of SIDS: see Barbados Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States (BPOA), adopted at the UN Global Conference on the Sustainable Development of SIDS, Barbados, 25 April–6 May 1994, UN Doc. A/CONF.167/9 (Annex II); Mauritius Strategy (MSI) for the Further Implementation of the BPOA, adopted by the International Meeting to Review the Implementation of the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States, Mauritius, 10–14 January 2005, UN Doc. A/CONF. 207/11; UN General Assembly Resolution 66/288 'The Future We Want', adopted at its 66th session, 11 September 2012, paras 178–180 and UN General Assembly Resolution 69/15 'Small Island Developing States Accelerated Modalities of Action (SAMOA Pathway)', Samoa, 14 November 2014.

[5] See Chapter I (Climate Change and Sea Level Rise) & Chapters IV-IX (Coastal and Marine Resources, Freshwater Resources, Land Resources, Energy Resources, Tourism Resources, Biodiversity Resources of BPOA and paras 31–46 (Climate Change); 53–58 (Oceans and Seas); 89–94 (Biodiversity) of SAMOA Pathway.

[6] See Plan of Action on Agriculture in Small Island Developing States, adopted by the 116th session of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) Council, Rome, 14–19 June 1999, Doc. CL 116/18; UN General Assembly Resolution 65/2, 'Outcome document of the High-level Review Meeting on the Implementation of the Mauritius Strategy for the Further Implementation of the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing State', adopted at its 65th session, 25 September 2010, para 19 and para 94 of SAMOA Pathway.

[7] UN General Assembly, Political Declaration of the High-Level Meeting to Review Progress Made in Addressing the Priorities of Small Island Developing States Through the Implementation of the

crucial role for soil and water conservation, coastal protection, the conservation of wildlife and biodiversity and the promotion of ecotourism.[8]

The Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation, Conservation, Sustainable Management of Forests, and Enhancement of Forest Carbon Stocks in Developing Countries (REDD+)[9] mechanism can be a valuable instrument for sustainable development in SIDS, as a nature-based solution for climate change, marrying climate change mitigation and the conservation, management and expansion of forests. Sustainable forest management (SFM) is recognised as one of five core mitigation activities under REDD+, along with reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation, and the conservation and enhancement of forest carbon stocks.[10] In addition, all of the mitigation activities under REDD+ are required to promote the sustainable management of forests.[11] Despite the prominence of SIDS in international climate change negotiations in the face of their pronounced susceptibility to climate change impacts,[12] REDD+ readiness and implementation by SIDS seem scarce, in contrast with the rest of the continent.[13] Guinea-Bissau is the only African SIDS that has engaged with REDD+. It is also a partner country in the UN-REDD programme which is intended to assist countries in

SIDS Accelerated Modalities of Action (SAMOA) Pathway, 10 October 2019, UN Doc. A/RES/74/3, para 30.

[8] See notably Wilkie et al. (2002), pp. 257–267.

[9] REDD+ was established through international negotiations under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) (1994), adopted by UN General Assembly Resolution 48/189 of 20 January 1994, 31 ILM 849. Whereas the negotiations first focused on incentives for developing countries to 'Reduce Emissions From Deforestation and Forest Degradation' (REDD), these incentives were extended to include the conservation of existing forest carbon stocks, sustainable forest management and the enhancement of forest carbon stocks. The negotiations culminated in the Warsaw Framework for REDD+ (2013) adopted by the UNFCCC COP, Warsaw, 11–13 November 2013, which provides the rules for the implementation of REDD+ by countries in 7 decisions, namely Decisions 9/CP.19; 10/CP.19; 11/CP.19; 12/CP.19; 13/CP.19; 14/CP.19 and 15/CP.19. See the Warsaw Framework for REDD+ and other key decisions in UNFCCC Secretariat 'Key decisions relevant for reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation in developing countries (Decision Booklet REDD+)' February 2016 <https://unfccc.int/files/land_use_and_climate_change/redd/application/pdf/compilation_redd_decision_booklet_v1.2.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022) and Voigt and Ferreira (2015).

[10] UNFCCC Conference of the Parties (COP) Decision 1/CP.16 'The Cancun Agreements: Outcome of the work of the Ad Hoc Working Group on Long-Term Cooperative Action under the Convention' Cancun, 29 November–10 December 2010, UN Doc. FCCC/CP/2010/7/Add.1, para 70.

[11] Appendix I of Cancun Agreements (n 10) 'Guidance and safeguards for policy approaches and positive incentives on issues relating to reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation in developing countries; and the role of conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks in developing countries', para 1(k).

[12] See Ourbak and Magnan (2018), pp. 2201–2207 and Thomas et al. (2020).

[13] Arhin and Atela (2015), pp. 43–57 and Nhamo (2011).

REDD+ readiness and implementation.[14] The latter is undertaken in stages. The readiness stage entails the development of a national strategy or action plan for implementing REDD+ and an institutional framework which includes the development of national forest monitoring systems, the establishment of national forest reference emission levels, the establishment of systems for measurement, reporting and verification (MRV) and the establishment of safeguards and grievance mechanisms.[15] In their implementation of national policies and measures, countries are required to address the direct and indirect drivers of deforestation and forest degradation as well as land tenure and forest governance, while pursuing capacity-building, technology development and transfer and results-based demonstration activities.[16] In the results-based payments phase, REDD+ activities are measured and verified each year.

SFM refers to the practice of conservation and use of forest lands and resources to meet the social, economic, ecological, cultural and spiritual needs of present and future generations.[17] SFM is inherent in the international environmental governance regime, including the 1992 UN Convention on Biological Diversity,[18] the 1994 UN Convention to Combat Desertification,[19] the 1994 UN Framework Convention on Climate Change,[20] and the Paris Agreement.[21] It is increasingly integrated in

[14]The other island state (though not a SIDS) is Madagascar. See UN-REDD partner countries, <https://www.un-redd.org/partner-countries#:~:text=The%20UN-REDD%20Programme%20currently%20supports%2065%20partner%20countries,news%20from%20our%20partners.%20Become%20a%20partner%20country> (last accessed on 20 August 2022).

[15]Cancun Agreements (n 10), para 71.

[16]Cancun Agreements (n 10), paras 72 and 73.

[17]For early references, see Non-Legally Binding Authoritative Statement of Principles for a Global Consensus on the Management, Conservation and Sustainable Development of all Types of Forests (Rio Forest Principles) (1992) adopted by the UN Conference on Environment and Development, 14 June 1992, UN Doc. A/CONF.151/26, Principle 2(b). SFM was defined by the UN in the Non-legally Binding Instrument on All Types of Forests (UN Forest Instrument) (2007), adopted by UN General Assembly Resolution 62/98 of 31 January 2008, para 4. Several other overlapping and complementary forest-related expressions are used to refer to SFM and the need for a common understanding of the concept of SFM has been highlighted, in view of enhancing forest policy coherence: UN Secretariat, Enhancing Global Forest Policy Coherence and a Common International Understanding of Sustainable Forest Management (2019) UN Doc. E/CN.18/2019/5.

[18]UN Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) (1992) adopted by the 5th session of the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee for a Convention on Biological Diversity, Nairobi, 5 June 1992, 31 ILM 818, Preamble, Articles 1 and 6.

[19]UN Convention to Combat Desertification in Those Countries Experiencing Serious Drought and/or Desertification, Particularly in Africa (UNCCD) (1994) adopted by the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee for the elaboration for an international convention to combat desertification in those countries experiencing serious drought and/or desertification, particularly in Africa, Paris, on 17 June 1994, 33 ILM 1328, Annex I, Article 8(3)(b).

[20]UNFCCC (n 9).

[21]Paris Agreement to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (2015), adopted by the 21st session of the UNFCCC Conference of Parties, Paris, 12 December 2015, UN Doc. FCCC/CP/2015/10/Add.1, Article 5.

regional and national policies and mechanisms in Africa.[22] The 2013 Revised African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources requires state parties to introduce sustainable forestry measures in the context of the prevention of land degradation, the protection, conservation and sustainable use of vegetation cover and the maintenance and enhancement of genetic diversity.[23] The 2002 Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Forestry,[24] and the 2010 SADC Forestry Strategy provide a comprehensive framework on SFM and include climate change mitigation and adaptation as a strategic programme area.[25] The 2012 Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) Convergence Plan for the Sustainable Management and Utilization of Forest Ecosystems in West Africa addresses the growing decline in forest cover and promotes SFM in view of the transboundary impact of deforestation on the environment.[26] The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) also adopted a Forest Strategy in 2009.[27] While the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) elaborated strategies for interventions in SFM in the context of agricultural productivity and lasting poverty reduction,[28] the African Union (AU) launched the first continental SFM Framework in 2020.[29] Moreover, over 90% of African countries have adopted

[22] For an overview of regional policies and initiatives, see Kojang and Larwanou (2015), pp. 92, 93–97.

[23] Revised African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (2013) adopted by the 2nd Ordinary Session of the African Union Assembly of Heads of State and Government, Maputo, 11 July 2003 <https://au.int/en/treaties/african-convention-conservation-nature-and-natural-resources-revised-version> (last accessed on 30 September 2022) Articles (IV) (3), VIII and IX. See also Erinosho (2013), pp. 378–397.

[24] SADC Protocol on Forestry (2002) adopted by the SADC Heads of State or Government, Luanda, 3 October 2002 <https://www.sadc.int/sites/default/files/2021-08/Protocol_on_Forestry_2002.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2021).

[25] SADC Forestry Strategy 2010–2020: Making Forests Work for the Economic Development of the Region (2010) <https://www.sadc.int/document/sadc-forestry-strategy-2010-2020-english> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[26] The Convergence Plan for the Sustainable Management and Utilization of Forest Ecosystems in West Africa (2012) adopted by the ECOWAS Council of Ministers in charge of forests, wildlife and the environment, Abidjan, 12 September 2013.

[27] COMESA Strategy on Forestry (2009), Forestry Strategy Validation Workshop, Victoria Falls Town, 28–29 August 2009.

[28] NEPAD Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (2003) <https://library.faraafrica.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/Comprehensive-Africa-Agriculture-Development-Programme.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022). See also Companion Document to CAADP: Integrating livestock, forestry and fisheries subsectors into the CAADP (2006) <http://pubs.iclarm.net/resource_centre/NEPAD.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[29] The Sustainable Forest Management Framework for Africa 2020–2030 (2020) launched at the 33rd Ordinary AU Summit, Addis Ababa, 21 January–10 February 2020 <https://afforum.org/publication/the-sustainable-forest-management-framework-for-africa-2020-2030/> (last accessed on 25 August 2021).

forestry-related policies establishing institutional and financial arrangements for SFM.[30]

While SFM is emphasised under REDD+ and offers best practices for securing forest adaptation,[31] interactions between the two regimes are scarce in the African context,[32] which is characterised by a dearth of policy coordination and coherence across forestry-related initiatives.[33] In fact, forest policy coherence has been eminently deplored, despite its stark potential.[34] UN Agenda 2030 has stressed the need for enhancing policy coherence for sustainable development.[35] The call for improving cooperation, coordination, coherence and synergies on forest-related issues, has been underscored within the post-2015 global development agenda.[36] This chapter seeks to explore the potential for enhanced synergies between the SFM and REDD+ frameworks towards sustainable development in SIDS in the African context, where the implementation of forestry frameworks and policies is under-researched compared with other regions.[37] Following the introduction, the second Section describes the interactions between the REDD+ and SFM frameworks and sustainable development, from a rights-based approach. It provides an analysis of the relevant global, regional and sub-regional instruments informing REDD+ and SFM and the complementarity of the frameworks with the post-2015 development agenda. The third Section provides an overview of the state of implementation of REDD+ and SFM in African SIDS drawing from country reports under the UNFF, UNFCCC and UN Agenda 2030. The fourth Section underlines opportunities and challenges for enhanced REDD+ readiness and implementation by African SIDS, particularly by using extant SFM instruments and mechanisms. In Section five the chapter concludes with perspectives on optimising REDD+ readiness and implementation by African SIDS for catalysing their sustainable development.

[30] MacDicken et al. (2015), p. 50. For a database of relevant national legislation and policies, see Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) *TimberLex* <https://timberlex.apps.fao.org/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[31] Long (2013), pp. 384–408.

[32] Interlinkages between forest regimes are typically limited by domestic political processes, institutional silos and vested interests of powerful actors. See Tegegne (2016).

[33] The Sustainable Forest Management Framework for Africa 2020–2030 (n 29), pp. 6–7.

[34] See notably Tegegne et al. (2018), pp. 4841–4863; Broekhoven and Marieke (2014); Gupta et al. (2016), pp. 355–374.

[35] The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (UN Agenda 2030), adopted by the UN General Assembly Resolution 70/1. 21 October 2015, SDG Target 17.14.

[36] UN Economic and Social Council Resolution 2015/33 'International Arrangement on Forests Beyond 2015' (5 October 2015), para 1(d)(iii). See also UN Secretariat, 'Enhancing Global Forest Policy Coherence and a Common International Understanding of Sustainable Forest Management' (2019) UN Doc. E/CN.18/2019/5.

[37] See studies of REDD+ in SIDS in other regions: notably Mohan (2022), p. 102844; Brimacombe (2020); Carodenuto et al. (2022), pp. 220–241.

2 REDD+, SFM and Sustainable Development

As natural resource management frameworks, REDD+ and SFM are critical enablers of sustainable development.[38] SFM is identified under sustainable development goal (SDG) 15 of the UN Agenda 2030 'Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss' and is captured under Target 15.2.[39] Likewise, Aspiration 1 of AU Agenda 2063, 'A Prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development' highlights the need for forests to be conserved and their resources used sustainably towards ending food insecurity and hunger, the conservation of biodiversity and climate adaptation.[40] In addition, the contributions of SFM to the achievement of SDG 1 'To end poverty in all its forms, everywhere' are also increasingly well-established, notably in supporting livelihoods and well-being.[41] In a similar vein, REDD+ is intrinsically linked to the global development agenda,[42] notably to SDG 13 'Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts'.[43] AU Agenda 2063 also underscores the reduction of deforestation by 90% as a target under climate resilience.[44] Furthermore, significantly, both frameworks have increasingly emphasised rights-based approaches.[45] In guiding states in identifying and implementing REDD+ actions, the Cancun Agreements stress that 'parties should, in all climate change related actions, fully respect human rights'.[46] Human rights considerations are reflected under the Rio Forest Principles which require the integration of the rights of Indigenous Peoples, local communities and women in the development, planning and implementation of national policies on SFM.[47] This section further examines the linkages between REDD+ and SFM, and sustainable development, from a rights-based perspective. It outlines the governance frameworks underlying REDD+ and SFM at the global, regional and SIDS levels, before exploring areas of convergence with sustainable development.

[38] See notably Bastos Lima et al. (2017), pp. 589–606; Milbank et al. (2018), pp. 589–611; Janetschek et al. (2020), pp. 430–442; Baumgartner (2019), pp. 152–162. For an overview of the interactions of the SDGs with forests, see Katila et al. (2019).

[39] UN Agenda 2030 (n 35), paras 6.1–6.6.

[40] African Union Commission (AUC) 'African Union Agenda 2063: A Shared Strategic Framework for Inclusive Growth and Sustainable Development' (AU Agenda 2063) Addis Ababa, September 2015, pp. 35 and 70.

[41] The Preamble of the UN Forest Instrument (n 17), highlights that 'sustainable forest management contributes significantly to sustainable development and poverty eradication'. See also Miller et al. (2020).

[42] Bastos Lima et al. (2017).

[43] UN Agenda 2030 (n 35), paras 13.1–13.3.

[44] AU Agenda 2063 (n 40), p. 148.

[45] See Savaresi (2013), pp. 5–13.

[46] Cancun Agreements (n 10), para 8.

[47] Rio Forest Principles (n 17), Principles 2, 3 and 5.

2.1 Institutional Interlinkages

As SFM cuts across the mitigation activities under REDD+, the two regimes are guided by interrelated and overlapping norms, albeit they derive from distinct and separate instruments and mechanisms.

2.1.1 Global Initiatives

Since the emergence of multilateral policy dialogue on the conservation and the sustainable management of forests at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio in 1992, a number of entities were established to facilitate cooperation on forest-related issues.[48] The ad hoc Intergovernmental Panel on Forests (IPF) and Intergovernmental Forum on Forests (IFF) set up under the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD),[49] charted the first comprehensive proposals on SFM.[50] The United Nations Forum on Forests (UNFF), created in 2000 as a permanent subsidiary body of the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations (ECOSOC), is mandated to promote the implementation of SFM.[51] The Collaborative Partnership on Forests (CPF), a voluntary inter-agency collective of international organisations, formed in 2001, supports the work of the UNFF and its member countries by enhancing cooperation and coordination in forest issues.[52]

The UN Forest Instrument, the foremost international instrument on SFM, was adopted in 2007.[53] Reaffirming the Rio Forest Principles adopted at the Rio Conference in 1992, it centres on four global objectives, including reversing the loss of forest cover worldwide through SFM, enhancing forest-based economic, social and environmental benefits, increasing the area of protected forests worldwide and sustainably managed forests as well as the proportion of forest products from sustainably managed forests, and reversing the decline in official development assistance for SFM.[54] It identifies seven thematic elements, as indicators for SFM,

[48] For an overview of the international policy framework on forestry, see Sotirov et al. (2020), pp. 7010–7035. For a historical account of global instruments, see McDermott (2007).

[49] UN Economic and Social Council Decision 1995/226 'Establishment of an open-ended ad hoc intergovernmental panel on forests of the Commission on Sustainable Development' (1 June 1995) and Resolution 1997/65 'Establishment of an ad hoc open-ended Intergovernmental Forum on Forests' (25 July 1997).

[50] 'Report of the Ad Hoc Intergovernmental Panel on Forests on its fourth session', endorsed by the UN Economic and Social Council (19 February 1997) UN Doc. E/CN.17/IPF/1997/L.1 and 'Report on the fourth session of the Intergovernmental Forum on Forests', endorsed by the United Nations Economic and Social Council (28 July 2000) Resolution 2000/35.

[51] UN Economic and Social Council Resolution 2000/35 (n 50).

[52] Ibid.

[53] UN Forest Instrument (n 17).

[54] Ibid., para 5.

namely the extent of forest resources, forest biological diversity, forest health and vitality, productive functions of forest resources, protective functions of forest resources, socio-economic functions of forests and legal, policy and institutional framework.[55] The global architecture on SFM, including the key functions of its main organs have been reaffirmed, and their links to the SDGs reinforced in 2015.[56] In this vein, the UNFF developed the UN Strategic Plan for Forests 2030 in 2017, which includes a target to increase forest area by 3% worldwide by 2030 as well as six voluntary Global Forest Goals and 26 associated targets.[57] Member countries are required to monitor and assess progress towards the UN Forest Instrument and the UN Strategic Plan for Forests and submit national reports on a voluntary basis to the UNFF.[58]

Besides the international arrangements on forests, various programmes assist countries in SFM policy implementation. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) Forestry Programme, guided by the FAO Committee on Forestry (COFO), focuses on SFM as one of its priority areas.[59] The International Tropical Timber Organization (ITTO), an intergovernmental organisation promoting SFM and sustainable tropical timber industries and trade, assists member countries in tropical forestry policy implementation.[60] The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) also runs programmes relating to SFM, including the Financing Sustainable Land Use for People and the Planet Programme which seeks to scale up and direct private finance to sustainable land use including SFM.[61] The Global Forest Expert Panels (GFEP) Programme of the International Union of Forest Research Organizations (IUFRO) supports international policy processes and informed decision-making at the regional and global level through independent scientific assessments of key forest-related issues of high concern, including global assessments, follow-up studies and regional activities.[62] The World Resources Institute (WRI) Forest Programme is focused on partnerships and research to

[55] Ibid., para 6(b).

[56] International Arrangement on Forests Beyond 2015 (n 36).

[57] UN Economic and Social Council Resolution 2017/4 'United Nations Strategic Plan for Forests 2017–2030 and quadrennial programme of work of the United Nations Forum on Forests for the period 2017–2020' (20 April 2017).

[58] UN Forest Instrument (n 17), paras 8–9.

[59] See 'Moving Forward: Selected Achievements of the FAO Forestry Programme in 2018–2019' (FAO 2020) <http://www.fao.org/policy-support/tools-and-publications/resources-details/en/c/1314680/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[60] ITTO Focus Areas <https://www.itto.int/focus_areas/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[61] UNEP 'Financing Sustainable Land Use for People and Planet' Programme <https://wedocs.unep.org/bitstream/handle/20.500.11822/31216/FSLU.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[62] Global Forest Expert Panels (GFEP) Programme <https://www.iufro.org/science/gfep/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

advance SFM, and includes the Global Forest Watch initiative, a global forest monitoring tool.[63]

The Warsaw Framework for REDD+ provides the institutional framework for REDD+ implementation under the UNFCCC.[64] REDD+ is also recognised as an integral part of the Paris Agreement.[65] State parties to REDD+ are required to report on relevant activities through biennial update reports to the UNFCCC, and national forest levels through the REDD+ Web Platform, which also hosts information submitted by relevant non-governmental organisations and stakeholders.[66] They are also required to submit social safeguards in their Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) under the Paris Agreement or through the REDD+ Web Platform. The United Nations Collaborative Programme on REDD+ (UN-REDD) led by UNEP, FAO and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) supports country-level REDD+ processes, including the participation of all relevant stakeholders as well as national REDD+ readiness efforts.[67] The Forest Carbon Partnership Facility (FCPF), a global partnership of governments, businesses and civil society organisations, supports REDD+ efforts in developing countries.[68] Other initiatives such as the Green Climate Fund (GCF),[69] the Forest Peoples Programme[70] and the Architecture for REDD+ Transactions (ART)[71] also support REDD+ readiness and implementation in countries.

Multiple interlinkages can be drawn from the global institutional arrangements on REDD+ and SFM. Notably the measuring, reporting and verification (MRV) functions under REDD+ contribute to enhanced access to forest-related data and information as highlighted in the UN Forest Instrument.[72] Biodiversity is a thematic element of SFM and a Cancun safeguard under REDD+. Similarly, the reduction of forest degradation and rehabilitation, activities under REDD+, are central to the SFM thematic element of forest health and vitality.[73] Furthermore, economic development, which is an SFM thematic element, is also a critical aspect of REDD+, as a financial mechanism rewarding efforts to reduce emissions from deforestation and to

[63] Global Forest Watch <https://globalforestwatch.org/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[64] Warsaw Framework (n 9).

[65] Paris Agreement (n 21), Article 5.

[66] The Platform was mandated in UNFCCC COP Decision 2/CP.13 'Reducing Emissions from Deforestation in Developing Countries: Approaches to Stimulate Action', para 10.

[67] See UN-REDD Programme <https://www.un-redd.org/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[68] About the Forest Carbon Partnership Facility <https://www.forestcarbonpartnership.org/about> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[69] About the Green Climate Fund <https://www.greenclimate.fund/about> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[70] About the Forest Peoples Programme <https://www.forestpeoples.org/en/about> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[71] About the Architecture for REDD+ Transactions <https://www.artredd.org> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[72] UN Forest Instrument (n 17), para 7(o).

[73] Cancun Agreements (n 10).

conserve forests. Likewise, both regimes call for the respect of the rights of Indigenous Peoples and members of local communities as well as traditional knowledge and use. They also both lay emphasis on transparency, public participation and capacity transfer from developed to developing countries.

2.1.2 Regional Initiatives

The institutional frameworks supporting SFM in Africa span the African Union, the Regional Economic Communities (RECs) and civil society organisations. The African Union's Specialized Technical Committee (STC) on Agriculture, Rural Development, Water and Environment (ARDWE) provides the overall policy direction on forest-related issues on the continent.[74] The African Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN), set up in 1985 to promote advocacy for environmental protection in Africa and formulating common positions in international negotiations, has highlighted forest issues since its first session.[75] The SADC Regional Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT) Programme, coordinated by the SADC Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources (FANR) Directorate, is mandated to address forest law enforcement and governance as well as legal harvesting and trade in forest products in the region.[76] In addition, the FAO African Forestry and Wildlife Commission (AFWC), established in 1959, provides a policy and technical forum for countries within the continent to discuss and address forest issues.[77] It meets every two years. In the past, the AFWC endorsed the seminal Forestry Outlook Study for Africa (FOSA), a programme to study the future of forestry in Africa from 1998 to 2020.[78]

A myriad of civil society organisations and regional networks support SFM policy development and implementation in the continent. The African Forest Forum (AFF) is the leading stakeholder platform for African forestry issues and SFM.[79] The Africa Forest Enterprises Connect Network (AFECONECT) is a knowledge network committed to the development of locally controlled forest enterprises for livelihood improvement in Africa.[80] The Global Forest and Trade Network (GFTN) project, Forest & Trade Networks for Legal and Sustainable Forest

[74] AU Specialized Technical Committees <https://au.int/en/stc#> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[75] AMCEN Resolution adopted by the Conference at its First Session, Doc. UNEP/AEC 1/2 (Annex I).

[76] SADC Forestry Programmes <https://www.sadc.int/pillars/forests> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[77] AFWC <https://www.fao.org/policy-support/mechanisms/mechanisms-details/en/c/417074/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[78] FOSA Process Information Note <http://www.fao.org/3/X6640E/X6640E03.htm> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[79] About AFF <https://afforum.org/about/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[80] Forest Connect https://www.iied.org/forest-connect (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

Management in Africa and Asia, promotes the conservation and sustainable management of tropical forests by assisting developing countries to improve forest governance.[81] The African Women's Network for Community Management of Forests (REFACOF), established in 2010, is involved in sustainable forest resource management in Africa.[82] The African Community Forestry Network, launched in 2015, brings together community-led organisations working in agroforestry and forestry across Africa.[83]

Similarly, REDD+ is supported through a wide range of initiatives. The NEPAD Climate Smart Agriculture (CSA) Programme supports progress towards the 2014 Africa Climate Smart Agriculture Vision 25X25.[84] The Africa CSA Alliance Forum, established in 2015, provides the platform for cooperation towards the attainment of the goals of Vision 25x25. The ECOWAS Centre for Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency (ECREE) runs a Programme of REDD+ activities, assisting countries in REDD+ readiness.[85] The Great Green Wall for the Sahara and the Sahel Initiative (GGWSSI) launched in 2008 by the UNCCD and the AU also addresses land degradation and desertification in the Sahel and Sahara, in view of boosting food security and supporting local communities to adapt to climate change.[86] The Africa NDC Hub, established by the Climate Change and Green Growth Department of the African Development Bank, provides an opportunity for stakeholder engagement on climate action policies and supports African countries in mobilising finance to support sustainable development priorities.[87]

Regional initiatives have highlighted the connectedness between SFM and REDD+. The AU SFM Framework underlines the role of SFM in climate change mitigation while also identifying REDD+ as an opportunity to increase resources and action for SFM.[88] The SADC Forestry Strategy also highlights the role of SFM in climate regulation and calls upon the creation of regional mechanisms to enable

[81] The Global Forest and Trade Network <https://www.wwf.org.la/projects/gftn/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[82] The African Women's Network for Community Management of Forests <https://www.wocan.org/partner/refacof/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[83] The African Community Forestry Network <https://www.wocan.org/partner/refacof/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[84] NEPAD, Africa CSA Vision 25x25: Africa's Strategic Approach for Food Security and Nutrition in the Face of Climate Change (2014) <https://www.nepad.org/publication/africa-csa-vision-25x25-africas-strategic-approach-food-security-and-nutrition> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[85] ECOWAS Centre for Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency, ECOWAS Sustainable Biomass Actions: REDD+ Mechanism <http://www.ecreee.org/project/reddplus> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[86] The Great Green Wall <https://www.greatgreenwall.org/about-great-green-wall> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[87] Africa NDC Hub <https://www.afdb.org/en/topics-and-sectors/initiatives-partnerships/africa-ndc-hub> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[88] The Sustainable Forest Management Framework for Africa (n 29), Part IV.

protection, sustainable management and restoration of forests, toward climate resilience and mitigation.[89]

2.1.3 SIDS Initiatives

There is no specialised SIDS organ dedicated to forestry and forest-related issues. The International Conferences on SIDS are the primary SIDS forum for discussion on SFM and climate-related forestry issues. In this respect, the Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS), the coalition of island states representing the interests of SIDS in international climate change negotiations and sustainable development processes, is involved in the implementation of the SAMOA Pathway.[90] Biodiversity and the sustainable management of marine and coastal areas as well as climate adaptation are strategic areas of the Indian Ocean Commission (IOC), an intergovernmental organisation regrouping Comoros, Madagascar, Mauritius, Reunion and Seychelles.[91] The Indian Ocean Rim Association (IORA), an international organisation consisting of 23 member countries bordering the Indian Ocean, runs the IORA Sustainable Development Program (ISDP), focused on strengthening regional cooperation on sustainable development issues.[92] In addition, civil society organisations aimed at the promotion of environmental conservation and climate action such as Eco-Sud and EPCO in Mauritius, Nature Seychelles in Seychelles and BioGuinea Foundation in Guinea Bissau also support SFM and REDD+.

Frameworks on the sustainable development of SIDS have underlined the interlinkages between the objectives of SFM and REDD+. The SAMOA Pathway underlines the need for enhancing coherence of the issues related to SIDS in UN processes, at national, regional and global levels.[93]

2.2 Synergies with Sustainable Development

Sustainable development rests at the intersection of the rights to development, environment and participation.[94] While linkages between the SFM and REDD+ paradigms and the rights to development and environment are more palpable, their

[89] SADC Forestry Strategy (n 25), Strategic Area 4.

[90] About the Alliance of Small Island States <https://www.aosis.org/about/chair-of-aosis/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[91] About the Indian Ocean Commission <https://www.commissionoceanindien.org/presentation-coi/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[92] About the IORA Sustainable Development Program <https://www.iora.int/en/flagship-projects/the-iora-sustainable-development-program-isdp> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[93] SAMOA Pathway (n 4), para 120.

[94] Leib (2011).

correlation with democratic tenets is reflected in the concepts of inclusive participation, accountability and transparency embedded in the frameworks.

2.2.1 Right to Development

The right to development[95] is defined as 'an inalienable human right by virtue of which every human person and all peoples are entitled to participate in, contribute to, and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development, in which all human rights and fundamental freedoms can be fully realized'.[96] Article 22 of the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (African Charter) recognises the right to development as follows:

1. All peoples shall have the right to their economic, social and cultural development with due regard to their freedom and identity and in the equal enjoyment of the common heritage of mankind.
2. States shall have the duty, individually or collectively, to ensure the exercise of the right to development.[97]

It was more recently recognised that the implementation of the right to development should be guided by international frameworks on climate change, financing for development and sustainable development.[98] The substantive content and standards of the right to development draw from a number of international human rights law instruments,[99] establishing the principles for the promotion of higher standards of living, conditions of economic and social progress, development, and peace and stability. Both the SFM and REDD+ frameworks have salient links to the right to development. SFM is geared to the promotion of sustainable patterns of production and consumption of forest resources, poverty reduction, rural livelihoods and food security.[100] A key component of Africa's agricultural sector, it is underscored in various regional development strategies, including the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development

[95] For an introduction to the right to development, see Sengupta (2002), pp. 837–889 and Arts and Tamo (2016), pp. 221–249.

[96] The Declaration on the Right to Development (1986) adopted by the UN General Assembly Resolution 41/128 of 4 December 1986, UN Doc. A/Res/41/128 Annex.

[97] African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (1982) adopted by the 18th Assembly of the OAU Heads of State and Government, Nairobi, 27 June 1981, OAU Doc. CAB/LEG/67/3 rev. 5, Article 22.

[98] UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Development 'Guidelines and Recommendations on the Practical Implementation of the Right to Development' presented to the Human Rights Council at its 42nd session, September 2019, UN Doc. A/HRC/42/38, para 7.

[99] For an overview, see 'International standards on the right to development' <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Development/Pages/InternationalStandards.aspx> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[100] See Rio Forest Principles (n 17), para 7.

Programme (CAADP) Pillar 1 Framework on Sustainable Land and Water Management,[101] and the African Development Bank 'Feed Africa' Strategy.[102] REDD+ urges actions to address the drivers of deforestation and reduce human pressure on forests.[103] The right to development also infers the right of peoples' to self-determination, including full sovereignty over all their natural wealth and resources. The elaboration of REDD+ national strategies is required to address forest tenure issues, forest governance, gender considerations and ensure the full participation of Indigenous Peoples and local communities.[104] Along with tenure reform, some countries have defined carbon rights in national policies and provided for the enhancement of transparency and accountability in the distribution of benefits.[105] Secure ownership and long-term property rights are considered prerequisites for SFM.[106]

2.2.2 Right to Environment

The links between human rights and the environment are increasingly well established, with environmental rights being incorporated into regional treaties, constitutions and soft law.[107] Article 24 of the African Charter, enshrines the right to a satisfactory environment as follows:

> All peoples shall have the right to a general satisfactory environment favorable to their development.[108]

The substantive elements of the right to a clean, healthy and sustainable environment span from clean air and water, adequate sanitation, healthy and sustainably produced food, non-toxic environments in which to live, work, study and play,

[101] See NEPAD 'The CAADP Pillar 1 Framework for Sustainable Land and Water Management' (September 2009) <https://www.nepad.org/publication/sustainable-land-and-water-management-caadp-pillar-i-framework> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[102] AfDB 'Feed Africa: Strategy for Agricultural Transformation in Africa 2016–2025' (May 2016) <https://www.tralac.org/documents/resources/africa/1750-afdb-feed-africa-strategy-for-agricultural-transformation-in-africa-2016-2025/file.html> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[103] Cancun Agreements (n 10), para 72.

[104] Ibid.

[105] Bradley and Fortuna (2021), p. 5.

[106] Rio Forest Principles (n 17), para 5(a) and the Sustainable Forest Management Framework for Africa 2020–2030 (n 29), p. 9.

[107] See Report of the Special Rapporteur on the Issue of Human Rights Obligations Relating to the Enjoyment of a Safe, Clean, Healthy and Sustainable Environment (19 July 2018) UN Doc. A/73/188; Framework Principles on Human Rights and the Environment (24 January 2018) UN Doc. A/HRC/37/59 (Annex) and Shelton (2010), pp. 89–120.

[108] African Charter (n 97), Article 24.

healthy biodiversity and ecosystems to a safe climate.[109] As a climate mitigation mechanism, REDD+ is closely linked to the promotion of environmental rights. The implementation of REDD+ is also required to address environmental safeguards. SFM also plays a key role in the enjoyment of the right to environment as a result of its implications for the climate, biological diversity, sustainable food production and livelihoods.

2.2.3 Right to Participation

The right to participation and its derivative rights have been increasingly defined and reinforced in international human rights law.[110] The African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance requires that states 'promote democracy, the principle of the rule of law and human rights'.[111] Notably, amongst other relevant duties, it recognises the promotion of good governance, including transparency and accountability[112] as well as citizen participation in the development process.[113] REDD+ and SFM both place special emphasis on the participation of forest communities and marginalised groups in decision-making and their implementation. REDD+ requires states to address forest governance issues, gender considerations and social safeguards,[114] which include transparent and effective governance structures, respect for indigenous rights and knowledge and the full and effective participation of all stakeholders, particularly indigenous and local communities, when developing and implementing national strategies.[115] States are also required to periodically report on these safeguards through the development of national Safeguards Information Systems (SIS).[116] SFM also requires the provision of opportunities for participation of women, indigenous communities, non-governmental organisations and forest dwellers,[117] and the recognition and knowledge of indigenous knowledge and capacity.[118]

[109] Report of the Special Rapporteur on the Issue of Human Rights Obligations Relating to the Enjoyment of a Safe, Clean, Healthy and Sustainable Environment (15 July 2019) UN Doc. A/74/161 and Rajamani (2010), pp. 391–429.

[110] Steiner (2008), pp. 445–476.

[111] The African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance, adopted by the 8th Ordinary Session of the AU Assembly of Heads of State and Government, Addis Ababa, 30 January 2007, Article 4.

[112] Ibid, Article 12.

[113] Ibid., Article 30.

[114] See notably Duchelle and Jagger (2014).

[115] Cancun Agreements (n 10), Appendix I.

[116] Ibid.

[117] Rio Forest Principles (n 17), paras 2(d) and 5(b).

[118] Ibid., para 12(d).

3 SFM and REDD+ Implementation in African SIDS

Drawing upon national country reports to the UNFF, the NDCs to the UNFCCC, the Voluntary National Reviews (VNRs) on the implementation of UN Agenda 2030 and reports on mitigation activities under REDD+, this section reviews SFM and REDD+ implementation in African SIDS.

3.1 Cabo Verde

About 11% of Cabo Verde's land area is currently forested.[119] Cabo Verde was the first African country to ratify the UN Convention to Combat Desertification,[120] which calls for the sustainable management of forests.[121] It ratified the UN Convention on Biological Diversity[122] and the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change[123] in 1995. Forest cover on the island has increased by 10% in the last 30 years as a result of afforestation and reforestation measures.[124] Forest products constitute an important part of local economies, with an estimated 268,000 tonnes of fuelwood produced per year.[125] Forests are also recognised to contribute significantly to climate adaptation, notably the protection of soil and regeneration of water.[126] Cabo Verde introduced forest legislation in 1998 which regulates forestry activity within the country.[127] It has been strongly committed to enhancing climate resilience and capacities in adaptation, an important part of its sustainable development strategy 'Cabo Verde Ambition 2030'.[128] From 2014 to 2021, the Ministry of

[119] The World Bank Data, 'Forest area (% of land area) – Cabo Verde' <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/AG.LND.FRST.ZS?locations=CV> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[120] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-10&chapter=27&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[121] United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (n 19).

[122] United Nations Convention on Biological Diversity (n 18). See United Nations Treaty Collection https://treaties.un.org/pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=XXVII-8&chapter=27 (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[123] UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (n 9). See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetailsIII.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-7&chapter=27&Temp=mtdsg3&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[124] Cabo Verde, Voluntary National Review on the Implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2021) <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/282392021_VNR_Report_Cabo_Verde.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[125] Cabo Verde, Update to the First Nationally Determined Contribution (2021) <https://unfccc.int/documents/497420> (last accessed 30 September 2022), p. 30.

[126] Ibid.

[127] Law No. 48/V/98 regulating forest activity <https://www.fao.org/faolex/results/details/en/c/LEX-FAOC013213/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[128] Cabo Verde Update to the First Nationally Determined Contributions (n 125), p. 159.

Agriculture and Environment and FAO ran the 'Building Adaptive Capacity and Resilience of the Forestry Sector in Cabo Verde', aimed at the development of a gender responsive, climate resilient and sustainable forest management strategic plan, capacity building of national stakeholders and the promotion of policy dialogue. In its last NDC, it has underlined enduring challenges in data gathering on forestry emissions and removals.[129] Whereas it has not yet introduced climate-related forest policies, Cabo Verde set broad targets for 2030, including to further pursue afforestation and reforestation measures, to formulate forest management plans and forest fire prevention plans and enhance the collection and management of data in the land sector including forest, current forest, wetlands and soil inventory from 2012.[130] It has also committed to improve access to and sharing of data and methodologies, integrate forest, wetlands and soil information into municipal development plans and capacity building in forestry, conservationism and entrepreneurship in the sustainably and locally sourced products business.[131] It is worth noting that Cabo Verde has not submitted a report to UNFF.

3.2 Comoros

Comoros has one of the highest rates of deforestation in the world, as a result of growing population pressure, dependence on agriculture and forest fires.[132] From 2001 to 2021, it lost 4.3% of tree cover, equivalent to 2.67 Mt of CO2 emissions.[133] This has led to the extinction of plant species, endangered fauna and flora and land degradation.[134] Currently, around 18% of its land area is forested.[135] Comoros ratified the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change[136] and the UN

[129] Ibid., p. 46.

[130] Ibid., p. 30.

[131] Cabo Verde Update to the First Nationally Determined Contributions (n 125), p. 30.

[132] FAO 'Comoros and FAO: Partnering for Sustainable Agricultural Development and Food and Nutrition Security' <http://www.fao.org/3/ax422e/AX422E.pdf> (last accessed on 25 August 2021).

[133] Global Forest Watch – Comoros <https://www.globalforestwatch.org/dashboards/country/COM/>.

[134] Union des Comores 'Rapport National Volontaire de l'Union des Comores au Forum Politique de Haut Niveau sur le Développement Durable' (2020) <https://www.arabdevelopmentportal.com/sites/default/files/publication/comoros_report.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022), p. 87.

[135] The World Bank Data, 'Forest area (% of land area) – Comoros' <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/AG.LND.FRST.ZS?locations=KM> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[136] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetailsIII.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-7&chapter=27&Temp=mtdsg3&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

Convention on Biological Diversity[137] in 1994, and the UN Convention to Combat Desertification in 1998.[138] Forest legislation introduced in 1988 provided the legal framework for reforestation and forest management.[139] Its 1995 Framework Law on the Environment regulates activities related to the sustainable management and conservation of land biodiversity.[140] The 2012 Law on Forest Management governs forest management activities.[141] Forestry has been identified as one of the most vulnerable sectors to the adverse effects of climate change in Comoros, alongside agriculture, fisheries, water resources and health, in its last NDC.[142] The state has undertaken various reforestation programmes.[143] It has committed to conduct further afforestation and reforestation measures and establish protected areas of forest domain.[144] The management of forests and the strengthening of capacity in climate change adaptation for food security is part of the 2018–2021 FAO Country Programming Framework for Comoros.[145] Comoros submitted a national report to the 11th session of the UNFF.[146]

3.3 Guinea Bissau

Guinea Bissau is host to rich tropical forests, extending over 70% of its land area.[147] Forestry represents one of the three key sectors of the economy, alongside agriculture and fisheries, altogether constituting 44% of GDP for most of the last two

[137] See United Nations Treaty Collection https://treaties.un.org/pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=XXVII-8&chapter=27 (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[138] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-10&chapter=27&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[139] Law No. 88-006/PR of 1988.

[140] Law No. 94-018/AF of 1995.

[141] Law No. 12-001/AU of 2012.

[142] Union des Comores, 'Contribution Déterminée au Niveau National (CDN actualisée)' (2020) <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetailsIII.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-7&chapter=27&Temp=mtdsg3&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022), p. 9.

[143] Union des Comores 'Rapport National Volontaire' (n 134), p. 86.

[144] Ibid.

[145] FAO 'Comoros and FAO' <https://www.fao.org/3/ax422e/ax422e.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[146] Union des Comores, 'Rapport National Volontaire à la Onzième Session du Forum des Nations Unies sur les Forêts' (2014) <https://www.un.org/esa/forests/wp-content/uploads/bsk-pdf-manager/158_COMORES.PDF> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[147] The World Bank Data, 'Forest area (% of land area) – Guinea Bissau' <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/AG.LND.FRST.ZS?locations=GW> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

decades.[148] Deforestation is driven by the increase in demand for timber, biomass needs and the illegal logging of hardwoods, leading Guinea Bissau to become a net CO2 emitter from a carbon sink, since 2013.[149] It ratified the UN Convention on Biological Diversity,[150] the UN Convention to Combat Desertification[151] and the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change[152] in 1995. It introduced forest legislation in 1991[153] which was repealed and superseded by a new forest law in 2011[154] which promotes SFM, and also included a five-year moratorium to ban the felling and export of timber. Its national forest policy has been revised in 2015 to integrate the SDGs. Guinea Bissau however has a fairly comprehensive institutional and financial framework on SFM, which includes a national forestry plan, national plan on agricultural investment and the national investment plan in forestry. It highlights institutional issues, conflicts between national actors and the dearth of public funding as challenges to the implementation of SFM policies.[155] Furthermore, it stresses the need to better integrate climate change in forest management plans. In its last NDC, it highlighted the need for strengthening enforcement, monitoring, inspection, and regulatory measures as well as the creation of incentives for SFM.[156] It committed to develop a national forest land restoration and reforestation programme, establish a new forestry policy which would enhance socioeconomic balance and account for the needs of communities and conduct a nationwide forest inventory.[157] Guinea Bissau has engaged with REDD+. It established a Working

[148] Republic of Guinea-Bissau, Updated Nationally Determined Contribution in the Framework of the Paris Climate Agreement (2021) <https://www.undp.org/guinea-bissau/publications/updated-nationally-determined-contribution-framework-paris-climate-agreement> (last accessed on 30 September 2022), p. 9.

[149] Ibid, p. 10.

[150] See United Nations Treaty Collection https://treaties.un.org/pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=XXVII-8&chapter=27 (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[151] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-10&chapter=27&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[152] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetailsIII.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-7&chapter=27&Temp=mtdsg3&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[153] Decree-Law No. 4-A/91 approving the Forestry Act <https://www.fao.org/faolex/results/details/en/c/LEX-FAOC016708/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[154] Decree-Law No. 5/2011 approving the New Forestry Law <https://www.fao.org/faolex/results/details/en/c/LEX-FAOC118220> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[155] Guinea Bissau 'Rapport National De Guinée-Bissau : Progrès Réalisés dans la Mise en Oeuvre de l'UNSPF 2017-2030 Forum des Nations Unies sur les Forêts (UNFF)' (2019) <https://www.un.org/esa/forests/wp-content/uploads/2019/12/Guinea-Bissau.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[156] Republic of Guinea-Bissau 'Updated Nationally Determined Contribution' (n 148), p. 12.

[157] Ibid, p. 19.

Group on REDD+, tasked with running REDD+ readiness activities which developed the Roadmap of Preparation to REDD+ 2016–2020.[158] In 2019, it submitted a Forest Reference Emission Level towards results-based payments.[159] Guinea Bissau has also submitted a national report on progress on the UN Strategic Plan for Forests to the UNFF in 2019.[160]

3.4 Mauritius

Forest cover constitutes 19% of Mauritian territory.[161] Mauritius ratified the UN Convention on Biological Diversity,[162] the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change[163] in 1992, and the UN Convention to Combat Desertification[164] in 1996. Mauritius also has a fairly intricate legal and institutional framework on SFM, which includes the Forests & Reserves Act 1983,[165] the 2006 National Forest Policy,[166] the 2016 Strategic Plan for Food crops, Livestock and Forestry Sector (2016–2020),[167] and the 2017 National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan 2017–2025.[168] It has underlined implementation challenges as a result of insufficient financial resources, inadequate capacity building on SFM and climate change, fragmented institutional and legal arrangements and the lack of protection of private forest lands in forest

[158] Republic of Guinea Bissau 'Proposed Forest Reference Emission Level for the National System of Protected Areas of Guinea Bissau' (2019) <https://redd.unfccc.int/files/2019_submission_frel_guinea-bissau.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022), p. 7.

[159] Ibid.

[160] Guinea Bissau 'Rapport National De Guinée-Bissau : Progrès réalisés dans la mise en œuvre de l'UNSPF 2017–2030' (n 155).

[161] The World Bank Data, 'Forest area (% of land area) – Mauritius' <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/AG.LND.FRST.ZS?locations=MU> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[162] See United Nations Treaty Collection https://treaties.un.org/pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=XXVII-8&chapter=27 (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[163] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetailsIII.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-7&chapter=27&Temp=mtdsg3&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[164] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-10&chapter=27&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[165] The Forest and Reserves Act 41 of 1983 <https://forestry.govmu.org/Pages/Legislation/The-Forest-and-Reserves-Act-41-of-1983.aspx> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[166] Republic of Mauritius National Forestry Policy (2006) <https://forestry.govmu.org/Documents/National%20Forestry%20Policy.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[167] Republic of Mauritius Strategic Plan for the Food Crop, Livestock and Forestry Sectors 2016–2020 (2016) <https://www.greengrowthknowledge.org/national-documents/mauritius-strategic-plan-2016-02020-food-crops-livestock-and-forestry-sectors> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[168] Republic of Mauritius National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan 2017–2025 (2017) <https://www.cbd.int/doc/world/mu/mu-nbsap-v2-en.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

legislation. In this view, it is undertaking wide-ranging institutional reforms, supported by FAO.[169] It has also benefitted from the SADC Project for Forest Conservation and Sustainable Management of Forest Resources in Southern African Development Community, which aims at improving national policies and programmes on forest information systems, forest fire management and participatory forest management.[170] Mauritius introduced climate legislation in 2021 which provides for mitigation in the forestry sector.[171] In its last NDC, it highlighted efforts to integrate climate adaptation in forestry[172] and pursue reforestation efforts through the National Tree Planting Campaign.[173] It has committed to promoting agroforestry development sites.[174] Mauritius submitted a national report to UNFF-11.[175]

3.5 Sao Tome and Principe

Sao Tome and Principe is home to one of the most diverse forest ecosystems globally. Most of its forests have been transformed into shade plantations and agro-forestry systems for coffee and cocoa production and to meet growing food demand.[176] It ratified the UN Convention to Combat Desertification[177] in 1998, and the UN Convention on Biological Diversity[178] and the UN Framework Convention

[169] FAO TCP/MAR/3602 'Project support to Forest Code Revision (2016–2018) for Institutional & Legal Reform of the Forestry Sector'.

[170] SADC Project for Forest Conservation and Sustainable Management of Forest Resources in Southern African Development Community <https://amis-fis.jp> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[171] The Climate Change Act 2020 (Act No. 11 of 2020) <http://www.ilo.org/dyn/natlex/natlex4.detail?p_lang=en&p_isn=111988&p_country=MUS&p_count=667> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[172] Republic of Mauritius 'Update of the Nationally Determined Contribution' (2021) <https://unfccc.int/NDCREG> (last accessed on 30 September 2022), p. 4.

[173] Republic of Mauritius 'Voluntary National Review Report' (2019) <https://sdgs.un.org/sites/default/files/documents/23462Mauritius_VNR_Report_2019.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022), p. 130.

[174] Republic of Mauritius 'Voluntary National Report to UNFF' (2019) <https://www.un.org/esa/forests/wp-content/uploads/2019/12/Mauritius.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[175] Ibid.

[176] Democratic Republic of Sao Tome and Principe 'Sixth National Diversity Report' (2019) <https://www.cbd.int/doc/nr/nr-06/st-nr-06-en.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022), p. 10.

[177] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-10&chapter=27&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[178] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetailsIII.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-7&chapter=27&Temp=mtdsg3&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

on Climate Change[179] in 1999. It introduced forest legislation in 2001.[180] The FAO Project 'Supporting Landscape and Livelihoods Resilience in Sao Tome and Principe' is geared to promote forest restoration and SFM in the country to reduce carbon emissions from deforestation and reverse forest and soil degradation.[181] Sao Tome and Principe is one of 30 participating countries in the AfDB Project 'Support to Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD+) investments in Africa', seeking to strengthen the capacity of African countries in resource mobilisation for REDD+ projects and SFM,[182] further to the Abidjan Resolution on REDD+ in Africa.[183] In its updated NDC, it commits to the development of a national programme for the sustainable management of forest and managed forest ecosystems by 2025.[184] It has also pointed to the development of a National Strategy for Forest Communication, and a National Platform of Forests.[185] Sao Tome and Principe has not submitted a national report to UNFF.

3.6 Seychelles

Over 70% of Seychelles is forested,[186] of which 50% constitute protected forests. It ratified the UN Convention on Biological Diversity[187] and the UN Framework

[179] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetailsIII.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-7&chapter=27&Temp=mtdsg3&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[180] Forestry Law No.5/2001 <https://www.fao.org/faolex/results/details/fr/c/LEX-FAOC072017/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[181] FAO Project 'Supporting Landscape and Livelihoods Resilience in Sao Tome and Principe' <https://www.fao.org/gef/projects/detail/en/c/1113261/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[182] AfDB Project 'Support to Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD+) investments in Africa' <https://www.greenclimate.fund/document/support-reducing-emissions-deforestation-and-forest-degradation-redd-investments-africa> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[183] Abidjan Resolution on REDD+ in Africa (2019) <https://archive.pfbc-cbfp.org/docs/news/Aout%202019/Resolution%20REDD+%20in%20Africa%20Ang.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[184] Sao Tome and Principe, Updated Nationally Determined Contributions (2021) <https://www4.unfccc.int/sites/ndcstaging/PublishedDocuments/Sao%20Tome%20and%20Principe%20First/Updated_NDC_STP_2021_EN_.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[185] Democratic Republic of Sao Tome and Principe 'Sixth National Diversity Report' (2019), pp. 41 and 46.

[186] The World Bank Data, 'Forest area (% of land area) – Seychelles' <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/AG.LND.FRST.ZS?locations=SC> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[187] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetailsIII.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-7&chapter=27&Temp=mtdsg3&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

Convention on Climate Change[188] in 1992 and the UN Convention to Combat Desertification[189] in 1997. In 2019, it initiated an FAO-funded project to establish a national forestry policy and legal framework, which will include SFM.[190] As part of its climate adaptation efforts, it has undertaken forest restoration work programmes under the Project 'Ecosystem Based Adaptation to Climate Change in Seychelles' in collaboration with the UNDP and the Global Environment Facility Programme Coordination Unit.[191] In its last NDC, it committed to pursue the promotion of agroforestry.[192] Seychelles has not submitted a national report to UNFF.

4 Enhancing REDD+ Readiness and Implementation across African SIDS

An inquiry into the state of REDD+ readiness and implementation across African SIDS highlights that forests and the forestry sector constitute an important part of local economies and livelihoods while also having critical environmental functions. This is eminently recognised by African SIDS in their national sustainable development agendas and consistently highlighted in their reports on progress towards sustainable development and climate action. Most African SIDS have a relatively comprehensive national legal and institutional framework on forestry, although these instruments do not currently adequately integrate climate adaptation and mitigation. This corroborates the missed opportunity highlighted in research, of tackling the twin crises of climate change and biodiversity conservation more generally across other SIDS.[193] African SIDS have mostly committed to remedy this gap in their latest NDCs. While only half of the African SIDS have submitted reports to the UNFF, these reports provide more detailed insight into the distinct challenges they face in meeting standards in SFM and REDD+ readiness and implementation. These reflect the broader challenges met by developing countries and Africa states in particular, including most importantly financial and technical shortcomings in data

[188] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetailsIII.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-7&chapter=27&Temp=mtdsg3&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[189] See United Nations Treaty Collection <https://treaties.un.org/Pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=IND&mtdsg_no=XXVII-10&chapter=27&clang=_en> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[190] Republic of Seychelles 'Voluntary National Review' (2020) <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/26382VNR_2020_Seychelles_Report.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022), p. 89.

[191] Republic of Seychelles 'Voluntary National Review' (2020).

[192] Republic of Seychelles, 'Updated Nationally Determined Contribution' (2021) <https://www4.unfccc.int/sites/ndcstaging/PublishedDocuments/Seychelles%20First/Seychelles%20-%20NDC_Jul30th%202021%20_Final.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[193] Strauß et al. (2022), pp. 216–227.

gathering and sharing as well as the development of monitoring and reporting processes coupled with a lack of policy coordination and coherence across sectors and governance frameworks.[194] This echoes key constraints identified in implementing biodiversity conservation more broadly by SIDS, including challenges in concessional financing, resource mobilisation, capacity-building and development, notably in environmental governance, scientific cooperation, technology transfer and knowledge management and conducting public awareness.[195]

Scarce reporting to the UNFF and limited reporting on SFM within other intergovernmental processes by African SIDS hint at the dearth of political impetus and interest by policymakers and other national stakeholders into forest-related issues. Insufficient political strategies for promoting monitoring and reporting typically lead to inadequate funding, lack of expertise and low data availability.[196] These processes, however, are vital for facilitating transparency and evidence-based decision-making, enhanced forest-related dialogue and communication and the inclusion and participation of a broad range of national stakeholders, including civil society.[197] In this view, political will and capacities on SFM and the climate benefits of forests should be further consolidated in African SIDS. REDD+ promotes the role of relevant organisations and stakeholders in supporting efforts, notably by addressing drivers of deforestation and forest degradation, sharing experiences, supporting capacity-building, providing technical assistance and mobilising resources. It can be noted nonetheless, from an analysis of its written submissions and statements, that at the global level, AOSIS has engaged sparingly on forests and climate-related forest issues. An inquiry into the position of AOSIS and its individual members over the span of 1995 to 2011 underlines the lack of consensus on forestry, notably REDD+.[198] In the past, AOSIS notably stressed forest conservation as a long-standing practice of SIDS, and called for more conducive incentives:

> The international community must better assist us to increase the awareness, creation and enforcement of national legislation to ensure sustainable rotational logging practices and replanting initiatives, as well as stakeholder participation, and action plans to address deforestation and sustainable forestry.

[194] Atela et al. (2016a) and Atela et al. (2016b).

[195] United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) 'Small Island Developing States: Gaps, Challenges and Constraints in Means of Implementing Biodiversity Objectives' (2022) <https://sdgs.un.org/sites/default/files/2022-02/SIDS_Biodiversity_and_Means_of_Implementation-Gap_Assessment.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022), pp. 72–78.

[196] Linser (2018a), p. 530.

[197] Linser (2018b), pp. 578–599.

[198] See Betzold et al. (2012), pp. 591–613.

> We note that the Kyoto Protocol rewards countries that re-forest and afforest after degrading their forests, but potentially penalizes countries that have encouraged conservation or sustainable forestry. We call for increased international recognition of the long-standing conservation practices of many of our member states.[199]

In 2009, it further stated that:

> Robust environmental integrity will need to be maintained if a REDD mechanism is linked to the international carbon markets.[200]

It has also highlighted the critical role of indigenous communities in furthering forestry protection in the context of efforts to combat climate change.[201]

More recently, it has been acknowledged that there is an urgent need for responsive interventions in biodiversity conservation in SIDS and a case to raise the profile of SIDS concerns in the global arena.[202] SIDS highlighted the need for a SIDS-based approach in implementation, which would help in providing better suited means of implementation to the specific vulnerabilities in SIDS, in pushing the biodiversity agenda at the national level and in supporting alignment and synergies with other global processes.[203] In this vein, stronger advocacy on SFM and an enhanced integration of forestry in climate action plans and legislation is critical for advancing a SIDS-based approach in the international arena and for enabling implementation in SIDS. AOSIS should leverage momentum in climate talks to shed more light on forest policy coherence and synergies across various sectors for achieving overall global biodiversity and sustainable development gains. In so doing, it should ensure further account of regional contexts. This would entail coordination with regional SIDS organisations such as IORA and IOC. Moreover, leveraging the potential engagement of RECs in the continent, as drivers of African integration, and central to the implementation of the New Partnership for Africa's Development and sustainable development, would contribute in harmonising SFM policy and steering REDD+ readiness and implementation.

---

[199] Statement of H.E Ambassador Collin Beck of the Solomon Islands, on behalf of the Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS), regarding Land at the 16th Meeting of the Commission on Sustainable Development, 7 May 2008, <https://sdgs.un.org/sites/default/files/statements/aosis_7may_land.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[200] Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS) Declaration on Climate Change 2009, <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/1566AOSISSummitDeclarationSept21FINAL.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[201] Submission by Belize on behalf of the Alliance of Small Island States, Calls for Submissions with Respect to the Initial Two-Year Workplan (2020–2021) of the Local Communities and Indigenous Peoples Platform of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, https://www4.unfccc.int/sites/SubmissionsStaging/Documents/202009091306%2D%2D-AOSIS%20submission%20on%20activities%207%209%20and%2010%20of%20the%20LCIPP%20initial%20two-year%20workplan%20FINAL%20(2020-09-05).pdf (last accessed on 30 September 2022).

[202] UNDESA 'Small Island Developing States: Gaps, Challenges and Constraints' (n 194), p. 73.

[203] Republic of Mauritius 'Voluntary National Report to UNFF' (n 174).

As there is also a stark shortage of empirical evidence on the experiences and challenges in the implementation of forestry and SFM frameworks by African SIDS, further research would also be vital to help to shape adapted solutions for enhancing REDD+ readiness and implementation.

5 Conclusion

This chapter sought to explore the scope for enhanced REDD+ readiness and implementation in African SIDS by leveraging its synergies with SFM. It highlighted the nexus between SFM, REDD+ and sustainable development from a rights-based approach. The SFM and REDD+ frameworks tie closely with the rights to development and environment. The requirements for participation of indigenous and local communities as well as MRV in these processes also ensure their alignment with the right to participation. The international institutional framework supporting SFM and REDD+ is intricate. A review of SFM and REDD+ implementation in African SIDS through national reports to the UNFF as well as NDCs, VNRs and mitigation activities under REDD+ reveals that whilst most African SIDS dispose of relatively comprehensive policy and institutional frameworks for SFM, which can be further leveraged toward REDD+ readiness and implementation, these should be further integrated with climate mitigation and adaptation. It suggests that the extant regional framework supporting SFM in Africa should be further leveraged for the benefit of African SIDS by enhancing partnerships with SIDS-led networks and intergovernmental organisations. It also highlights the need for further engagement by AOSIS on the linkages between SFM and REDD+ in international climate change negotiations and sustainable development processes.

References

Arhin AA, Atela J (2015) Forest carbon projects and policies in Africa. In: Leach M, Scoones I (eds) Carbon conflicts and forest landscapes in Africa, 1st edn. Routledge, London, pp 43–57

Arts K, Tamo A (2016) The right to development in international law: new momentum thirty years down the line? Neth Int Law Rev 63:221–249

Atela JO et al (2016a) Exploring the agency of Africa in climate change negotiations: the case of REDD+. Int Environ Agreements: Polit Law Econ 17:463–482

Atela JO et al (2016b) Implementing REDD+ at the national level: stakeholder engagement and policy coherences between REDD+ rules and Kenya's sectoral policies. For Policy Econ 65:37–46

Barral V (2012) Sustainable development in international law: nature and operation of an evolutive legal norm. Eur J Int Law 23(2):377–400

Bastos Lima MG et al (2017) The sustainable development goals and REDD+: assessing institutional interactions and the pursuit of synergies. Int Environ Agreements: Polit Law Econ 17: 589–606

Baumgartner RJ (2019) Sustainable development goals and the forest sector – a complex relationship. Forests 10(2):152–162
Betzold C et al (2012) AOSIS in the UNFCCC negotiations: from unity to fragmentation? Climate Policy 5(12):591–613
Bradley A, Fortuna S (2021) Collective tenure rights for REDD+ implementation and sustainable development. FAO <http://www.fao.org/3/cb3521en/cb3521en.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022)
Brimacombe AMB (2020) Climate change and human security in small island developing states: the case of Papua New Guinea and its UN-REDD/REDD+ Program. University of Prince Edward Island, Charlestown
Broekhoven G, Marieke W (eds) (2014) Linking FLEGT and REDD+ to improve forest governance. European Tropical Forest Research Network News 55
Carodenuto S et al (2022) Practice-based knowledge for REDD+ in Vanuatu. Soc Nat Resour 35(2): 220–241
Duchelle AE, Jagger P (2014) Operationalizing REDD+ safeguards: challenges and opportunities. Center for International Forestry. <https://www.cifor.org/knowledge/publication/5183/> (last accessed on 30 September 2022)
Erinosho BT (2013) The Revised African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources: prospects for a comprehensive treaty for the management of Africa's Natural Resources. Afr J Int Comp Law 21(3):378–397
Gupta et al (2016) Managing fragmentation in global environmental governance: the REDD+ partnership as bridge organization. Int Environ Agreements: Polit Law Econ 16:355–374
Janetschek H et al (2020) The 2030 Agenda and the Paris Agreement: voluntary contributions towards thematic policy coherence. Climate Policy 20(4):430–442
Katila P et al (eds) (2019) Sustainable development goals: their impacts on forests and people. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge
Kojang HO, Larwanou M (2015) Forestry-related input into relevant policies at the regional and global levels: an African perspective on climate change. Int For Rev 17(3):92–102
Leib LH (2011) Reconfiguration of the human rights system in light of sustainable development and the two-level conceptualisation of environmental rights. In: Leib LH (ed) Human rights and the environment: philosophical, theoretical and legal perspectives. Brill, the Netherlands, pp 109–156
Linser S (2018a) 25 years of criteria and indicators for sustainable forest management: why some intergovernmental C&I processes flourished while others faded. Forests 9(9):515–538
Linser S (2018b) 25 years of criteria and indicators for sustainable forest management: how intergovernmental C&I processes have made a difference. Forests 9:578–599
Long A (2013) REDD+, adaptation, and sustainable forest management: toward effective polycentric global forest governance. Trop Conserv Sci 6(3):384–408
MacDicken KG et al (2015) Global progress toward sustainable forest management. For Ecol Manag 352:47–56
McDermott CL et al (2007) International Forest Policy – the instruments, agreements and processes that shape it, Report commissioned by the Secretariat of the United Nations Forum on Forests
McGoldrick D (1996) Sustainable development and human rights: an integrated conception. Int Comp Law Q 45(4):796–818
Milbank C et al (2018) Assessing the progress of REDD+ projects towards the sustainable development goals. Forests 9(10):589–611
Miller DC et al (2020) Forests, trees and the eradication of poverty: potential and limitations. International Union of Forest Research Organizations. <https://www.iufro.org/fileadmin/material/publications/iufro-series/ws39/ws39.pdf> (last accessed on 30 September 2022)
Mohan PS (2022) National REDD+ in Caribbean SIDS to enhance NDC implementation. For Policy Econ 144:102844
Nhamo G (2011) REDD+ and the global climate policy negotiating regimes: challenges and opportunities for Africa. S Afr J Int Aff 18(3):385–406

Ourbak T, Magnan AK (2018) The Paris Agreement and climate change negotiations: small islands, big players. Reg Environ Change 18:2201–2207
Rajamani L (2010) The increasing currency and relevance of rights-based perspectives in the international negotiations on climate change. J Environ Law 22(3):391–429
Savaresi A (2013) REDD+ and human rights: addressing synergies between international regimes. Ecol Soc 18(3):5–13
Savić I (2020) Right to development and right to environment: sustainable development perspectives. In: Mauerhofer V, Rupo D, Tarquinio L (eds) Sustainability and law: general and specific aspects. Springer, Switzerland, pp 319–335
Sengupta A (2002) On the theory and practice of the right to development. Hum Rights Q 24(4): 837–889
Shelton D (2010) Developing substantive environmental rights. J Hum Rights Environ 1:89–120
Sotirov M et al (2020) International forest governance and policy: institutional architecture and pathways of influence in global sustainability. Sustainability 12(17):7010–7035
Steiner HJ (2008) Two sides of the same coin? Democracy and international human rights. Israel Law Rev 41(3):445–476
Strauß B et al (2022) Limited integration of biodiversity within climate policy: evidence from the alliance of small island states. Environ Sci Policy 128:216–227
Tegegne YT (2016) FLEGT and REDD+ synergies and impacts in the Congo Basin: lessons for global forest governance. University of Helsinki, Helsinki
Tegegne YT et al (2018) Sustainable forest management, FLEGT, and REDD+: exploring interlinkages to strengthen forest policy coherence. Sustainability 10:4841–4863
Thomas A et al (2020) Climate change and small island developing states. Annu Rev Environ Resour 45:1–27
Voigt C, Ferreira F (2015) The Warsaw Framework for REDD+: implications for national implementation and access to results-based finance. Carbon Climate Law Rev 9(2):113–129
Wilkie ML et al (2002) Forests and forestry in small island developing states. Int For Rev 4(4): 257–267

Mansha Mohee holds an LLM International Law from University College London, an LLM Human Rights and Democratisation in Africa from the Centre for Human Rights, University of Pretoria and an LLB Law with French Law (Hons) from the University of Birmingham. She is a Research consultant at the Governance and Shareholder Relations Section of the Office of the Secretary General of the African Development Bank Group. She has previous research experience from the Pan African Affairs Division of the European External Action Service and the Human Rights Unit of the Attorney General's Office in Mauritius. Her research interests include public international law, international human rights law, international development law and African regional integration.