8-2012

Exploring the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN's) National Program Development in Biodiversity Conservation: A Comparative Study of India, Pakistan, Nepal, and Bangladesh

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Abstract

This dissertation investigates IUCN’s role in global biodiversity conservation policy as well as in national program development in India, Pakistan, Nepal, and Bangladesh. It explores how nature protection priorities and approaches are promoted or addressed by IUCN, an international organization, and how environment conservation policies are created and maintained in states with different capacities of South Asia. This study is the first detailed scholarly study on the IUCN as an organization as well as on its efforts in biodiversity conservation.

This research adds to our knowledge firstly by contributing to a small but growing body of work on the sociology of international organizations. IOs, especially International Governmental Organizations (IGOs), have long been the subject of mostly political science. Secondly, it applies a fuller sociological imagination to the study of IOs by critically exploring one of the largest and most active nature conservation organizations in the world. Thirdly, it also explores how IUCN actually goes about building protectoral programs with individual member nations. Through the use of networks; institutional, stakeholder and governance theory and qualitative research methods, this research explores IUCN’s procedures to prepare both international and national biodiversity conservation related programs with specific examination of four South Asian countries [India, Pakistan, Nepal, and Bangladesh]. The research outlines how the conservation objectives have been created and enhanced through state-IO engagements. It examines national conservational actions and policies that have been co-constructed as well as the skills and approaches that have been used. This research also defines where in IUCN network conservation innovation comes from and how they produce and adapt that innovation to global and national situations. Finally, the research also shows the historical development of global institutions and IUCN’s activities with member nations in helping to define or redefine the
concept of global governance. This dissertation makes use of and hopefully adds to our understanding of organizations as well as organizational theory.

Additionally, the dissertation also explores the recent development of the green economy (GE) concepts into IUCN’s program planning today. The green economy initiative applies a people-first approach. Although the concept is relatively new, this research explores the theoretical development of a green economy and illustrates how this theory is applied in IUCN’s program planning to program implementation.

Additionally, the research results may be helpful in illuminating some of the advantages and drawbacks of international membership organizations themselves, which may be helpful in future organizational policy formation and implementation efforts. Findings from this research will be useful hopefully to IUCN itself. The outcomes of this research will also be beneficial for global collaboration, networking, and for the identification of common concerns among the many environmental and conservational organizations at the international and national levels. In this broader sense the research outcomes might be beneficial to constituencies of the global North as well as global South because of the nature and coverage of IUCN and its role in conservation policy formation. This effort may serve as a model for additional research on international organizations.
Exploring the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN’s) National Program Development in Biodiversity Conservation: A Comparative Study of India, Pakistan, Nepal, and Bangladesh

by

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August 2012
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all I would like to thank my advisor, Professor Steven R. Brechin, who brought me to Syracuse University, even though I was very late in the admission process. I will always remember my first day, May 23, 2005, when I met him in person for the first time, having read about his academic works and his interviews. The next day, he asked me to meet some key personnel, i.e. Professor Andrew London, Marjorie DeVault, Christine L. Himes (Sociology Department) and Mr. David Smith and Peter Englott (Graduate School). He asked me if I had knowledge of hats and colors; when I affirmatively replied, he asked me to use it accordingly. Throughout my time at the University and along my academic trajectory, I have followed that “guru mantra”. Professor Brechin has not only acted as an advisor, but as my “guru” as it is practiced in the Indian subcontinent as a philosophy of life. He has been my guardian economically, socially, culturally, and obviously academically. Any esteem I hold in academia is entirely credited to him.

Secondly, Peter Englott, in our first meeting on May 23, 2005, mentioned that “where there is a wish there is a way.” This was so meaningful at that time that it gave me new way of thinking. Peter works in the administration, and has been supportive throughout my time here. This credit also goes to Dr. Patricia Burak, Director of Syracuse’s Slutzker Center for International Services, as well as Mark Lichtenstein. I must also thank William Katz (from Chicago, who at 93 years old came to Syracuse to hand over his guardianship of me to Professor Brechin), Edward Tedaschi (Boston), Reverend William Turpie (Boston) and Dr. Jan Carey (Australia), Dr. Samuel H. Sage (Atlantic States Legal Foundation, Syracuse).

Thirdly, Professor Marjorie DeVault, who always encouraged me through all difficulties. I likewise thank Peter Ibarra, Cecilia A. Green, Hans C Buechler, and Professor A.H. Peter Castro and Professor Stuart Ira Bretschneider (the chair of the defense).

Fourthly, the entire IUCN family, from the President and Director General to the field-level staff, especially among them Mr. Keith Wheeler, the chair of CEC-IUCN, who has played the role of gatekeeper. I also thank all of the 253 research participants.

Thank you to the entire faculty and staff of the Maxwell School Sociology Department, who have played important roles in my research trajectory. Thank you to Syracuse University for providing me a first-rank fellowship and scholarships. Special thanks for the Program for the Advancement of Research on Conflict and Collaboration (PARCC) award; Center for Environmental Policy and Administration (CEPA) Award; and the Chancellor’s Grant to conduct this research.

I must thank my family members, including my father (Heema Devi), my brothers and sisters, and my uncle Ramchandra Gautam, who first taught me to read and write. I would also like to mention some very important people who are not in this world physically, but who would be most happy to know that their dreams have come true. These people include my father Lok Nath Bhandari, my grandmother Laxmi Devi Bhandari, my grandparents Avikasher and Jalapa Devi Gautam (mother’s side), my father- and mother-in-law Dwarika Nath and Durga Devi Devkota, and brothers and sisters in law and nephew Dinkar Sigdel who has helped me in many ways. I also remember Narayan Paudel (Director General of the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Conservation, Government of Nepal-who passed away in a helicopter crash with 25 other people in Nepal); and Damodar Bhardwaj (my Guru -who died tragically in a house collapse in Varanasi).

Finally, thanks to my wife Prajita, my son Prameya and daughter Manaslu; daughter-in-law Rashmi, and grandson Prashmin and granddaughter Aahana who have brought joy to the family.
I dedicate this dissertation to

**Prajita Bhandari**

(My wife, my friend, co-author in creative writing, and co-founder of the Association for Protection of the Environment and Culture, which first connected me with IUCN).
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In dealing with the IUCN, one must bear in mind that there never has been, and undoubtedly never will be, any other organization even remotely resembling it. Its peculiarities, subtleties and complexities are sometimes mind-boggling (Nicholson 1990 in Holdgate 1999: ix).

Why I selected IUCN for my research

There are two particular reasons why I chose the International Union for Conservation Nature (IUCN) for my dissertation research. First, I have a long history with IUCN dating back to my early days as an NGO leader in Nepal where I worked hard on obtaining membership in that organization. Second, I want to help fill a gap in our knowledge by critically exploring one of the largest and most active nature conservation organizations in the world. There exist few, if any, scholarly investigations of this unique international membership-based organization.

I was born into a socially and politically active family in a rural hill village of Nepal. My paternal grandmother and my father wanted me to devote my career to social development. My maternal grandparents, who raised me until the age of thirteen, wanted me to be a priest, a social worker, and a poet. I did not like the idea of becoming a priest because to be a priest of first rank it is necessary to have a Master’s Degree in Sanskrit (ACHARYA) or a PhD (BIDHYA BARDHI) in Vedic mythology in Sanskrit. Though I liked Sanskrit, I did not want a career in the priesthood. In those days (and until the 1990’s) a Brahmin Priest was not allowed to engage in any business; he could remain a farmer but he could not plough the field himself. A priest’s major income was whatever was given by the people in the performance of rituals. One’s survival depends upon on the mercy and alms of others.

Nonetheless I tried to remain within the domain of social service through my work in environmental conservation. I grew up in a chaotic environment, where an unseen cultural shift
to Sanskritization (a process of adaptation of an upper caste social system) and Westernization was taking place in Nepal. I was the grandson of a Brahmin priest and the son of a social activist and at the age of nine I started to see social inequalities as a participant in a rural road building committee. From these early experiences I became involved in attempting to address poverty, social justice, inequality, mostly around environmental protection programs and campaigns in Nepal, India and Bangladesh.

In 1980, I began working with conservation movements in eastern Nepal right after high school graduation, and helped to spread those movements all over the country and into India,
particularly in Bihar and the Upper Pradesh states, where I worked specifically on wildlife conservation [Asian Elephants (*Elephas maximus*), Wild Water Buffaloes (*Bubalus arnee*), Black Buck (*Antilope cervicapra*), Blue Bull (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*), Bengal Tiger (*Panthera tigris*), Rhinoceros (*Rhinoceros unicornis*), etc.]. In 1981, I went to Varanasi, India for higher education where I completed my intermediate degree and B.A. In those days Varanasi was considered the knowledge hub of South Asia. I traveled back and forth between Nepal and India and I took my environmental conservation interests with me.

While I was in India I participated in several environmental conservation movements that involved indigenous peoples’ land rights. I traveled extensively throughout most of India and was able to meet and share my interest in conservation with several important individuals such as Sunderlal Bahuguna, a noted Garhwali environmentalist, Chipko ("to cling"), movement leader and a follower of Mahatma Gandhi's philosophy of non-violence and Satyagraha, famous environmental lawyer M.C. Mehta, Baba Amte, also known as Muralidhar Devidas Amte, the philosopher of social equity, Dr. Sálim Moizuddin Abdul Ali, the “birdman of India,” a famous Indian ornithologist and naturalist, Dr. Mongal Raj Johnson, a crocodile conservationist, and several other leaders including Nepali politicians in exile. These leaders encouraged me to continue my pursuit of environmental conservation while emotionally supporting me in numerous ways.

With this strong backing from advocates of social change I formally co-founded a non-profit organization in 1985, the Association for Protection of Environment and Culture (APEC-Nepal), with the help of a high school student, Miss Prajita Devkota. As a co-founder of APEC-Nepal, I made contact with various international and national non-profit organizations. When we started APEC-Nepal there were only two of us, but when we left it in 2002 there were 3,500
members with 75 offices in Nepal and 7 offices in other countries. Officials of IUCN Nepal, government officials of the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Conservation Nepal and university professors of Tribhuvan University, Nepal were all very supportive in establishing APEC-Nepal. In the 1980’s there was a very famous slogan “NEPAL KO DHAN HARIO BAN,” or “Green forest is the wealth of Nepal.” However, due to a governmental policy that separated local people from the green wealth, massive deforestation occurred internally by the locals and externally by commercial loggers. IUCN and the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations played instrumental roles in creating forest-friendly policies in Nepal. The news media, particularly Radio Nepal, used to explain the activities of these international organizations and their contributions. The role of IUCN and the FAO was described in a high school text book that I had read. From that moment on, I dreamed of becoming connected with IUCN. That dream became reality in 1992 when I joined IUCN as a member of its Species Survival Commission (SSC), and the Commission on Education and Communication (CEC) in 1993. I still maintain those memberships today.

Although this membership was wonderful, I wanted more: to be the leader of an NGO, someone who could rightfully use the IUCN logo. In those days to place the IUCN logo on one’s letterhead was a certification of creditability as a conservation organization. To some extent that still exists today in the NGO community of the developing world. To materialize this dream, as a chair of APEC, I formally applied for membership to IUCN in 1994, but was rejected due to opposition by some Indian and Nepali IUCN’s NGO members. I appealed the case and won in 1995 but found that I could not pay the membership dues. I sold a piece of land that I owned but it was still not sufficient to pay two years (1994-1995) worth of dues. Fortunately, my wife Prajita, who is also co-founder of APEC, sold some of her jewelry (a gold ring and
chain) which was sufficient to pay the full dues for two years that allowed for APEC to formally become a member of the IUCN (National NGO 1510).

I enjoyed my role as the head of a national NGO that was a member of IUCN. It included coordinating efforts to increase memberships in IUCN. I raised my voice to empower the NGOs in the IUCN system by participating in various national and international conferences including regular World Conservation Congresses. I co-proposed several resolutions and provided key concepts to include in the motion processes. However, due to my intention for further studies, I resigned from APEC in 2002, although my connection to IUCN still remains the same due to my personal connections and networks within IUCN system, particularly through its commissions.

My early experiences with IUCN left me with several unanswered questions, including, how did IUCN create such a valuable brand that the people like me and Prajita, who did not have much to give financially, did not hesitate to sacrifice personal wealth to join this international organization? I wanted to explore and more fully understand IUCN’s role in forming both global and country-specific conservation policies and programs, as well as how IUCN creates the international attention necessary to help protect and manage the world’s ecological systems. In answering these questions, I have used the opportunity of my past involvement as a former leader of an IUCN member NGO and a member of two commissions noted above and observation from outside as an independent researcher perspective. I found that IUCN, through its members, conducts global-, regional-, and state-level consultation with various stakeholder groups throughout the policy-framing process and program planning. And as demanded by its members, it also utilizes its secretariats and country and program offices to develop appropriate ways to implement the policy directives on the ground in developing countries around the world. In this dissertation I will explore IUCN and its efforts to promote conservation policy and
practice globally as well as specifically in four South Asia countries, Bangladesh, India, Nepal, and Pakistan.

*Academic reasons for choosing IUCN for my dissertation research*

It is well-acknowledged that IUCN has been a major global player in protecting nature and natural resources throughout the world for over sixty years. Despite its critical work, there has been no serious scholarly examination of the organization or its activities. There are relatively few examples of research that examine the intervention of international organizations (IOs) in environmental conservation policy formation, or program planning and execution at the national and transnational levels. This research tries to fill this gap in knowledge by comparing four different South Asian nation states with varying bureaucratic capabilities.

From these comparisons I seek to answer the question - how does the same IO operate in different nation-states? I attempt to answer this by investigating the role that IOs play in country-level policy and programmatic efforts, specifically in biodiversity and environmental conservation. I find that IUCN plays a unique role in fostering global, transnational, and national conservation goals by assisting, facilitating, and empowering its member states and NGOs. It does this by taking advantage of its reputation as a producer of knowledge, especially by supporting governments, NGOs, international conventions, UN organizations, companies, and communities in order to develop the most effective laws, policies, and practices for protecting biodiversity, locally to globally. IUCN not only helps to create conservation policies but it also empowers its member states by providing them technical and financial support to implement those policies through its actions that mobilize other public and private organizations, providing resources and training required, as well as monitoring the results of its interventions. It may also play an active role as a program executor. As a neutral forum for governments, NGOs, scientists,
businesses, and local communities, IUCN works collaboratively to find pragmatic solutions to conservation and developmental challenges for its member states and organizations.

IUCN has a very broad vision, “a just world that values and conserves nature,” (IUCN 2011) and a mission “to influence, encourage and assist societies throughout the world to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature and to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable” (IUCN 2011). I found that IUCN tries to attend to this mission by building alliances and by strengthening the institutional capacity of its members in order for them to conserve biological diversity and safeguard ecological life-support processes at global, regional, national, and local levels. In addition, it tries to fulfill its mission by implementing five core themes: biodiversity, climate change, sustainable energy, human well-being, and a green economy. It also oversees twelve substantive programs: business, economics, ecosystem management, law, forests, gender, global policy, marine and polar life, protected areas, science and knowledge, social policy, species and water, and world heritage respectively.

IUCN makes its impact by empowering its members. It holds the strength of scientific knowledge, fuelled by its six commissions, and its conservation projects are spread throughout more than sixty countries, whose collective membership ultimately increases the influence of IUCN. The values that this organization espouses are those of a provider of credible, trusted knowledge, of a convener and builder of partnerships for action, of a possessor of a global-to-local and local-to-global reach throughout its networks, and of a creator of standards and practices. I found that these values are created and maintained via its central assets; the member states, the network of experts that remain engaged through the commissions, and the staff within its worldwide Secretariat. IUCN also acts as a demand-based organization that maintains the socio-political environment of the setting of the localized projects as well as of the larger
institutional environment. In the country-specific cases, IUCN works collaboratively; however, it provides services or operates its programs by member governments’ invitation only. For example, IUCN has been a major institutional partner in executing conservation policies in Nepal, Pakistan, and Bangladesh for decades (IUCN 2011). In terms of policy intervention, Nepal was one of the first countries to invite IUCN to assist in environment conservation policy formation around 1960, followed by Pakistan in 1982, Bangladesh in 1989 and India in 2007. However, in the global policy formation, India has been involved with IUCN since its inception in 1948 and Indians have been serving in the highest posts and have been helping IUCN to frame it as one of the largest, network and knowledge generating organizations through the involvement of Indian experts in its six commissions. However, IUCN itself has had only nominal influence in the building of India’s conservation policy infrastructure. This research shows that instead of utilizing services, India has been providing its knowledge as a means to influence IUCN’s global objectives.

In maintaining its global position as conservation policy formation global hybrid international organization, IUCN is able to hold on to its identity. However, there are some shortfalls: It is unable to eliminate the view some developing world’s NGOs experts have that IUCN acts as western hegemonic organization; unable to show its efficiency in collaborating with the conservation organizations of global south. It is also unable to reduce the bureaucratic complexity regarding its efforts from policy framing to program planning and implementation. Additionally, it has not been able to solve its problems with finding secure funding. This research clearly indicates that IUCN’s particular institutional niche is to empower a weak nation’s sovereignty through transnational policy intervention; whereas in the case of a strong nation, its niche is mutuality, which it obtains by facilitating nation-building activities focused
around environmental conservation. Specifically, the cases of the four Asian countries will show that IUCN’s contribution to trans-boundary and national policies of sustainability depends upon the interests of the governments, which are in constant flux, given the differing views held by groups of stakeholders in that country and about their natural resources and how they are used. These demands also vary according to scale – from local to global. IUCN is global hybrid conservation International Organization (IO) in terms of its networks and membership. A hybrid IO is one that has both governments and NGOs as voting members. As of December 2011, IUCN had 1,135 members; 85 nation- states; 115 governmental agencies; 806 national NGOs; 96 international NGOs and 33 affiliate members. It maintains its organizational and professional mission through empowering its networks which are coordinated from its Secretariat headquarters in Gland, Switzerland.

Four countries scenario in terms of strength

This research fills yet another gap in knowledge in the sense that there are very few, if any, studies of international organizations that look at global conservation efforts. It is also unique in that it examines how IUCN has engaged four nations with very different bureaucratic capacity and ecological conditions; a strong democratic and bureaucratic system in India with a diverse set of ecosystems including alpine, subtropical, tropical and arid, containing the Himalayan mountains, Gangetic river plains, the southern (Deccan) plateau, and the islands of Lakshadweep, Andaman and Nicobar; a medium-strength bureaucratic system and weak democratic system in Pakistan (desert, temperate grassland, tropical seasonal forest, and mountain ecosystems); a weak bureaucratic system and transitional democratic system in Nepal (Nepal is characterized by a wide range of ecosystems because of its altitudinal variations- from 67 meters above sea level at Kechana Kalan, Jhapa in the south-eastern Terai, to 8848 meter
above sea level at Mt. Sagarmatha (Mount Everest), the highest point in the world. The main eco-regions in Nepal include High Himalaya, High Mountains, Mid-hills and Lowlands (Terai & Siwalik Hills)]; and a weak democratic and bureaucratic system with a very strong presence of NGOs and INGOs that influence national development in Bangladesh. Bangladesh’s ecological systems consists of river plains, aquatic and hill (geographically, about 80 percent of land belongs in the flood plains and about 12 percent in the hilly areas and about 8 percent terraces) (ADB 2004). My assessment of the differences among the four countries I am comparing is based on data from the Human Development Index (HDI), the World Economic Forum (2010), and the Global Competitiveness Index 2010-2011.

Research Objectives and Questions

My research is driven by two major research objectives:

1 - I investigate IUCN’s role in international and domestic policy formation and on-the-ground action programs. What does IUCN actually do? I am interested in explaining how IUCN works at both the international policy level and programmatically at the level of the nation-state. At the global level, IUCN is active in organizing and contributing to international meetings and policy discussions and preparing policy documents, historically around the importance of preserving nature through sustainable development, but more recently under a broader umbrella of the green economy. How does IUCN go about this type of work? What precisely does it do? At the national level, IUCN works with government agencies, domestic and international conservation NGOs and related stakeholders in building on-the-ground action programs and capabilities as well as constructing specific policies at the nation-state level. What are the details of these efforts and their impact on conservation efforts? What approaches, resources, skills, agreements, legislation, bureaucratic structures, and so on, does IUCN pull from its “tool kit” to
engage a nation-state in building or improving their efforts at conservation? How are these efforts negotiated and implemented with member nations? In what ways might IUCN facilitate, dominate, or even hinder the efforts of member countries? How does what it pulls from its “tool kit” differ from the varying bureaucratic capacities and ecological needs of specific nation-states? To explore these aspects, I compare IUCN’s engagement with the four critical but different nation-states chosen for this study. Finally, how does IUCN evaluate its own efforts? How does its evaluation compare to those by other organizations and interest groups? How contested are its efforts?

2- I also examine how IUCN as an IO and as a networked-based organization manages its own organizational environments. Every organization must maintain itself while attempting to fulfill some version of its stated or unstated mission and related questions of legitimacy. What are its missions? What are IUCN’s sources of resources and power as an organization? What are its weaknesses and blind spots? How does it negotiate its own environmental demands while engaging nation-states in protecting their biodiversity? How does this negotiated process shape the organization itself and the assistance it offers? Are its efforts collaborative through partnerships or are they top-down relationships? Are there conditions that determine which basic approach is pursued? This research will add to our sociological understanding of this globally important yet poorly understood international organization.

The importance of the research objectives

These objectives are important in various ways. The first set of objectives is significant because the dissertation examines theoretically and empirically one of the most complex, hybrid, membership-based international conservation organizations in the world. IUCN is an organization that creates global conservation strategies, country-specific strategies, and even the
conservation strategies of specific ecological niches. As previously mentioned, to date there have been no scholarly or critical examination of how this important international organization goes about its work at the international and at the nation-state level. This study also illustrates how international organizations create frameworks of global environmental governance, which is typically beyond the capacity of any single government. The research finds that the effectiveness of global environmental governance depends upon organizational strength built around environment conservation policy.

Hence the second objective of this research is to identify the means by which IUCN mobilizes its resources and enhances its survival as an organization. What gives this IO its legitimacy? How does it maintain its brand? It also allows us to reveal the weaknesses of such a powerful IO while examining its critical role in the construction and application of a new policy macro-paradigm, the green economy.

**Intellectual merit and the significance of the study**

This research adds to our knowledge firstly by contributing to a small but growing body of work on the sociology of international organizations. IOs, especially IGOs, have long been the subject of mostly political science. Secondly, it applies a fuller sociological imagination to the study of IOs by critically exploring one of the largest and most active nature conservation organizations in the world. Thirdly, the research explores how IUCN actually goes about building protectoral programs with individual member nations. The research explores IUCN’s procedures to prepare both international and national protectoral programs with specific examination of four South Asian countries. The research outlines how the conservation objectives have been created and enhanced through state-IO engagements. It examines national conservational actions and policies that have been co-constructed as well as the skills and
approaches that have been used. This research also defines where in the IUCN network conservation innovation comes from and how they produce and adapt that innovation to global and national situations. Finally, the research also shows the historical development of global institutions and IUCN’s activities with member nations in helping to define or redefine the concept of global governance. This dissertation makes use of and hopefully adds to our understanding of organizational theory.

Additionally, this dissertation also explores the recent development of the green economy (GE) concepts into IUCN’s program planning today. The green economy initiative applies a people-first approach (Bhandari 2011). The primary goal of the initiative is to create an environment for biodiversity conservation by creating a system for a more environmentally-friendly system of economic production. Although the concept is relatively new, this research explores the theoretical route of the green economy and illustrates how this theory is applied in IUCN’s program planning to program implementation.

The broader impact of this research

In addition to these more academic contributions noted above, the research results may be helpful in illuminating some of the advantages and drawbacks of international membership organizations themselves, which may be helpful in future organizational policy formation and implementation efforts. Hopefully, findings from this research will also be useful to IUCN itself. Some of the key personnel such as Dr. Ashok Ghosla, President of the IUCN, Mr. Keith Wheeler, Chair of CEC and a councilor of IUCN, and several others have told me that IUCN is in need of this type of research to better reflect on its operations, its policy formation, and its implementation efforts, by addressing ongoing global environmental problems. The outcomes of this research will also be beneficial for global collaboration, networking, and for the
identification of common concerns among the many environmental and conservational organizations at the international and national levels. In this broader sense the research outcomes might be beneficial to constituencies of the global North as well as the global South because of the nature and coverage of IUCN and its role in conservation policy formation. This effort may serve as a model for additional research on international organizations.

Chapter outline

This dissertation is divided into ten chapters.

Following the introductory chapter, Chapter two outlines the organization’s developmental phase and its growth trends, including IUCN’s role as a public voice in the UN system. This chapter also defines the connection between sociological knowledge and green economy initiatives and the applicability of sociological theory regarding these new initiatives.

Chapter three is my chapter on methodology. It outlines the methods and procedures used and types of data collected. Chapter four outlines the overall formal structure of IUCN, including the historical background of the foundation, the organizational composition, structure, governance, resolutions and motions procedures, role of the members, the world conservation congress, the council, the commissions, and the detailed outlines of its commission-based networks. Furthermore, the chapter examines the role and structure of the Secretariat, as well as its programs and procedures including the major thematic program areas of the IUCN: biodiversity, climate change, energy, public well-being, and the promotion of green economy. It explains how these thematic programs are articulated in actual programs. Finally, the chapter evaluates the funding mechanism – the distribution and volume of income – by analyzing the organizational balance sheet. It also explores the financial risks in its operations and lists its major donor agencies.
Chapter five reviews the members’ stake in IUCN system, regarding the value of IUCN.

Chapter six examines the strength and weaknesses of IUCN based on the opinions of stakeholders.

Chapter seven is the second part of the research, which examines the performance of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Nepal, measured by competitiveness, advancement in environmental conservation, biodiversity, quality of protected areas, public participation in conservation, and natural resources conflict management.

Chapter eight reviews IUCN’s role in conservation in the region and analyzes how IUCN is utilized among four countries of this study. This chapter identifies differences in IUCN’s position among these four countries, and finally analyzes public opinions of IUCN’s role. Chapter nine is the discussion on theory, knowledge creation, and knowledge diffusion at IUCN for national and international program development. Analysis of the scenario is conducted through the theoretical frame of green economy, which is the basis of IUCN’s program building and intervention in member states. This section reveals how the IUCN uses its knowledge, networks, and stakeholders, and how it sustains its creditability as a conservation regime and an institution builder. Chapter ten concludes the dissertation.
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

As the main theoretical perspective I have drawn heavily upon the relatively small but growing literature on the sociology of international and environmental organizations. For decades, researchers have largely failed to fully apply a sociological imagination (Mills 1959) to the study of IOs. As these types of social structures become increasingly important and as the world becomes more interconnected, the need for critical analyses becomes more urgent (Brechin 1997).

Ness and Brechin (1988) made an early attempt to bridge the gap between the study of IOs and the sociology of complex formal organizations. IOs, even well-known and influential ones involved in economic development, until recently have rarely been studied from a sociological perspective (Le Prestre 1985; Ness and Brechin 1988; Brechin 1997). Political scientists, particularly neo-realists, have historically seen IOs, especially international governmental organizations (IGOs), as relatively insignificant players in international politics and affairs, at best little more than the simple extensions of powerful states (Brechin 1997). More recently Finnemore (1993, 1996), Barnett and Finnemore (2004), and several other authors representing political science, international relations, public administration, and law have argued that IOs are actually provocative institutions of power, especially in the developing world (Friedman 2006; Agnew 2005; Slaughter 2005; Barnett and Finnemore 1999). This important realization in literature, however, does not fully utilize insights from the sociological study of complex formal organizations. Sociology views complex organizations with considerable nuance and itself has a range of theories and empirical insights of its own that can be applied
With legitimate authority, resources, and goals, complex organizations attempt to promote their professionalized missions and themselves while negotiating multiple institutional and technical environmental demands. The outcomes of these “negotiations” likely allow for greater or lesser organizational autonomy and precision, depending on actual conditions and politics at local, national and international levels. These negotiated outcomes along with particularized capabilities affect what any organization can and cannot do.

There are several publications which have studied IOs extensively and how they engage the issues of their respective domains, including a report on the activities of the World Bank in framing its global activities as “green” (Goldman 2005); a comparative study of three international organizations in their global efforts at promoting community forestry (Brechin 1997); a study of how international organizations have developed powerful bureaucracies that have affected issues of power, autonomy, dysfunction, and change (Barnett and Finnemore 2004); a study of the role UNESCO as an IGO plays in communicating norms, values and culture internationally (Finnemore 1993); an historical account of the role of IOs in globalizing the world economy (Murphy 1994); and a study of the role IOs have had in creating and maintaining international rules or regimes (Barnett and Finnemore 1999; Finnemore and Sikkink 1998, 2005). In spite of this work, there has been essentially no serious scholarly examination of the activities of the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN).

My research is based on the two basic frames of the literature. Firstly, it looks at the development of international organizations with an historical lens, whereas this research explores why IUCN was created and how the organizational objectives have been achieved. Secondly,
the entire discussion section begins with a theoretical frame and shows the theoretical linkages in framing programs within the organization.

After Fauna and Flora International, a conservation based non-governmental organization that was founded in England in 1903, the inception of IUCN was the second milestone of the global conservation movement. Most conservational efforts did not begin until after the 1950s, influencing where the contemporary conservation community stands now. IUCN is unique in that it has created numerous discourses which have been used to make the conservation policies at the local to the global scale.

International Nongovernmental Organizations (INGOs) are considered non-state actors and have significant influence on socio-economic causes, such as human services delivery in education, health, human rights, and women’s rights; economic development in agriculture, microcredit, and infrastructures; environmental conservation; and world politics (Archer 1983; Lipschutz 1992; Wapner 1996, 2002; Escobar 1995). There are many varieties of INGOs which have long histories of product- and service-delivery. Fauna and Flora International was established in 1903 in England as the world’s first international conservation organization with the purpose of conserving rare or important plant and animal species world-wide. It was instrumental in establishing much of today’s global and local conservation infrastructure, including organizations such as the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), IUCN and the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna & Flora (CITES), as well as conservation instruments such as the Red List of endangered species. These organizations are also key actors in socio-political and economic transformation. It is important to understand how international social orders are created, connected, maintained, and changed through complex formal organizations (Avant 2004, Barkin 2006) in the contemporary world.
Scholars of contemporary international organizations have advocated interdisciplinary approaches (Freiedrich Kratochwil, Michael Barnett, Martha Finnemore, Margaret Keck and Kathryn Sikkink). They argue that the role of international organizations has been expanding from the state-centric framework to more people-centric perspectives. The findings of this study assert these claims and further show that the IOs not only covers nation-states, international regimes, and security alliances but also includes the international form of organizations that focus on non-state actors. In this context the role of IOs is not solely centered in the implementation of political agendas but also focuses on social, cultural and economic power issues of people and communities. This research provides a new perspective in which IOs like IUCN not only study the subject of their program, but also create new discourses and implement them. This research provides a new window for future research on the theoretical interconnection in framing policies of global conservation.

Theoretical frameworks

There has been extensive use of sociological theories to understand the impact of environmental change on sociological well-being. There are also varieties of sociological, economic, and political approaches to environmental conservation, with an economic development approach being the most common. However, these approaches have been seen as a weak mechanism for exploring how development affects sociocultural characteristics that may in turn determine environmental behaviors - defined as actions that actively benefit or limit one's negative impacts on the environment (Brooks 2010). Recent green economy initiatives acknowledge this shortfall by applying 15 principles [equitable distribution of wealth; economic equity and fairness; intergenerational equity; precautionary approach; the right to development; internalization of externalities; international cooperation; international liability; information,
participation and accountability; sustainable consumption and production (SCP); strategic, coordinated and integrated planning to deliver sustainable development, the green economy and poverty alleviation; a just transition; redefining well-being; gender equality; and safeguarding biodiversity and preventing pollution of any part of the environment] (Stoddart et al 2011:3-5). The primary goal of the initiatives is to create an environment for biodiversity conservation by creating a more environmentally-friendly system of production. The green economy concept tries to examine them with a social lens which is not an easy step. As Michael Mascia and colleagues noted, bringing the social sciences into the mainstream of conservation policy and practice will be difficult, but the stakes are too high and the rewards too great for the conservation community to fail to try (Mascia et al. 2003). Biodiversity conservation is a human endeavor: initiated by humans, designed by humans, and intended to modify human behavior to achieve a socially desired objective—the conservation of species, habitats, and ecosystems. Embracing this fact, and recognizing its implications for nature and the use of science in conservation, represents a challenge for academics and practitioners alike. We must all be willing to leave our comfort zone behind, to speak different languages, work in different circles, and accept different beliefs. Communication, collaboration, learning, and mutual respect represent the path to success. Failure is an option we cannot afford (Mascia et al. 2003:650). The green economy initiatives capture these concerns and try to create a comfortable zone to foster common ground for the minimization of environmental impact and the maximization of public well-being.

Political Economy of Organizations

Political economy of organization is the interconnection of political and economic environment of organizational survival. This can be viewed in relation of polity and economy;
and international external influence in the organizational structures (Zald 1970; Benson 1975; Ster and Reve 1980). According to Wamsley and Zald (1973) “organizations can be analytically divided into polity and economy. Polity encompasses activities and behavior relating to the development and definition of agency purpose, including: cadre recruitment and socialization, monitoring the environment, and internal economy and harmonizing the two. Internal economy encompasses those phenomena and activities that relate to effective task accomplishment, including: division of work and responsibilities, allocation of resources, and maintenance of an incentive system” (Wamsley and Zald 1973:62). There are no organizations without structure “…organization is the structural expression of rational action” (Selznick, 1948:25). Organization makes the activities of a group of agents rational. This rationality is achieved via structuring agents’ activities: organizational structure. Every organization has formal and informal structure, organizational goals that are changeable, and the procedures to obtain those goals.

More recent discussions of organizational survival are framed within W. Richard Scott’s notion of natural system perspective of organizations (Scott 2003). This discussion places organizations in a world of other organizations where they compete for resources, customers, and ultimately survival. According to Brechin at el. (2003:163) “…organizations themselves become contested terrain as internal and external constituencies struggle over their resources and output they provide. These struggles profoundly shape the organization, its vision, mission, nature of outputs, and relationships with other organizations”. Discussion of institutional theory, see below, also touches on survival by focusing on the importance of organizations obtaining legitimacy from powerful sources of resources. Without legitimacy garnered from an organization’s institutional environment, or at least important aspects of it, it will likely not receive the resources required to survive (see Scott and Davis 2007).
By utilizing the above mentioned theoretical frame, this research examines how IUCN maintains its legitimacy and how it obtains its resources and mobilizes resources in the program planning and implementation.

**Network theory**

Networks are often viewed as the locus of innovation of knowledge and technology (Powell et al. 1996; Stuart et al. 1999; Ahuja 2000; Owen-Smith et al. 2002). They can create trust and increase tolerance in situations of unwanted consequences (Piore and Sabel 1984; Uzzi 1997), and often inspire conformity in thought and action (Galaskiewicz and Burt 1991; Mizruchi 1992). They may also shape the diffusion of certain technologies (Rodgers 1962; Coleman et al. 1966) and organizational practices (Davis 1989; Strang and Macy 2001). Furthermore, network theory can be utilized to understand formal contractual relationships among member organizations (Owen-Smith and Powell 2004) and affiliations which suggest informal inter-organizational relationships that flow through people using tools such as director interlocks and employee mobility that crosses organizational boundaries ((Beckfield 2003, 2008; Boehmer et al. 2004; Boli et al. 1999; Fleming et al. 2007).

I have attempted to employ network theory to see how the IUCN makes use of its own very elaborate networks of members, scientists, and advisors, and to uncover how important headquarters is in the network processes. I look to define the way the IUCN serves as the center of the network which includes member-states as well as like-minded organizations outside of the member-states. The networks in IUCN system are used to make strategic arrangements which affect management and policy development, both within its jurisdictions and with other organizational activities and nature-building programs in member countries. As such, these models are unique because they are constructed with inputs from conservation activists in the
field and academic scholars. The processes within the IUCN network system are unlike other conservation networks because no international organization provides power to its members to act as independently as IUCN does through its commissions.

Institutional theory

Institutional theory examines the deep and flexible aspects of social structure. This theory analyses how institutional processes affect social behavior including that in social structures, schemas, rules, norms, and routines, and how authoritative guidelines develop in society. It examines how they are created, diffused, adopted, and adapted over space and time; and how they fall into decline and disuse (Scott 1987, DiMaggio and Powell 1983, Oliver 1991). The broader subject matter of institutional theory explores social structure and order, conflict, consensus and conformity. The founding authors such as Philip Selznick (old institutional theory), Paul Dimaggio and Walter Powell (new institutional theory) are equally cited by sociologists and political scientists (Cook 1992, Lash 1971, Norton 1998, Otto 1996, Archer 1983, 1992, Hall and Taylor 1996, Barnett and Finnemore 2004). Most importantly new institutional theory has drawn more attention to political scientists (Hall and Taylor 1996); however, historical institutionalism and sociological institutionalism are also not ignored by the scholars of international organizations and international relations.

According to Powell and Dimaggio (1991), new institutionalism recognizes that institutions operate in an environment consisting of other institutions, called the institutional environment. Every organization is influenced by the broader environment through institutional isomorphism. In its environment, the main goal of organizations is to survive. In order to do so, they need to do more than succeed economically; they need to establish legitimacy within the world of institutions. He suggests four opportunities for institutional reproduction: the exercise of power;
complex interdependencies; taken-for-granted assumptions; path-dependent development processes. The new institutionalism deals with the common influence of institutions on human behavior through rules, norms, and other frameworks. Colyvas and Powell (2006) argue that the basic point of institutionalization and new institution is legitimacy, which broadly depends on the organizational structure and function guided by the nature of the organization. Organization can be examined as an action system, formal system, and concrete organization as economy in an adaptive structure, as cooperative system and as organism. Organizations can also be analyzed from the structural and functional points of view (Selznick 1948). Organizations are collectivities whose participants share a common interest in the survival of the system and who engage in collective activities, informally structured, to secure this end (Scott and Davis 2003) and they need to acquire the information and resources required to survive.

New Institutionalism allows us to analyze the organization’s social system which regularizes interactions within collaborative organizations (Meyer and Rowan 1977). This theory helps us to interpret how scientific and administrative approaches to environmental protection become accepted, practiced, and diffused internationally through constructed cultural associations and organizational niches (Mayer et al. 1997). It also helps us to understand organizational change and institutionalization over time (Phillips et al. 2004; Weyland 2008). I utilize new institutional theory, to make sense how IUCN’s efforts and practices shape conservation discourse and practices at global, regional, and national levels. Here I mostly draw upon world society perspectives (Frank, et al. 2000; Meyer et al. 1997). Through its actions, IUCN transfers basic policies and models of environmental conservation efforts throughout the world largely shaped by actors in the global north. In recent years however, innovations from the global south have
begun to provide powerful alternative models. The section on IUCN as a builder of institutions elaborates on the diffusion of its processes in global areas and selected nation-states.

This research also draws on the ‘governing the commons’ concept of institutional theory elaborated by Elinor Ostrom (1990), where she states

Any group that attempts to manage a common resource (e.g., aquifers, judicial systems, pastures) for optimal sustainable production must solve a set of problems in order to create institutions for collective action; there is some evidence that following a small set of design principles in creating these institutions can overcome these problems (c.f. Elinor Ostrom webpage).

Ostrom attempts to understand how it is possible for organizations to create and implement rules to manage common lands. In her recent work titled Understanding Institutional Diversity, Ostrom (2006) elaborates on how institutions are formed, how they operate and change, and how they influence behavior in society. Mascia et al. (2003) also asserts the application of governing the commons. They note that drawing upon the rich literature on the governance of the “commons”—forests, fisheries, wildlife and the like—the social sciences can provide valuable insights into how decision-making arrangements, resource use rights, monitoring and enforcement systems, and conflict resolution mechanisms shape the individual use of, and thus the state of, protected areas (Mascia et al. 2003:649). Similarly, Stiglitz (2006) argues that through globalization, international institutions (such as the UN, the IMF, and the World Bank) help to increase global common goods (including natural resources) and give aid to developing countries more fairly. This notion applies to IUCN case largely because it has created a number of networks, which include 90 members such as member-states, UN agencies, and other conservation organizations to pursue better conservation of our global commons. In doing so IUCN formulates collaborative efforts for the conservation of common biological resources on the global scale with a focus on the various pastoral ecosystems that Garrett Hardin (1968) had used to explain common goods. The section regarding conservation of the commons also briefly
elaborates on managing the forest and protected areas of four south Asian countries, all of which have different types of environmental governing mechanisms.

**Stakeholder theory**

With regards to stakeholder theory, I have drawn largely from Friedman and Miles (2002) and focused on the importance of understanding the conflicts and controversies that develop in different stakeholder groups. Stakeholder theory refers to a broader set of social responsibilities. Stakeholders are those individuals or groups who may affect or are affected by the organization or community (Freeman 1984 and 1994; Clarkson 1995). They include a wide variety of interests including: employees, shareholders, consumers, government and other organizations or groups such as suppliers, trade unions, business associates and even competitors (Mullins 2002). In stakeholder theory all participants count as one type of stakeholder, but not the only type to which duties are owed by the firm (Carroll 1991).

In the case of IUCN the stakeholders are states, government agencies, INGOs, NGOs, private or public enterprises, and the experts and scientists involved with the six commissions. Interestingly, IUCN is a membership-based network organization and is quite unique in that both non-government organizations and governments are voting members, although governments have two votes and NGOs have only one. Recently, IUCN has voted to allow corporations to also become voting members, but it is not implemented yet. Because of this, new tensions appear to be mounting among the other stakeholder groups. In the end though, IUCN depends on the voluntary efforts of networks of independent scientists from around the world. Much of its scientific expertise is derived from the commitment of tens of thousands of scientists volunteering in one or more of IUCN’s many commissions. These volunteers have become increasingly concerned with the growth and power of IUCN headquarters. Understanding
stakeholder dynamics is critical in understanding IUCN’s organizational efforts and outcomes. Stakeholder theory draws some parallels with Governance Theory, which is discussed next. It shifts the discourse from IUCN itself to its interaction with nation-states.

**Governance theory**

Discussions of global governance theory can be found throughout the social sciences. Global governance theory can be used in almost any example where actors from the international level engage nation-states in nation-building efforts or related shared governance issues (Kahn and Zald 1990; Rhodes 1997; Stoker 1998; Wilkinson and Appelbee 1999; Kooiman 2003). The term has been used to illustrate so many different types of engagements that it has lost any precise meaning; it has become an uncritical term (e.g. Hewson and Sinclair 1999; Douglas 1999; Murphy 2000). Governance engenders a number of perspectives and definitions. For example, James Rosenau states that governance occurs on a global scale through both the coordination of states and the activities of a vast array of rule systems that exercise authority in the pursuit of goals that function outside normal national jurisdictions (Rosenau 2000:172). Rosenau further describes the governing process that has “a pervasive tendency ... in which major shifts in the location of authority and the site of control mechanisms are under way on every continent, shifts that are as pronounced in economic and social systems as they are in political systems” (Rosenau 1995:18). He also compares global governance as a system of rule active at all levels of humanity – from the family to international organizations – in which the pursuit of goals through the exercise of control has transnational repercussions (Rosenau 1995: 13).

Similarly, Finkelstein notes that global governance is governing, without sovereign authority, relationships that transcend national frontiers. FAO (2009) states that “the term “governance” covers both: (i) the activity or process of governing; (ii) those people charged with the duty of governing; and (iii) the manner, method, and system by which a particular society is
governed.” Likewise Gerry Stoker (1998) goes on to summarize governance in five propositions: (1) governance refers to a set of institutions and actors that are drawn from, but also beyond, government; (2) governance identifies the blurring of boundaries and responsibilities for tackling social and economic issues; (3) governance identifies the power dependence involved in the relationships between institutions involved in collective action; (4) governance is about autonomous self-governing networks of actors; and (5) governance recognizes the capacity to get things done which does not rest on the power of government to command or use its authority (Stoker 1998: 18).

These definitional claims of Rosenau, Finkelstein, FAO, and Stoker are useful to examine the relationships between IUCN and wide variety of members. From the definitions above, there appears to be at least a minimum consensus on global environmental governance among scholars that global governance includes both state and the non-state actors (McKormick 1999; Kauffman 1997; Schreurs 1997; Litfin, 1993). In the social sciences, governance is also sometimes explained in Foucaultian terms (Baldwin 2003; Agrawal 2005) where government means less the political or administrative structures of the modern state, but rather the people’s internalization of rules that leads to types of self-governance, that is, governance without active external enforcement (Foucault 1991). Foucault’s work is notable; it philosophically illustrates extensive social and political structures, which is helpful when exploring how knowledge and power is utilized by a hybrid international organization at the state and transnational levels.

Through stakeholder theory I have largely discussed the power structure of IUCN, using state and non-state memberships. More specifically, with the utilization of governance theory, I examine IUCN’s bureaucracy and its influence on environmental governance in global or country-specific environmental policy formation, as well as the complexity of governance within
IUCN. IUCN’s decisions are based on consultation with stakeholders. Responsibilities are divided through its statutes, whereas power is centralized to the council and executed by the Director General and also decentralized in program execution through the regional directors. IUCN has utilized self-governing networks that were authorized by the members in IUCN’s World Congress. Further, with the utilization of governance theory, IUCN’s position of enhancing national sovereignty, (i.e. state control and autonomy, was assessed. As a neutral yet cooperative player, IUCN creates an environment for interactions among the members as well as for international organizations who can explore commonalities in addressing burning conservation issues that are trans-border in nature.

International environmental organizations have been creating environmental awareness and influencing environmental governance for decades (Charnovitz 2005; Biermann 2005; Young 2008) and the increase of environmental concern is considered as a global phenomenon (Brechin and Kempton. 1994, 1997, Dunlap and Mertig 1995, 1996, 1997, Inglehart 1995, 1996, Abramson 1997, Brechin 1999, Escobar 2001). As an international environment conservation organization, IUCN is engaged in co-production with nation-states and other international organizations to create national and global systems of environmental protection policies, actions, and structures. IUCN has at least two main functions – the development of action programs and the development of information and policy consensuses. These processes are fundamentally different, but I found IUCN as vital in constructing and monitoring international agreements. IUCN holds a powerful position in policy formation because it develops on-the-ground action programs located in individual countries which are supported by a global network of experts and related resources. Here again, IUCN utilizes its advantages in information, action, influence, and empowerment, compounded by its extensive networks.
CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

This research is based largely on qualitative methods. I extensively used both primary and secondary data sources. Secondary data sources largely consist of published scholarship on the sociology of international organizations, global governance issues, and publications on or by IUCN. Primary data collection techniques were qualitative, including in-depth interviews, personal observations, and content analysis of both primary and secondary source documents and publications such as annual reports, external evaluations, policy and plan documents. Statistical approaches are superb at identifying significant relationships among variables but often lack the depth of understanding as to why these relationships exist or matter. My goal was to better understand the connections between the activities of IUCN and the building of environmental protection programs in the four specified countries of South Asia. Having these objectives, I conducted interviews with key personnel at IUCN headquarters in Gland, Switzerland; participated in and carried out observation in their regular meetings and their routine work; and I interviewed senior governmental officials in the four countries of this study.

Similarly, I conducted interviews with those who work in IUCN’s global policy program, as well as analyzed their directives and policy documents. Further, I conducted a series of field visits to the IUCN HQ, to the regional offices, and to the country offices of India, Nepal, Bangladesh, and Pakistan. I also participated in IUCN’s World Conservation Congress held in Barcelona in 2008. While in the field I conducted a series of interviews with current staff members of IUCN, retired staff, the councilors, the head of the members’ organizations, and the heads of the commissions and commission’s members. I also used email tools to gather information when face-to-face interviews were impossible. I followed the style of interviewing
as Cockburn (2004) notes: obtain as data the participants’ definition of the situation to open up for analysis their private worlds and to understand how they structure and organize their experience (Cockburn 2004:12). Similarly Johnson (2003) states that a researcher should not focus only on what respondents say but needs to consider “what appears during the interview through gestures and what the respondent says,” to “hear more than say,” and how to “get the ball rolling.” It is a general understanding that an in-depth interview study must be continued until it gets to a “saturation point.” This claim however, is not beyond criticism. Without understanding the social system in the field “it is not easy to keep on moving” and because of changing social behavior, it is hard to state “I am done”. Chase (2003) suggests that interviewing can be fun and very interesting if we listen carefully and focus on what is going on in the real world. I believe in the learn-by-doing approach and so I moved as the situation allowed me to during the fieldwork.

As mentioned above, I have analyzed reports and documents published by the IUCN. An analysis of various documents provided a strong statement of organizational intent, process, and outcomes of external evaluation reports that dated mostly from 1990’s. I followed the Guidebook to Content Analysis (2002) by Kimberly A. Neuendorf which was very helpful and gave me more insight into the contexts of the relationships and bureaucratic behavior of IUCN in historical and contemporary contexts.

In addition to the face-to-face interviews and email interviews, I also observed IUCN’s field programs and participated in their few regular meetings with the field-level project staff of India, Pakistan, Nepal, and Bangladesh. I have extensively used documentary analysis in particular at IUCN Headquarters and its field offices in India, Pakistan, Nepal, and Bangladesh to find more about the activities of these countries in IUCN’s resolution processes. Regarding
observational approaches I followed the Chicago School’s participant observation tradition, or inductive field research. Participant observation (Goffman 1989; Bogdan 1972; Chambers 2002) provided me a way to view day-to-day operations in IUCN headquarters as well as in its country offices and program sites. However, the approach was not very useful in terms of obtaining information because of my emic knowledge about the organization and unfamiliarity with organizational procedures. The overall system of IUCN was not new for me and there were several people whom I had known for years. This likely had positive as well as negative outcomes. While there was no problem accessing information, it was difficult to get them to explain their dissatisfaction. They were friendly but suspicious.

I have never made any obstinate assumptions about ‘what is important’ but observed as the events would unfold. In the duration of more than two years from 2008 to 2009, I conducted a total of 253 interviews. 134 were face-to-face interviews with 15 in India, 15 in Nepal, 16 in Pakistan, 17 in Bangladesh, 42 in IUCN HQ, 12 in IUCN ARO, 17 in Barcelona for IUCN’s Conservation Congress, and 119 interviews by email or phone.

Figure 1 presents the interview composition.

The field visits were conducted in: Nepal and Bangladesh-in July 2008 and July 2009; Australia September 2008; Barcelona- Spain October 2008; Gland- Switzerland April 2009; India June 2009; Thailand June 2009; and Pakistan July 2009.
The unit of analysis

Organizational sociologists view organizations as they are manifested by people (Kuhn 1962; Ness and Brechin 1988; Taylor 2002; Scott 2004). Therefore, the subject matter of this study is situated within the organization itself, and with the people who are its constituents—but as a social body, not as individual actors. In this case, I have examined IUCN as the unit of analysis as well as particular units within IUCN, as a commonly used approach in organizational studies (Goldman 2005; Brechin 1997; Murphy 1994). I interviewed individuals in IUCN, but I was interviewing them as holders of offices within the organization, not as people I had known for a long while. I was interested in their thoughts and activities as representatives of the organization.

As noted briefly in the above section, the participants of this research were officials from IUCN’s offices in India, Nepal, Pakistan, and Bangladesh, and from its headquarters in Gland, Switzerland and regional office in Bangkok. The research participants include the President of IUCN, council members, Director General, Deputy Director General, Chief Scientist, and heads of the major programs. IUCN has nineteen major global programs in four major thematic areas wherein each of them houses a unit head with deputies. In addition to current officials other participants included ex-officials and scientists of the six commissions, NGOs leaders, government officials of the focal points, and more who have worked to fulfill IUCN’s goals and activities. Finally, I interviewed personnel who were working in the country offices or involved in IUCN projects at the local level in each of the four countries. I only included as research participants those individuals who have worked for IUCN, who were currently involved in IUCN as scientists, heads of member organization, or commissions members, and those who
were currently involved in IUCN projects. There were no minors among the participants nor individuals who did not have direct experience or involvement with IUCN.

**Figure 2. Gender Composion of Research Participants**

![Gender Composition of Research Participants](image)

**Figure 2.** Among the total 253 interviewees only 28.06% (=71/253*100) were women, whereas among IUCN staff 56.16% were women; followed by Ex-officials, 45.46%; Commissions Members, 28.89%; NGOs officials, 26.92%, and Other Professionals 18.51%.

**Ethical Concerns**

As a research requirement I obtained institutional review board (IRB) approval from Syracuse University’s Office of Research Integrity and Protections (ORIP). IUCN headquarters had also granted me approval to conduct this research. During fieldwork I obtained, maintained, and followed the country-specific research procedures as required. I first requested permission of the participants and made clear the objectives of the research. I have maintained the anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents. I made clear to the participants that they had the right to refuse participation whenever and for whatever reason they wished. I also maintained the confidentiality of participants’ views and approaches. No one at any level was forced to participate in the research process. Further, signed consent was obtained from every face to face participant. Group consent was also obtained in the case of focus groups. Most of
the data were audiotaped with permission and only a few were recorded through written notes for those who declined to be audiotaped. The participants who opted for audiotape recording were offered to sign the standard consent form for people who are participants in a research project as required by Syracuse University. During the entire research, I firmly maintained objectivity and neutrality and respected rights to privacy and dignity. I do not recall any discomfort by any research participants. I have informed them that the combined analyzed information may be shared with other people and will be a part of a PhD thesis and may be published in scientific journals. Data are stored in the computer and external hard drive in pseudo names as appropriate and those files are protected with multiple layers of passwords. Only the dissertation committee members and I have the access to the data system. Data has been kept safe for as long as possible for future research or use. In summary, this research had no risk to participants; all the participants were highly educated and familiar with the research protocol.

**Limitations of this study**

There are several limitations of this study both theoretically and methodologically. IUCN has developed its program on the basis of a green economy concept which is still controversial. However, to understand the most recent central discourse related to the policies, those related to the Green Economy (GE), in which IUCN programs are based it was essential to accept this concept as a given necessity for the organization and its participants. Similarly, the green economy concept itself is based on several other theories such as ecological economics, environmental resource economics, and industrial ecology, and takes into consideration social, economic, and environmental sustainability (Bhandari 2011). According to the UNEP (2010), GE highlights the use of forward thinking, like high-technology, to examine long term impacts,
as well as a futuristic vision using environmental sociology and social dynamism to examine the practicality of environmentalism. As Huberman (2011) notes, notwithstanding ideological differences, it is fair to say that the idea of a GE is open to interpretation. As a relatively young idea, it does not yet have clear boundaries (Bhandari 2011). The United Nations Environment Program, which is spearheading the Green Economy Initiative (GEI), has yet to settle on a specific definition for the term. Some consider green economics to be little more than a synonym for sustainable development. An immediate challenge for the environmental community in the coming years will be to ensure that the momentum generated by the GE idea is not compromised by lengthy theoretical deliberations on its precise meaning and scope (Huberman 2011:9). By contrast, it must be accepted that the application of new principles in the research may or may not be a limitation of this study.

Finally, IUCN is one of the most complex scientific organizations in the world. However, this is the first PhD dissertation which attempts to cover most of the programs, policies, and implementation processes on global and state levels. There were no earlier works to follow; therefore, I randomly entered into its largest event – the World Congress – for data collection. The purpose of the summit was for policy debates, but I utilized it as a doorway to information gathering. Some of the research participants were candidates for the council. All interviews were conducted prior to the council election; therefore the responses regarding the impact of IUCN were all positive. I had no opportunity to gather the opinions from those who were defeated in the election, so there is always a limitation of having received biased information.
CHAPTER IV

The IUCN – An International Organization for Environment Conservation

Introduction to the IUCN

This chapter describes IUCN as an organization. It explores its approaches, resources, skills, program planning and implementation, and bureaucratic structures. It also details how it engages nation-states in helping to build or improve their efforts in environmental protection. In addition, this chapter elaborates on how IUCN as a networked-based international organization manages both its institutional environments. Every organization must maintain itself while attempting to fulfill some version of its stated or unstated mission and related questions of legitimacy. In short, how does IUCN manage its institutional environments?

IUCN is an international organization and is the world’s largest and most important network for biodiversity conservation in the world. It was founded with the support of the newly-formed United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) at Fontainebleau, France in 1948; 18 governments, 7 international organizations, 107 national environmental conservation organizations, and a collective of individual scientists and lawyers participated. They agreed to form the union and signed a "constitutive act" named the International Union for the Protection of Nature (IUPN). A small Secretariat headed by Jean-Paul Harroy of Belgium was established in Brussels to serve the IUPN. It was the time of post-war reconstruction, decolonization, the beginning of the cold war, and also growing concern surrounding mounting world population growth on natural resources (Hesselink and Čeřovský 2008:1). In 1956, its name changed to the current IUCN and moved its location to the Lake Geneva region of Gland, Switzerland.

1“The first Director General of UNESCO, (Sir Julian Huxley), wishing to give UNESCO a more scientific base, sponsored a congress to establish a new environmental institution to help serve this purpose, which ultimately helped to establish the IUCN”
It was founded during the same period in which the international community created the United Nations and its agencies (WCPA 2008). IUCN is typically listed as an NGO in Switzerland and USA, though it occasionally describes itself as a government-organized non-governmental organization (GONGO). It has observer status at the United Nations and consultative status with the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), FAO, and UNESCO (MacDonald 2003:2). In the United States IUCN’s legal status is as an international organization, designated by Executive Order No. 12986 (January 18, 1996)\(^2\). IUCN is supported in the US by the charitable organization IUCN–US established under 501(c) 3 status. 501(c) is a provision of the United States Internal Revenue Code (26 U.S.C. § 501(c), which lists 26 types of non-profit organizations exempt from some federal income taxes.

IUCN is unique in the sense that it is not simply involved in conservation action, but in producing and circulating a definition of what constitutes conservation. It is an ideological actor. The structure of IUCN and its institutional arrangements ties it into a network of more and less resourceful organizations to which it is beholden. It relies on the member organizations/ governments for operating resources and on the less powerful for implementation capacity. Learning in this context then is a process based not so much on reflexivity, but on a limited capacity for action based on structural constraints. IUCN is an organization in which learning is delimited by a set of pragmatic constraints involving the acquisition of resources and the selective acquisition of knowledge, all of which occur at a distance from their sites of action. This distancing necessitates forms of abstraction that limit the possible outcomes of reflexivity, i.e. the changing of basic beliefs (MacDonald 2003:1-2).

IUCN has played a major role in bringing science and conservation together through its hybrid membership system. After the publication of *Our Common Future*, known as the Brundtland report, in 1987, the 1987 General Assembly passed Resolution 38/161. When the IUCN published *Caring for the Earth: A Strategy for Sustainable Living* in 1991, it was

considered one of the major milestones in the formation of international policy on sustainable development.

IUCN capitalized on the subsequent burst of environmental activity in governments around the world, particularly the establishment of departments or ministries of environment. It was also allowed to play a key role in the preparations for the first United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm in 1972. This conference led directly to the creation of the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP) with the intention of strengthening the environmental dimensions of the UN.

“"IUCN staff prepared background papers and acted as consultants and, as governments developed reports for the conference, they turned to people who were associated with IUCN” (MacDonald, 2003:8).

IUCN was the key player for the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES); the Conservation of Wetlands of International Importance (The Ramsar Convention); and for the Conservation of World Heritage (World Heritage Convention) (MacDonald 2003:8). Since the 1972 Stockholm Conference the IUCN has negotiated a position in most global conventions and conferences, including Rio full name, Brazil in 1992, Durban, South Africa in 2002, Bali, Indonesia in 2007, and Copenhagen, Denmark in 2009. IUCN does not work against any government or agency but plays a collaborative role to develop mutual understanding and to address global environmental issues like climate change.

As noted above, IUCN was one of the INGOs who played a role to establish the UNEP and works closely with UN agencies including the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) and The World Meteorological Organization (WMO) to address climate change. The well-known international conservation NGO, World Wildlife Fund for Nature (WWF), was formed originally within the IUCN in 1961 as a funding raising unit for the organization. It later
separated and is now run independently. At present most of the big international conservation organizations are members of IUCN. One of IUCN’s new major goals is to address climate change through policy lobbying and on-the-ground program implementation (IUCN, 2010).

In spite of IUCN’s role in these issues there has been only a passing interest in publications on the organization itself. Former IUCN Director General Holgate (1999) has captured the history and highlighted the important biodiversity conservation issues that IUCN addressed during his long tenure there. Likewise, Bazell (1971) has explained how IUCN contributed to the first United Nations Conference on the Human Environment at Stockholm in 1972. More recently, Robinson (2005) analyzed how IUCN helped to formulate environmental laws in various member countries. Naughton-Treves and Brandon (2005) investigated how IUCN worked to protect nature and sustain local communities in 49 protected areas throughout the tropics. IUCN itself has worked closely with various scholars and consultants to publish its internal and external evaluation reports. It also produces both academic and general information books for the scientific community and the general public regarding global environmental problems (e.g. Boitani et al. 2008). Additionally, IUCN publishes collaboratively with UNEP, WWF, and other IOs who have similar objectives on global environmental issues (IUCN 2002; McDonald 2003). In spite of all these efforts, there is precious little critical scholarly analysis on the organization itself or its program and policy efforts within specific member countries.

The uniqueness of IUCN is that it is the only organization that has governments, and NGOs as members; the only environmental organization that has been granted ‘observer’ status at the United Nations; the only scientific body to have six full-fledged commissions; is governed by a Council whose members are drawn from all over the world and who serve on a voluntary basis; and has a Secretariat that serves as a full time office of paid professionals. IUCN has
helped governments formulate policies and has implemented programs accordingly. It has also contributed to debate on vital issues related to state of the global environment (IUCN 2010).

IUCN has a vision of a just world that values and conserves nature. Its mission is to influence, encourage, and assist societies throughout the world to preserve the integrity and diversity of nature, as well as to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable. IUCN helps the world to find pragmatic solutions to our most pressing environmental and developmental challenges. It supports scientific research, manages field projects all over the world, and brings governments, non-government organizations, United Nations agencies, companies, and local communities together to develop policies that apply four basic principles: Knowledge, which IUCN develops and supports via cutting-edge conservation science, particularly of biodiversity and ecosystems; Action, which it accomplishes by running thousands of field projects around the world to better manage natural environments; Influence, through supporting governments, NGOs, international conventions, UN organizations, companies, and communities to develop laws, policies and best-practices; and Empowerment, by mobilizing organizations, providing resources and training, and monitoring of results. IUCN is a union of democratic membership, consisting of more than 1,150 government and NGO member organizations and some 11,600 volunteer scientists from more than 181 countries (IUCN 2008).

Figure 3: Membership Growth from 1948 to 2009
Figure 3: In 1948 there were four states, five government agencies, 68 NGOs, and three INGOs for a total of 80 members in the union. There was a small fluctuation in membership in between 1990 and 2000, however over the years there is linear growth in memberships. In 2009 IUCN claimed 87 states, 120 government agencies, 821 NGOs, 91 INGOs, and 31 affiliate members for a total of 1,150 members. In addition to these voting members there are 11,714 individuals affiliated with IUCN through its six commissions.

Figure 4: Memberships in Commissions

The incremental trend of memberships indicates that the organizational value of IUCN has been growing, as well as its efficiency in organizational network management within its own technical and institutional environments. As seen from the membership distribution, IUCN is a
very complex organization and has a unique composition. The following section briefly unveils its complicated structure.

*The Organizational Structure of IUCN*

IUCN is made up of members, councils, commissions, the secretariat, donors, partners, and individual volunteers. It runs numerous programs in more than forty-five countries and is identified by various stakeholders and donors as being the core force for conserving biodiversity, managing the climate forecast, promoting nature energy, managing ecosystems, and greening the world economy. These programs are endorsed by the highest authority in the World Conservation Congress which is held in every four years and is reviewed annually by the Council. It is the world’s largest conservation network organizations as well as the most complex among the 27,472 active international organizations of contemporary society (Turner 2010; UIA 2010) as shown in Figure 5.
Figure 5:

The governance of IUCN

“Governance is the framework of social and economic systems and legal and political structures through which humanity manages itself” (World Humanity Action Trust 2000). It is also defined as the strategic guidance of a particular organization and set of organizational relationships of governmental and other institutions. Governance is thus distinct from the work of governments; it is a process of strategic oversight of organizations and of the implementation of their goals. Governance of resource management systems refers to legal and institutional arrangements for setting the broad policies which regulate the use of resources (Hoffman 1991; World Humanity Action Trust 2000:36). In the case of IUCN, governance illustrates two separate issues: firstly how does it operate/ directs its administrative functions as an international
membership-based conservation organization, and secondly, how does it influence environmental governance from national to global levels as a policy-driven conservation network. This section looks only at the first issue in exploring its operating mechanisms.

The scope of organizational governance is different in the case of IUCN because its mission is to work for social well-being. These broader frames are listed in IUCN Statutes and other documents adopted in the world congress.

In summary, governance relates to the composition of IUCN, the systems and processes by which its business is carried out and its policies developed, the relationship among these, and their use in balancing interests and positions within the organization. The World Conservation Congress, the Council it elects, and the Director General appointed by the Council is IUCN’s principal agents of governance.

The World Congress plays three important roles, the first being formal and statutory. It serves to elect the President, Treasurer, Commission Chairs and Council by members voting; it approves of reports and future programs and finance plans; and it amends the statutes if necessary. The second function of the Congress is to define policies, through the adaptation of the resolutions and recommendations, and to provide the platform for general discussion and exchange of ideas between delegates, commission members and others. The Congress and the Secretariat try to ensure that the members of such a large union are directly and effectively involved in its governance. They also aim to develop new governance arrangements that allow for effective discharge of the business of the Union while preserving its democratic tradition and making participation more meaningful (IUCN 2008:5). The council’s duty is to navigate the organization through all the statutes and the financial, ethical, and environmental risks facing IUCN.
The WCC is the highest authority of IUCN structure. As the general assembly of IUCN members, it takes place every three to four years; by law all members of IUCN have the right to attend the Congress. The Congress combines the business of the Union with the technical conservation forum and provides an opportunity for sharing information and experiences among IUCN’s worldwide constituency of members, commission members, stakeholders, and partner organizations. The Congress encompasses three principal elements: conducting the business of the Union, assessing the work of IUCN commissions and taking stock of conservation efforts (IUCN 2003:7). In her presidential address at the third World Congress in 2004, Yolanda Kakabadse stated that each Congress marks a new wave in conservation thinking and practice. It provides a place to contribute to and to learn from forward thinking about conservation and sustainable development. IUCN is a union of individual organizations with a collective identity. By bringing members, commissions, and the broader IUCN constituency together the Congress helps confirm and renew the Union’s unique personality. Talking to members suggests that the meeting is as valuable to individuals as it is to organizations. The WCC is the place for people to learn and share information; a place to engage in lively debate and to shape conservation policy for the coming years. The WCC is an event where IUCN members can renew old friendships and establish new ones, and is an opportunity for networking and initiating partnerships. Perhaps most importantly it is a place to be inspired and to inspire others with new ideas and activities for the future of our planet (IUCN 2003:4).

The WCC of IUCN is one of the largest meetings of conservation experts in the world. The main objective of the Congress is to prepare the plans and policies of IUCN and to elect the Council. In the Congress members adopt resolutions that address conservation issues of global
concern, institutional policies, calls for actions, institutional governance, and administrative policies. The resolutions adopted at a Congress determine IUCN’s new programs and strategies for four years.

The main objectives of IUCN resolutions is first to draw the attention of the member governments to give the priority to the areas focused on and passed in the resolutions, and second to provide the policy directives to address the highlighted issues. The resolutions also play an important role in packaging conservation agendas in a way that is helpful when preparing national funding proposals. IUCN has a strong presence in all international forums on conservation and in the United Nations; therefore, the voices documented in IUCN resolutions have global impacts.

The WCC proposes and approves a variety of motions such as IUCN-directed motions, which become resolutions when adopted. The manner in which motions have been handled in IUCN has evolved. In 1950, 1954 and 1958, technical meetings convened during which motions were prepared for consideration at General Assemblies held in 1952, 1956, and 1960. This pattern of alternating technical and General Assembly meetings every two years was not continued after 1960 (IUCN 2003:29-30). Motions handled include governance motions, policy motions, program motions, third party motions, policy-relevant motions, and species-, site-, and event-specific motions. There is a statutory requirement which governs the resolutions process within WCC, where any member eligible to vote can propose a motion. Motions must be on a topic not addressed in the previous resolutions or recommendations. Motions should be submitted to the Director General by post, fax, or email, and those motions approved by the Resolution Working Group will be translated into IUCN’s official languages and circulated to members (IUCN 2003:30).
The heart of IUCN governance process lies in the decisions made by the Union members at their business assemblies during the World Congresses. It is kind of parallel session organized by the commissions. The procedure for reaching these decisions depends on the drafting, filing, and adoption of motions that become formal resolutions, recommendations, and program amendments. Since the founding of the General Assembly in 1948 in Fontainebleau, France, to the second IUCN-WCC in 2000 in Amman, Jordan, 1,020 resolutions and recommendations have been adopted by its members. The founding assembly adopted one resolution which called on UNESCO to promote environmental protection while at the Amman Congress in 2000, 112 resolutions and recommendations were adopted addressing policies, programs, governance, and a variety of conservation issues of global concern. Over the years IUCN’s motions have had substantial influence in guiding the development of the organization as well as heralding key milestones in the evolution and development of the conservation community. As early as 1952 at the 2nd Assembly, our members adopted Resolution 2.22, which framed core values that have to this day guided the development and actions of the Union (IUCN 2003).

In 1963 members adopted Recommendation 8.05 which called for the drafting of an international convention that would establish regulations for export, transit, and import of rare or threatened wildlife species. This led to the establishment of the CITES in 1973. In several motions beginning in 1972 (11.03), the IUCN’s members have called on each other to ratify and support the Ramsar Convention. Resolution 11.15 (the protection of wide-ranging species) led to the adoption of the Convention on Migratory Species in 1983 and an agreement to protect polar bears by the Arctic nations, which was adopted in November of the same year. In 1990, members expressed their support for the establishment of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) (18.28) and the Convention on Climate Change (18.22), which was subsequently adopted.
at the Rio Earth Summit two years later. In recent years, beginning in 1994, members have called for trade agreements such as the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) to take account of environmental issues.

In regards to key conservation issues, a total of 18 motions have been adopted concerning dams, the first being in 1952, which called attention to the threat dams pose to protected areas. Mining and extractive industries have been targeted in 21 resolutions and recommendations that have been adopted since 1978. The earliest motions focused primarily on oceanic mining, while those adopted in more recent Assemblies focus on mining in protected areas (IUCN 2003). There are more than 700 resolutions of global importance and these listed above are only few among them in which I was also involved in the voting process.

*The Membership System of IUCN*

IUCN is a hybrid organization in terms of the composition of membership and of its principles. The union includes national and international nongovernmental organizations as well as national and international governments and governing bodies. Its main objective is to influence, encourage, and assist societies throughout the world to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature and to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable. To attain these objectives it first mobilizes its members to build conservational alliances. It strengthens the institutional capacity of its members to conserve biological diversity and safeguard ecological life-support processes at global, regional, national, and local levels. Out of the 13 objectives, seven of them regard the members. For example article h: (k) states that IUCN contributes to the preparation of international agreements relevant to the conservation of nature and natural resources and encourages states to adhere to these agreements, along with its members. This statute indicates that IUCN is made by the members and works for the
members, yet operates quite differently in reality. The statute has a provision of members’ rights in opposing the motion; however this has happened only once in four years and even the members of the developing world could not afford to attend the World Congress.

The Council

The Congress is the highest decision-making body of IUCN. Congress elects the council and authorizes the oversight and general control of all affairs of IUCN between sessions of the Congress. In brief, the Congress defines the program and policy of IUCN while the Council monitors progress and assists in implementation. Member organizations elect the Council every four years at the IUCN-WCC. Along with a President, Treasurer, and three representatives from each of the Union’s eight regions, the Council also includes the Chairs of the six commissions. At present there are 41 members in the council composed of the President; four Vice-Presidents, a Treasurer, six Commission Chairs, 24 Regional Councilors from eight regions (three from each region), a Representative of the Swiss Confederation, and five Appointed Councilors. As the statues states, the Council is the main authority of IUCN governance.

The Congress meets as often as is necessary, however, the statutes in article 58 detail the need for transparency and the availability of the minutes to the members. As per my own experience and the conversations with the research participants, the Secretariat rarely provides any information to its members except for the councilors themselves who initiate the disclosure of meeting notes. For example the business- and biodiversity-related agreements and minutes did not become available until 2008. In the World Congress held in Barcelona in 2008, one of the major concerns of members representing the developing world was the lack of transparency in IUCN Secretariat and offices. By principle the Union was created by willing members and should therefore work for members, but there is a gap in ideology in IUCN management system.
The Council functions in a way that is similar to a Board of Directors, meeting once or twice a year to direct Union policy, approve finances, and decide on strategy. The Council may appoint up to six additional councilors. The functions of the Council are to approve the annual program and budget developed within the overall framework of activities adopted by the WCC; to regularly review the implementation of the Program; to review the work of the Commissions; to approve the annual report of the Director General and the audited accounts; to admit new members and officially recognize National and Regional Committees; and to appoint and evaluate the work of the Director General.

*The Commissions*

IUCN Commissions remain the conservation community’s greatest asset in peer review, the development of new norms, and the proposal of global standards, policies, and instruments (IUCN 2003:3). The statutory role of the commissions is in a broad sense to be entrusted with the development and advancement of institutional knowledge, experience, and objectives of IUCN. There are six commissions in IUCN system: the Commission on Ecosystem Management (CEM); the Commission on Education and Communication (CEC); the Commission on Environmental, Economic, and Social Policy (CEESP); the Commission on Environmental Law (CEL); the World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA); and the Species Survival Commission (SSC).

The concept of commissions within IUCN system is as old as the IUCN itself. The union was founded by world-renowned educators with a thirst for exploring conservation methods and dispersing their research. It was founded at the time of post-war reconstruction, the beginning of the cold war and decolonization, and the discovery of population pressures on natural resources. According to its original statutes, the IUPN had six fields of work, including the education of
adults and children in the danger that lies in misusing natural resources and the necessity of action against such a danger (Hesselink and Čeřovský 2008:1). Hesselink and Čeřovský (2008:1) note that the first IUPN Commission, the Permanent Committee on Conservation Education, was established at the conference in Fontainebleau (France) that founded IUPN.

The Commission on Education and Communication (CEC)

CEC is a large conservation network and oldest commission in IUCN system. CEC was officially established in 1949 by the IUPN Council and initially had eight members; that number reached 625 in 2010. In the early years, IUCN Council appointed Commission chairs for a two-year period and they were eligible for re-appointment indefinitely. Because these reappointments were sometimes political in nature this changed in the 1980s with the introduction of elections. Now all commissions have four-year terms and commission chairs are only eligible for a maximum of two terms through the election by members during the WCC. CEC claims a global, voluntary network of members that connects several hundred expert educators and communicators from all sectors. CEC is comprised of a global chair, nine regional chairs, and a secretariat in Gland. Members of CEC participate in three working groups such as the World Conservation Learning Network, Education for Sustainable Development, and Strategic Communication (IUCN 2008). Based on CEC report of 2008 and interviews with the past and current chairs of the CEC, it seems that they are increasingly exploring the chemistry of the working groups, as to how to frame the discourse, how to facilitate partnerships, and how to manage individual, organizational, and social learning processes.

IUCN Commission on Environmental Law (CEL): A Volunteer Global Environmental Law Network
The foundation of the Commission on Environmental Law (CEL) began in 1960 with a decision of the Seventh IUCN General Assembly held in Warsaw, Poland. IUCN-CEL is a network of environmental law and policy experts from all regions of the world who volunteer their knowledge and services to IUCN’s activities, especially its Environmental Law Program. CEL functions as an integral part of the program, which includes both the commission and the Environmental Law Centre (ELC). The mission of ELC is to advance sustainability through the development of laws and policies and through building the capacity of societies to develop and implement those policies themselves.

CEL consists of an extensive global volunteer network of over 800 environmental law specialists in more than 130 countries; ELC, an international office established in Bonn, Germany in 1970 with 15 highly-skilled law, policy, and information specialists; and IUCN lawyers based in regional and national offices around the world. Focal points for environmental lawyers or legal officers now exist in offices around the world; the Asia Region claims dedicated environmental lawyers in Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, and Sri Lanka.

*The Species Survival Commission (SSC)*

SSC is one of the largest species conservation groups of IUCN and carries out a multitude of activities with more than 100 specialist groups, each of which consist numerous experts working on various fauna and flora conservation. SSC is one of the most complex commissions as it is made up of several subgroups that cater to the scientists’ expertise. Members consist of researchers, government officials, wildlife veterinarians, zoo and botanical institute employees, marine biologists, protected area managers, and experts on plants, birds, mammals, fish, amphibians, reptiles, and invertebrates.
The major priorities of SSC are biodiversity assessment; the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species; the Species Information Service; and being able to provide technical advice to conventions. In addition to these major programs, SSC has three global task groups: the Large Carnivore Initiative for Europe Working Group, the Species Conservation Planning Task Force, and the Restructuring Task Force (Goldstein 2003; IUCN 2008).

The Commission on Ecosystem Management (CEM)

CEM is one of IUCN’s six scientific commissions whose mission is “to provide expert guidance on integrated approaches to the management of natural and modified ecosystems to promote biodiversity conservation and sustainable development” (IUCN 2010:11). The CEM and its individual members are involved in a wide range of Ecosystem Management activities. In the IUCN system, CEM is supported by the Ecosystem Management Program (EMP) and its Secretariat. CEM works to promote and facilitate implementation of the ecosystem approach; to establish a capacity to promote ecosystem restoration; to develop and apply indicators of ecosystem status; to develop and communicate the use of ecosystem management tools; and to provide ecosystem services. CEM has formed seventeen thematic groups on the basis of the member’s interest and expertise in the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA) and the policy directives of IUCN.

CEM Thematic Groups on ecosystem management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Ecosystem Approach</th>
<th>Climate Change Adaptation</th>
<th>Wetland Ecosystems Connectivity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ecosystem Restoration Ecosystem Service</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
<td>Conservation Mountain Ecosystems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries Expert Group (FEG)</td>
<td>Capacity Building for Ecosystem Management</td>
<td>Urban Ecosystems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecosystems Red-list</td>
<td>Dry-land Ecosystems</td>
<td>Ecosystems and Private Sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grassland Ecosystems in Latin America</td>
<td>Island Ecosystems</td>
<td>Coastal Ecosystems Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nutrient Cycling</td>
<td></td>
<td>Holarctic Steppes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to working these 17 major thematic groups CEM also publishes a series of tools related to ecosystem management. CEM highlights the Ecosystem Approach, which is
defined as a strategy for the management of land, water, and living resources that promotes conservation and sustainable use in an equitable way, and which was adopted at the Second Conference of the Parties of the Convention of Biological Diversity (CBD) as the primary framework for action under the Convention. It puts people and their nature resource use practices squarely at the center of the decision-making framework. The case studies presented here were discussed at the three workshops held in Southern Africa, South America, and Southeast Asia. They provide practical examples of the Ecosystem Approach as well as a number of recommendations for action that are widely relevant to the Parties and other bodies (Smith and Maltby 2003 from the series).

*The World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA)*

WCPA is the world's premier network of experts on protected areas. It is administered by the IUCN's Program on Protected Areas (PA) and has over 1,300 members spanning 140 countries (IUCN-WCPA 2010). The function of WCPA is to help governments and others plan PAs and integrate them into all sectors; to provide strategic advice to policy makers; to strengthen capacity and investment in protected areas; and to convene the diverse constituency of PA stakeholders to address challenging issues. For more than 50 years IUCN and WCPA have been at the forefront of global action on PAs. WCPA's mission is to promote the establishment and effective management of a world-wide representative network of terrestrial and marine PAs. It has 9 terrestrial regions of programs, being Asia, Central America, East & South Africa, Europe, North Africa/Middle East /West Asia, North America & the Caribbean, Oceania, South America, and West & Central Africa respectively.

Although the WCPA had only 15 members in 1958, its membership reached 1,300 in 2010. WCPA has been working collaboratively with the Convention on Biological Diversity,
UNESCO’s World Heritage Convention, and the UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre. WCPA works using ecological networks which help to maintain functional ecosystems by encompassing the temporal and spatial scales of ecological systems. WCPA also utilizes the principles of the social network, which help to resolve and manage conflicts in the use of natural resources. Similarly, WCPA also uses the economical network, which helps to facilitate the efficient use of resources (IUCN-WCPA 2008:10). WCPA tries to strictly implement the six categories of the protected area management system: Strict Nature Reserves and Wilderness Areas; National Parks; Natural Monuments; Habitat/Species Management Areas; Protected Landscape Seascapes; and Managed Resource PAs (IUCN-WCPA 2008).

Like other commissions, WCPA maintains a network with similar organizations that have a focus on conservation. WCPA has close networking relations with the Commission on Environmental, Economic, and Social Policy (CEESP) and its thematic areas as illustrated in the following section.

*The Commission on Environmental, Economic and Social Policy (CEESP)*

CEESP is a largely a group of social scientists dedicated to the public aspect of conservation. This group is comprised largely of university faculties of sociology, anthropology, economics, political science, and geography, as well as people interested in global environmental policy, human rights, women’s rights, and the rights of indigenous people and ethnic groups. Its purpose is to provide an integrated approach to environmental, economic, social, and cultural policies. It has seven key themes: Conservation and Culture (TCC); Environment, Conflict, and Security (TECS); Environment, Macroeconomics, Trade, and Investment (TEMTI); Indigenous Peoples, Local Communities, Equity, and Protected Areas (TILCEPA); Governance, Equity, and Rights (TGER); Social and Environmental Accountability of the Private Sector (TSEAPRISE);
and Sustainable Livelihoods (TSL). They are coordinated by co-chairs of volunteer experts, as seen in Figure 6.

Figure 6: The Thematic Areas of the CEESP

Members of CEESP include academics, indigenous and local community researchers and leaders, government and UN agency policy and program staff, and interested global citizens. Similar to other commissions it is a global, multi-disciplinary network with proven experience and expertise in utilizing its linkages to contribute to local, national, regional, global, and international processes (IUCN 2010).

CEESP has its own specific mission, “to contribute to IUCN’s mission by providing insights and expertise on ways to harmonize biodiversity conservation with the crucial socioeconomic and cultural concerns of human communities, such as livelihoods, poverty eradication, development, equity, human rights, cultural identity, security, and the fair and effective governance of natural resources” (IUCN-CEESP 2011:5). It has been collaborating with members through a major focus on the governance of natural resources, equity and human
rights, economics, markets, trade and investment, sustainable livelihoods and pro-poor conservation, culture and conservation.

In summary, each of the commissions of IUCN has specific groups and subgroups that are structured in such a way that they intertwine with each other through network of networks. Among them, in terms of area coverage by nature, CEESP has the largest emphasis on policy directives. As seen in the cases of TGRE and SEAPRISE, they follow the themes of CEESP but also bound themselves through self-proposed and members-approved resolutions to try to fulfill the mandate. The overall function of all of the commissions is to help IUCN obtain its mission to influence, encourage, and assist societies throughout the world to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature, and to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable.

Along with the Secretariat, these commissions play vital roles in global policy formation through knowledge, action, and influence, and help concerned stakeholders including the governments build conservation efforts at various levels. These commissions use participatory approaches in program implementation and foster resources like funding and technical savvy. IUCN prepares its member-states for international agreements, negotiations, and bargaining. The whole of IUCN’s system plays a neutral role, and therefore there is minimum tension between concern stakeholders.

In terms of administration, the commissions are not legally bound to IUCN. The scientists affiliated with IUCN are simply volunteers. They do, however, use the platform of IUCN’s trustworthiness and global reputation, which is mutually beneficial to the individuals as well as to IUCN. Each commission prepares the policy directives and tool kits which help build nation-states to improve the capacity for environmental protection. The resolutions are the
policy directives of IUCN and to its all stakeholders which come into force with the efforts of the professionals who negotiate and influence to the member nations for the implementation.

IUCN provides a platform for member countries to set priority for viable conservation policies and programs, as well as appropriate approaches to implement them. However, they are not applicable to all member-nations because of the varying geographies, cultures, bureaucratic structures, power systems, and expertise. For example, the developed world largely focuses on policy directives whereas the developing world requires programs related to the social well-being. While the four Asian countries of this study largely belong to the same cultural niche, the same problem sometimes occurs. India, for example, is capable of implementing the programs, policies, and tools of conservation; therefore, in 62 years of belonging to IUCN it was not invited to IUCN for the tools preparation. Nepal on the other hand sent a request to IUCN early as it began a five-year development plan in the 1960’s, and was followed by Pakistan in the 1980’s and Bangladesh in the 1990’s.

Furthermore, IUCN is an organization of multiple stakeholders and is democratic in nature. It evaluates its own programs using two basic criteria; first, how insiders such as the officials of IUCN see the ongoing efforts of conservation at the global, regional, and national levels and secondly, how the external evaluators observe its impacts in the global forum. In this context it provides internal and external evaluation reports to the council and world congresses every two years. Although it has tried to maintain its original goals of conservation and information-gathering, its efforts have been criticized by core conservation groups, and its worthiness questioned by a number of international organizations as well as the research respondents of this report.
It is still unclear whether bringing businesses into the conservation arena is appropriate or not. There is a strong urgency for further research on the shifting role of IUCN as well as for other conservation organizations who are also giving priority to business communities.

*IUCN Secretariat*

The function of IUCN Secretariat is to serve the members and commissions as the source of financial support for expansion of the union, to ensure that the visibility of the Union is promoted and broadened worldwide, and to ensure that IUCN’s agenda is represented in global public policy arenas worldwide. An IUCN statute has defined the Secretariat whereas the Director General is the chief executive of the organization. The statutes in articles 78 through 84 detail the functions of the Secretariat. The function of the Secretariat of international member-based organizations is to facilitate meetings and intercessional work of the organization (UNEP 2006:2). IUCN is not only a policy-driven organization but one in which stakeholders are active in program-planning and implementation. It has the additional tasks of coordinating with member-governments, INGOs, NGOs, and donor communities.

IUCN Secretariat has over 1,000 full-time staff in more than 60 countries, and in 45 offices. Seventy percent of staff members are from developing countries and work in the regional and country offices. Presence at the headquarters is minimal.
Seconded (the staff paid by the member governments, or partner organizations), and Junior Professional Officers (JPOs) work for IUCN but obtains salary from a different organization. In IUCN, few people fall into this category. In August 2001, IUCN sent a professional to the Shell Corporation to develop guidance and tools for biodiversity; to provide advice to Shell Operating Companies on implementing the group's expectations on biodiversity; to work with Shell's conservation partners to deliver agreed projects; and to build a strong and lasting relationship between Shell and IUCN. Shell professionals have been working at IUCN to build a relationship between Shell and IUCN with the purpose of assisting IUCN to approve its business skills through the transfer of appropriate skills from qualified Shell specialists; to assist IUCN in developing capacity to engage more effectively
with business on biodiversity issues; and to support Shell businesses in the identification of biodiversity risks to their business, and provide help to address such risks through links to IUCN’s expertise and networks (IUCN 2010).

Figure 9: Distribution of Staff in Terms of Nationality

![Distribution of Staff in Terms of Nationality](image)

Data source: IUCN Gland (administrative office visit 2009): Out posted refers to the staff who work in the multi-relations offices.

During the summer of 2009, there were total 1,058 people were working in IUCN offices, where 176 people worked at headquarters, 786 in the eight regional and country offices, and 57 people in the two outpost offices located Malaga, Spain and Washington D.C. USA.In terms of staffing at headquarters, 74% of staff members in professional categories were European, followed by the North American (11.1%), Latin American (6.1%), Asian (3.4), and African and Oceanian (1.7%). As for the information obtained via emails, there is 0 percent representation from Africa and Asia percent also dropped to 2 percent. Similarly, staffing in the management category is still largely dominated by men from the western world, because of its headquarters located in Gland, Switzerland. The gender ratio is only 1:3.89.
This clearly indicates that IUCN HQ and other offices are mostly dominated by the western professionals even in staff in supporting roles. In the supporting categories, about 77% staff is European, followed by North American (9%), Latin American (5.6%), Asian (4.4%), and Oceania and African (2.2%) respectively. The makeup of the research participants is comparable to the makeup of the IUCN, except in regard to gender, there is male domination especially in management category figure 10.

**IUCN’s programs**

IUCN pursues its objectives through an integrated program of activities that are formulated, coordinated, and implemented by its members and components. Programs shall be adopted by the World Congress and be reviewed annually by the Council (IUCN Regulation 2; as in IUCN 2003:27).

*Types of programs*

From the inception of IUCN in 1948, it has focused on the conservation of nature and natural resources with special attention to bio-diversity. It has not shifted from those original conservation goals but has moved with the globalized world order to follow the rules and

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
regulations that are required to maintain global conservational international organizations. The IUCN has various kinds of global, regional, and national programs. IUCN works to spread knowledge throughout the globe with the recognition and respect of human rights and promotes intergroup dialogue. It promotes the integration of traditional, local, and scientific knowledge in the management and conservation of natural resources, and facilitates the exchange of knowledge across the world, be it from site to site or country to country. IUCN’s capacity-building programs concentrate on education, training, and skill development; raising awareness; facilitating the meaningful exchange of experiences; and providing opportunities for all stakeholders to participate in decision making (Robinson 2005; Lohman 2006).

IUCN also focuses on transparency, access to information, justice, public participation, coherence, respect for human rights, and accountability, and advocates for the rule of the law. In addition to its more philosophical goals IUCN also runs thirteen major programs that focus on: business and biodiversity, economics, ecosystem management, environmental law, forest, gender, global policy, learning and leadership, marine, protected areas, social policy, species, and water (Robinson 2005).

**The major thematic program areas of IUCN**

The major thematic work of IUCN includes biodiversity, climate change, energy, public well-being, and promotion of green economy, whereas it applies science-based action to obtain the goals through the policy influences. The following table summarizes its modalities for a sustainable world.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Science – IUCN’s expertise on biodiversity is unrivalled. IUCN Red List of Threatened Species TM is the world’s leading resource on the</th>
<th>Action – Through hundreds of field projects around the world—from managing national parks to protecting groups of species—it</th>
<th>Influence – More than 75 countries have turned to IUCN for help in drafting and implementing national biodiversity standards. It provides</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table 1: The Key Program Areas and Influence of Science for Action and Mitigation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Biodiversity conservation is central to the mission of IUCN, International Union for Conservation of Nature. It demonstrates how biodiversity is fundamental to addressing some of our greatest challenges: tackling climate change, achieving sustainable energy, improving human well-being and building a green economy.</strong> (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation status of plant and animal species. Also, as an official technical advisory body to UNESCO, IUCN evaluates all proposed natural World Heritage sites and monitors the conservation status of all existing sites.</td>
<td>Combines the best available science with the traditional knowledge of local communities to reverse habitat loss and protect these vital ecosystems.</td>
<td>Policy guidance to major global environmental conventions such as the Convention on Biological Diversity and is the only environmental organization with official UN Observer Status (3).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Climate Change Solutions: Nature as center—Conserving nature can help reduce greenhouse gas emissions (mitigation) and help us adapt to the impacts of climate change.** | **Science** — It mobilizes research to measure the impacts climate change is having on biodiversity and to identify conservation solutions. From studying fragile coral reefs, to understanding the role of marine ecosystems in storing carbon, or identifying species that can act as an early warning of climate change, IUCN works to ensure that political decisions at all levels are based on the best available science. | **Action** — its field projects around the world improve the management of natural ecosystems such as forests, river basins, mangroves and coral reefs. Protecting this natural infrastructure helps to reduce carbon emissions and provides protection from extreme weather events. The Mangroves for the Future initiative is restoring the mangrove buffer in the Indian Ocean region to help protect people from storms and rising sea levels. Forest conservation and restoration help reduce carbon emissions and help people adapt to the impacts of climate change. | **Influence** — It works with governments and partners under the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change to promote the inclusion of nature-based solutions to adaptation and mitigation policies (4). |

| **Energy: Helping society for transition to energy systems that are ecologically sustainable, socially equitable and economically viable. A priority is to reduce the negative impacts of energy technologies and policies on biodiversity.** | **Science** — It fills knowledge gaps about energy and ecosystems for better informed decision making by governments, the private sector, resource managers and civil society. Examples include providing guidance on the impacts of offshore renewable energy on the marine environment; and producing toolkits that address the risks of invasive species introductions from biofuel production. | **Action** — It promotes ecologically sound energy solutions for development—whether it’s sustainably producing and harvesting vegetable oil to meet the needs of rural communities, or working with Pacific island nations to develop sustainable energy policies. | **Influence** — It works with governments, civil society and business leaders to develop policies that help us make the transition to more sustainable energy systems—from guiding the European Union on its Renewable Energy Directive to supporting the work of the Roundtable on Sustainable Biofuels (5). |

| **People’s Well-being: Helps governments to understand how nature conservation supports for the well-being of the people. Working with farmers, fishermen, community organizations and development agencies, the Union improves environmental management to increase food security and enhance the livelihoods of the poor and vulnerable.** | **Science** — It mobilizes research and on-the-ground learning to understand how ecosystems and the way they are managed can enhance environmental and human security. It publishes management guidelines, including toolkits on how to manage water, forest and marine resources equitably and sustainably. | **Action** — Well-managed natural resources in river basins, forests and dry-lands provide goods and services that help reduce poverty. The Water and Nature Initiative involves 80 partners in transforming the way water resources are used in 12 river basins in Africa, Asia and South America. Livelihoods and Landscapes, a major initiative addressing sustainable forests and poverty reduction, links on-the-ground experience from projects all over the world with efforts to change national policy. | **Influence** — It works with governments at local and national levels, bringing different stakeholders together to develop policies and institutions that support sustainable and equitable natural resource management for all (6). |

| **Green Economy: It works with governments to ensure that economic, trade and investment policies better integrate biodiversity considerations. It works with companies, industry associations and consumer groups to turn nature and environmental concerns into action. Its work helps to ensure the impacts of economic decisions, trade and investment on biodiversity are considered, assessed and better managed.** | **Science** — It helps generate cutting-edge knowledge about the economic value of biodiversity and ecosystems and produces guidelines on pro-biodiversity | **Action** — It works with key economic sectors such as tourism, mining and agriculture. In Ghana, for example, it is partnering with agricultural | **Influence** — It works with governments to ensure that biodiversity is taken into account in economic and tax policy, financial systems and markets. It also influences many key international policy |
business opportunities. It also provides expertise on the design and implementation of innovative forms of conservation finance, such as payments for ecosystem services. Firms to ensure that harvesting and processing of commercially valuable oil from the indigenous Allanblackia tree helps restore natural habitat and benefits local communities. Arenas, including the UN General Assembly and the World Economic Forum, as well as regional platforms such as the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) (7).

Source: IUCN 2010:2-7

In addition to these core programs IUCN also has special initiatives that coordinate work across individual programs on specific issues like climate change, energy, ecosystems and livelihoods, mangroves for the future, conservation for poverty reduction, and on for the future of sustainability. IUCN has programs for all types of animal and plant species and all types of ecosystems. It has a wide range of major environmental and sustainability initiatives that focus at the species-level and at the ecosystems-level (Robinson 2005, IUCN 2010). The thematic programs are directed on the basic principles of Knowledge; which IUCN develops and supports through cutting-edge conservational science; Action, as it runs thousands of field projects around the world to better manage natural environments; Influence, as it shares its tools with governments, NGOs, international conventions, UN organizations, companies, and communities; and Empowerment, by helping the governments and other stakeholders to implement laws, policies, and best-practices. IUCN has run thousands of projects around sixty countries based on these principles.

The major programs of IUCN to achieve the goals of thematic areas

To obtain environmental conservation and the public well-being, IUCN has conducted a variety of programs.

Business and Biodiversity- Program Goals and Controversies

Biodiversity businesses consist of commercial enterprises that generate profits via activities that conserve biodiversity, use biological resources sustainably, and equitably share the benefits arising from this use (IUCN 2009:2). One way or another, IUCN has engaged the
private sector to help conserve the integrity and diversity of nature and to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable. There are more than 200 resolutions relating to the private sector regarding agriculture, tourism, mining, and finance among others. These initiatives however, are quite new. The Business & Biodiversity Initiative was only created in 2000; the Business & Biodiversity Program in 2003; Strategy for Private Sector Engagement in 2004; and IUCN's Operational Guidelines for Private Sector Engagement in 2006. The World Conservation Congress in Bangkok (2004) authorized Resolutions 3.060 and 3.061 for the development of guidelines for private sector engagement. The Strategy for Enhancing IUCN’s Interaction with the Private Sector was endorsed by IUCN Council in 2004. Following this trend, the World Conservation Congress in Barcelona (2008) motioned the resolution 4.086, which notes that IUCN’s Council, in consultation with the Director General, should approve the Operational Guidelines by which IUCN Secretariat and the Commissions interact with the private sector. The Secretariat used this as an opportunity to capture the lessons learned in applying the 2006 version of the Guidelines and review them accordingly (IUCN 2010).

Under this umbrella program IUCN works with several mining, oil, and cement companies as well as other large-scale businesses and tourism industries. The main such companies are Holcim, the International Council on Mining and Metals (ICMM), Nestlé Nespresso, Rio Tinto, and Shell Oil Company. It has also established a partnership with the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) and with tourism industries. Similarly, IUCN has been reflecting on how it might associate the private sector with the delivery of IUCN’s mission in a more institutionalized way.
In March 2008, on the recommendation of the Governance Task Force, IUCN Council endorsed the development and implementation of a Private Sector Knowledge Network. The primary purpose of establishing the network is to extend IUCN’s platform to individuals from the private sector and to those from other parts of society who are interested in engaging with the private sector to achieve environmental conservation. This will entail developing and implementing a program of work that is of interest to the private sector and in accord with IUCN’s global program and priorities. IUCN has established several independent experts’ panels that are aimed at bringing biodiversity conservation research and expertise into private sector decision-making processes. The major panels include the Independent Scientific Review Panel, the Western Gray Whale Advisory Panel, IUCN-Holcim Independent Expert Panel, and the Mauritania Panel (IUCN 2010).

**Economics and Environment as Interlinked Programs**

IUCN has been making efforts to integrate economic perspectives and methods into environmental conservation by determining benefits and costs, by developing economic incentives for environmental conservation and investment in biodiversity-friendly business, and by removing or reforming so-called “perverse” incentives that result in the loss of biological diversity. This is one of the most appreciated programs of IUCN which has seven major themes: Poverty and conservation: supporting the integration of poverty and equity; Underlying causes of biodiversity loss: assessing the impacts of economic policies and trends in natural resource use; Ecosystem valuation and indicators: assessing environmental values and the tradeoffs between social equity, economic efficiency and environmental quality; Conservation incentives and finance: finding new ways to ‘internalize’ environmental costs and benefits in economic production, consumption, trade and financial flows; International economic policy: strengthening
engagement by and with the conservation community; Engaging the private sector: balancing biodiversity and business development at national, sub-national and ecosystem level and Strengthening IUCN capacity: Building links to networks of excellence in environmental and natural resource economics respectively. Currently there three research projects in operation by IUCN in South East Asia: What's a Forest Worth; Making REDD Work for the Poor; and Developing International Payments for Ecosystem Services (IUCN 2010).

_Ecosystem Management Program (EMP)_

The EMP is one of the key programmatic areas of IUCN. It focuses on management of the Drylands, mitigation of Climate Change, policy formation for Islands, and tool development for Disaster Risk Reduction. Most importantly, the climate change program is among the five thematic areas of IUCN. This program unit has prepared the Community-Based Risk Screening Tool - Adaptation and Livelihood, and has been operating Mangroves for the Future, the largest stakeholder-involved project. The EMP has had various ongoing projects in operation, though they largely overlap with other thematic programs (IUCN 2010).

_Environmental Law Program (ELP)_

The mission of ELP is to advance sustainability through the development of law and policy concepts and instruments, and through building the capacity of societies to develop and implement environmental law and policy, in furtherance of IUCN’s Mission. The ELP is an integrated program of activities that provides decision makers with information, legal analysis, advisory services, legislative drafting, mentoring, and capacity-building at national, regional, and global levels. ELP also provides a forum for governments, non-government organizations, and others to network and to share information and discuss ideas. In fostering ELP program, CEL
brings an extensive global volunteer network of over 500 environmental law specialists in from more than 130 countries (IUCN 2012).

*Forest Conservation Program (FCP)*

FCP supports the forest-related activities of the union, including its members and commissions. Its mission is to influence, encourage, and assist societies throughout the world to conserve biological diversity in forests and tree-dominated landscapes and to ensure that the use of forest resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable. The key thematic issues for "joint programming" activities include Forest Law and Governance, Forest Landscape Restoration, Forests and Poverty Reduction, Forests and Climate Change, Forest Resources and Markets, and Securing Rights to Forest Resources.

Under the forestry program, IUCN has operated the Livelihoods and Landscapes project with a vision for the effective implementation of national and local policies that would leverage real and meaningful change in the lives of the rural poor, enhance long term and equitable conservation of biodiversity, and ensure the sustainable supply of forest-related goods and services (in line with nationally-defined priorities). The Livelihoods and Landscapes project aims to cater to human and environmental needs in large areas of land. It has a special emphasis on improving livelihoods through the sustainable use of forests, with the aim to improve job security, to improve governance, to enhance ecosystem services, to enhance ecosystem services, to support national and global priorities, and support of Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD).

The Livelihoods and Landscapes project has been operating in Asia, South America, and the Eastern and Southern Africa landscapes. Other areas of sectors forestry programs are
temperate and Boreal Forests, Forest Fires, Forest Environmental Services, Forest Protected Areas, and International Forest Policy (IUCN 2010).

**Gender and Environment**

Gender equality and equity are matters of fundamental human rights and social justice, as well as a pre-condition for sustainable development and the achievement of IUCN’s mission. According to IUCN’s Gender Policy Statement of 1998, gender refers to the attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the socio-cultural relationships between women and men. These attributes and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialization processes. They are context-specific and changeable. In most societies there are differences and inequalities between women and men in activities, access to and control over resources, and decision-making opportunities. Gender is part of the broader socio-cultural context which also takes into consideration factors such as class, race, economic status, ethnic group, and age (IUCN 1998).

IUCN has tried, and failed, to mainstream gender issues in policy directives through resolutions, beginning in 1984. In the World Congress in 1996, the congress directed to the secretariat to prepare a gender policy, which was materialized in 1998 (UNDP 1999). The IUCN has not yet prepared a policy directive for mainstreaming gender issues, but is raising voices in the international forum.

IUCN has, for example, tabled the global policy work on gender with the Rio Conventions; has supported the strengthening of female voices at international environmental forums; has advocated for policy work within the union on the linkages between gender and climate change; and has worked to mainstream gender in IUCN's Energy Initiative, in the Landscapes and Livelihoods Initiative, and in policies on economics, trade, and investment.
Additionally, IUCN has been developing policy directives on Gender and Disaster Risk Reduction –DRR; Gender and the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD); IUCN and Global Gender and Climate Alliance –GGCA, in the partnership with the Global Gender and Climate Alliance (GGCA), the IUCN, WEDO, UNDP, and UNEP, and other member organizations; and is working to include gender considerations such as women's involvement in energy use, deforestation, population and economic growth, science and technology, and policy-making, within the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) framework (IUCN 2010).

Global Policy Program

IUCN’s Global Policy Unit (GPU) is responsible for providing policy advice and guidance to IUCN's component programs in the development and implementation of international conservation policy. GPU ensures cohesion across IUCN's policy products and messages that are prepared for and delivered at different multilateral forums, including the United Nations General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council, and the Commission on Sustainable Development, and Multilateral Environmental Agreements (CBD, UNFCC etc.). The unit supports IUCN's governance processes and ensures that corporate policy standards are met (IUCN 2010).

The IUCN maintains a formally accredited Permanent Observer to the UN headquarters in New York. It has also designated representatives for the United Nations Offices in Nairobi, Geneva, and Vienna, and has participated regularly in mission-relevant discussions under the auspices of the UNGA and ECOSOC. IUCN's Permanent Observer to the United Nations was established as a position on December 17, 1999, as environmental issues continued to assume a greater role in many multilateral organizations. It is the only international observer organization
in the UN General Assembly with expertise in issues concerning the environment, specifically biodiversity, environmental conservation, and sustainable natural resource use. It plays an important role at International Environmental Conventions on the Convention of Biological Diversity (CBD). IUCN has been involved in the CBD since its drafting and through its development; UNFCC; United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification and Drought (UNCCD); Convention on Migratory Species (CMS); Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD); United Nations General Assembly (UNGA); Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC); United Nations forum on forests (UNFF) etc. (IUCN 2010). IUCN has been submitting its position papers in all conferences of these international and other forums related to biodiversity, climate change, public well-being, and environmental governance (IUCN 2011).

The global policy unit of IUCN has been collaboratively working with the following major international organizations, including all of their regional and country programs: the UNEP; the UNGA; the UNFCCC; the UNCCD; the CSD; the CBD; CITES; the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO); Global Environment Facility (GEF); the United Nations Development Program (UNDP); the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO); and United Nations Reform.

As a global policy knowledge hub, IUCN has prepared more than 100 conservation-related policy instruments of global importance and over 500 on regional and country-specific policies and conservation strategies. The lists of such major global policies are listed in the appendix. The box below gives an idea of what types of policy statements IUCN produces (IUCN 1010).

| 2007 - Policy on Gender Equity and Equality | Resolutions & Recommendations: IUCN Fourth World Conservation Congress, 2008, Barcelona, |
| 2003 - Guidelines for Application of IUCN Red List | Third World Conservation Congress, 2004, Bangkok, |
| Criteria at Regional Levels | Thailand |
| 2002 - Technical guidelines on the Management of Ex- | Second World Conservation Congress, 2000, Amman, |
| situ populations for Conservation | |

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The Global Marine and Polar Program (GMPP)

IUCN’s program areas cover all terrestrial and marine ecosystems. As noted in the section on EMP, it focuses its work to create a healthy planet and to help member-states in the creation of policy directives, plans, and programs for the mitigation of climate change and Reduction Disaster Risk. GMPP aims to address key global challenges in the marine and polar environments. GMPP cooperates with other thematic and regional programs and with IUCN’s Commissions to ensure that marine and polar ecosystems are maintained and restored to biodiversity and productivity, and that any use of the resources is sustainable and equitable as highlighted in IUCN objectives.

GMPP focuses on marine and polar issues but is not limited to global coverage in terms of research. Specific major programs cover large geographical locations such as Asian regions like India, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Vietnam; East Africa; Latin America; the Mediterranean Sea; the US-Caribbean Multilateral Office; West Africa; and West Asia & The Middle East.

GMPP is a very complex program and has large collaborative networks. In addition to those major programs, there is a small ongoing research project with the objective to improve the scientific understanding and capacity for monitoring, assessing, and analyzing high seas biodiversity and fisheries around seamounts. It also aims to enhance governance frameworks for high seas resources conservation and management, and to identify options for conservation and management measures that are applicable to high seas areas in the southern Indian Ocean. This
project is supported by research, IOZ/ZSL, FAO and its EAF-Nansen project, the ASCLME Project, ACEP, IMR, and SIODFA. The work is funded by the Global Environment Facility, The Natural Environment Research Council, the UK, and the FAO (IUCN 2010), and has established cooperation and collaboration mechanisms with several entities and projects, including the ASCLME Project, ACEP, and the Western Indian Ocean Marine Science Association (WIOMSA) (IUCN 2012).

*The Global Ocean Biodiversity Initiative (GOBI)*

IUCN’s GOBI project has been named one of complex programs for oceanic conservation. It was initiated by the CBD and funded by bilateral and multilateral agencies. IUCN is the focal point of the initiative however. Asia’s Mangrove for the Future (MFF) is a similar type of multi-stakeholder program in operation. IUCN has not listed MFF under the Global Marine and Polar Program document; however, as the nature of the program, MFF is another major effort of marine biodiversity conservation (IUCN 2012).

*Mangroves for the Future (MFF)*

MFF was initiated by IUCN and the UNDP. It has grown to include other UN agencies such as the FAO and UNEP, as well as CARE and Wetlands International (WI). MFF is a multi-country, multi-section, multi-agency initiative. It builds a collaborative platform to promote investment and action to conserve coastal ecosystems. The goal of MFF is to conserve and restore coastal ecosystems as key assets which support human well-being and security in the Indian Ocean Region. It aims to strengthen the environmental sustainability of coastal development; to promote financial investment; and to promote coastal ecosystem management.

It focuses on the countries that were most affected by the tsunami; India, Indonesia, Maldives, Seychelles, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. MFF also engages other countries in the region.
to promote an integrated ocean wide approach to coastal zone management. MFF dialogue countries are currently: Bangladesh, Kenya, Malaysia, Pakistan, Tanzania, and Vietnam. The program’s integration of cross-cutting issues include climate change, gender, communications, capacity development, and the private sector. MFF is also growing with new partners and donors increasing. It has been considered as one of exemplary initiative of IUCN in fostering a collaborative approach in marine ecosystem conservation (IUCN 2012)

*Program and Policy on Antarctic Issues*

In addition to these major programs, IUCN’s 72nd Meeting of the Council approved programs and policies on Antarctic Issues on February 2-4, 2009 in order to address problems of Antarctica’s frozen desert. IUCN acknowledges the importance of the Antarctic ecosystem and its role in maintaining global ecosystem services. It defines the potential areas for intervention that make use of IUCN’s niche and suggests how component programs will organize and coordinate their efforts to optimize the Union’s impact in the region and ensure that such efforts contribute to the delivery of IUCN Program 2009-2012 (IUCN 2010:3).

IUCN Antarctic Strategy’s mission is to conserve the integrity and diversity of the Antarctic ecosystem and to ensure that the intrinsic values of its ecosystems, as well as non-material wilderness and scientific values are given proper consideration, and that in those cases where use of natural resources is appropriate, it is done in an equitable and ecologically sustainable way. Furthermore, IUCN recognizes Antarctica’s internationally significant value, including its critically important ecosystem, its role in influencing global climate and oceanic circulation, its importance for research and monitoring which can provide greater understanding of the natural environment and ecological processes (including those modified by human activity), its uniqueness as the world’s largest remaining wilderness area, and its significant intrinsic
inspiration. The program is based on the various treaties related to the conservation of Antarctica in relation to its governance.

This new program is directly related to IUCN’s position on global policy intervention. This program is linked with several ongoing ones, including the five thematic and twelve action programs as noted above or in the following sections. The specific programs for Antarctica are given direction by the issues most threatening to the Antarctic ecosystem, which are commonly applicable to the other ecosystems as well.

IUCN intends to tackle these threats with involvement of its various stakeholders, especially its NGOs, governments, and commissions. According to IUCN database, there are 46 member nations of the ATS (18 are acceding) of which 27 are also state members of IUCN. Additionally, 523 of IUCN’s members are located in an ATS party country. Of these, 58 are government agencies, 71 are international NGOs, 369 are national NGOs, and 25 are affiliates, although not all these members have an interest in Antarctic issues.

IUCN’s members have consistently endorsed resolutions on conservation and sustainable development issues related to Antarctica at General Assemblies and World Conservation Congresses. IUCN established the Antarctic Advisory Committee (ASOC) which has 12 members appointed in their personal capacity from diverse professional backgrounds, with the chair appointed by the Director General. The Antarctic program has been managed under the Global Invasive Species Program (GISP) because with increasing climate change and human presence, invasive species has become an important issue for this fragile ecosystem; also under the Conservation Commons, since research is a critical focus of human endeavors in Antarctica, the principles and practices of the Commons with respect to information management needs to be applied.
ASOC is jointly fundraising with IUCN for collaborative work on Antarctica, particularly for preparation for and input into the Antarctic Treaty and other relevant meetings and Antarctic conservation activities. Additionally, IUCN has involved the private sector, especially the fishing and tourism sectors, and research-based organizations such as the British Antarctic Survey, the Antarctic and Southern Ocean Coalition, the Institute of Antarctic and Southern Ocean Studies, the Centre for Biodiversity and Biosecurity (University of Auckland), and the International Centre for Antarctic Information and Research, to cite just a few. They are already working with IUCN on Antarctic matters. In total, 11 scientific organizations are actively linked to IUCN that are working on Antarctic issues (IUCN 2010:5-8).

Global Protected Area Program (GPAP)

Conservation of protected areas (PAs) is one of the major thematic areas of IUCN. IUCN provides the knowledge and policies for PA management and also holds the sole authority to define and categorize PA systems. It defines a PA as a clearly defined geographical space, recognized, dedicated, and managed through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values (IUCN 2010). IUCN’s Global PA Program provides technical and policy advice jointly with WCPA. The GPAP acts as the secretariat for WCPA on protected area issues and also supports IUCN’s World Heritage Program in evaluating and monitoring natural World Heritage Sites. There are hundreds of ongoing projects with the global coverage which directly or indirectly address issues on protected areas, which overlap within WCPA, SSC, and CEESP.

The Science and Learning program (SLP)

SLP relies heavily on expertise from across IUCN’s membership, partners, commissions and secretariat to provide policy-relevant advice for sound decision-making in biodiversity
conservation. Mobilizing that knowledge from across IUCN’s constituencies and integrating it into IUCN’s program are fundamental aspects of the work of the Science and Learning Unit. The Science and Learning Unit (SLU) is the coordination center for science in IUCN and it is responsible for ensuring that relevant scientific knowledge is employed to support program implementation. As part of this task, the unit facilitates strong links with external networks that are relevant to IUCN’s work. The unit is also the focal point for knowledge management and learning in IUCN’s program and in this regard, provides the secretariat a link with CEC. Its main task is the preparation of learning resources (IUCN 2012).

Programs on Social Policies

IUCN seeks to promote sustainable conservation and natural resource management, both of which embrace social equity and cultural diversity, enhance people's capacity and ability to maintain healthy ecosystems, and enhance human and environmental security in a changing world. IUCN’s work on social policy issues aims to improve the understanding of the linkages between biodiversity, ecosystem goods and services, human wellbeing, livelihoods, and other socio-economic and cultural factors among IUCN’s membership and staff; it seeks to enhance the Union's capacity to apply sustainable and equitable approaches to natural resource management, based on principles of social equity; and it advocates institutional mechanisms that ensure effective, equitable, and people-centered conservation and natural resource management approaches. In addition to these major thematic areas of social policy programs of IUCN, there are several other programs linked in CEESP and other commissions. Most importantly, it plays an important role in the preparation of policy documents in all core thematic programs of IUCN (IUCN 2012).

The Species Program
As IUCN is the authority for policy directives for protected area management, it is also the world authority for the classification of species diversity and an evaluation of their conditions. IUCN Species Program produces, maintains, and manages IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. It implements global species conservation initiatives, including Red List Biodiversity Assessment projects to assess the status of species for IUCN Red List (IUCN 2010).

*IUCN Red List Partnership*

IUCN Red List Partnership consists of members and partners of IUCN who are making a particularly significant contribution to IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. This takes the form of technical or financial support, or both. Red List partnership closely works with SSC, which as one of the largest commissions of IUCN system comprises 120 species groups, and includes expertise from both marine and terrestrial ecosystems experts. In addition, the Red List employs groups of experts on flora and fauna taxonomy. These sub groups also comprise hundreds of natural and social scientists who operate independently and by their own initiatives in evaluation of species diversity. The duty of the Species program unit in Gland is to provide the secretariat support if SSC chair or the vice chairs seek on the behalf of the any specific group. Therefore, it is not an easy task to coordinate with approximately 8,000 people in 160 countries while keeping track records of the research and conservation programs at the field level. In addition to the SSC’s work, IUCN headquarters species programs have been operating projects on freshwater biodiversity; marine species conservation; conducting the global marine species assessment; defying the ocean's end; encouraging sustainable management of commercially valuable species; disseminating and distilling scientific knowledge for policy-makers and the general public; plant conservation; and species trade and use. The Species Trade and Use Unit seeks to promote the conservation and sustainable use of wild species that are subject to trade.
However, the secretariat works closely in the case of species-related instruments preparation phase. There are more than 500 such tools prepared and published by SSC members and about 300 endorsed by the SSC panel (IUCN 2012).

**The Water Program**

IUCN’s Water Program overlaps with all five core thematic programs and also with all projects at the field levels because of its association with the public well-being. The water program unit of IUCN contributes towards the conservation of water biodiversity by promoting, influencing, and catalyzing sustainable uses and equitable sharing of resources, as well as protecting ecosystems. IUCN has added the water component in its all ongoing programs in the terrain ecosystems. Furthermore, IUCN has also prepared the Elements of the Water-Value Chain model with an emphasis on the researching and developing of an approach; the marketing of an approach; the tailoring of an approach; the assistance in applying an approach; the building of a constituency network, and the establishment of a common standard regarding an approach.

**IUCN and the World Heritage Convention (WHC)**

IUCN World Heritage work is managed by the Program on Protected Areas, working in collaboration primarily with WCPA and other IUCN commissions, the UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC) and IUCN’s regional and national offices. It develops a communications strategy to promote its technical role in World Heritage matters, to demonstrate the importance of the Convention to the corporate goals of IUCN, and to present information about the quality of IUCN’s scientific research as applied to World Heritage sites (IUCN 2010).

**Funding Mechanism of IUCN**
IUCN is a policy-driven and knowledge-based organization; it is not a funding agency. It operates its secretariats and its programs solely with the support of a variety of conservation stakeholders. IUCN mostly gets funding from governments and multi- and bi-lateral donors within the principles of Sustainable Finance which is backed by the Secretariat of the Convention of Biological Diversity (CBD), and primarily goes to the management of protected areas, and sustainable forestry or sustainable forest management (SFM). As a knowledge-building organization, IUCN has developed three major Mechanisms for Sustainable Finance that are widely applied by the UN system, particularly to obtain the objectives of CBD. The goals of this mechanism are:

To promote the integration of biodiversity considerations into sectoral policies or cross-sectoral strategies (e.g. Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers or Sustainable Development Strategies) as well as to ensure the development dimension in National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans (NBSAPs); to facilitate the exchange of experiences and the dissemination of lessons learned and good practices regarding the integration of biodiversity into development sectors and poverty reduction strategies and programs; and to strengthen the linkages between CBD Programs of Work and development / poverty alleviation, and raise awareness of the Parties on this crucial issue (CBD Objectives and work plan 2007).
• Taking a comprehensive view of costs and benefits: covering the full range of PA costs, ensuring that those who bear PA costs are recognized and adequately compensated, and that those who benefit from PAs make a fair contribution to their maintenance.
• Creating an enabling financial and economic framework: overcoming market, price and policy distortions that undermine PAs or act as obstacles to PA financing.
• Mainstreaming and building capacity to use financial tools and mechanisms: factoring financial analysis and mechanisms into PA planning processes (source: Emerton; Bishop and Thomas 2006:16 and CBD 2007)

The typology frame is based on the assumption of payment for ecosystem services (PES), which by principle provides a way for public and private beneficiaries to pay for ecosystem services that might otherwise not be valued. As Hoang et al. (2008:33) note, PES is:

“A voluntary agreement to enter into a legally binding contract under which one or more buyers purchase a well-defined ecosystem services by providing a financial or other incentive to one or more sellers who undertakes to carry out a particular land use on a continuous basis, which will generate the agreed upon ecosystem service. This definition combines what a payment is with what the payment is for, and alludes to mechanisms. A better approach would be to first say what it is, who is involved, and then to provide explanation of the how”.

PES arrangements can also provide a framework for local people to improve their standard of living through stewardship of natural resources. Additionally, it also assumes that conservation finance can attract private sector capital, which has not traditionally been a significant source of funding for conservation, and may catalyze the development of partnerships with private companies and donors to create the environmental funds. It is believed that environmental funds often result in greater government engagement in the environmental sector, as well as civil society involvement, by empowering independent boards and building the capacity of local NGOs (Emerton; Bishop and Thomas 2006:1-2).

Sustainable Finance mechanisms prepared by the IUCN include the mechanisms for attracting and administering external inflows; mechanisms for generating funding to encourage conservation activities: status, potential, and needs of mechanisms for market-based charges for protected area goods and services (Emerton; Bishop and Thomas 2006:72-73; also in CBD 2005; 2007; Thomas 2007; Hoang et al. 2008). In funding mechanisms, the IUCN basically applies these major principles. In maintaining its accountability and transparency, IUCN has developed
a healthy financial management system, from budget formulation through budget execution, to accounting and internal control mechanisms. In the last two to three years, significant improvements have been made to the system. Furthermore, risk management systems have been established that support management in decision-making about resource mobilization (IUCN External Review 2003). However, still there is no information flow system to its members on how funding has been arranged and how they are distributed at the project level.

As discussed at the beginning of this section, the work of IUCN is made possible through the support of a growing number of partners, including governments, multilateral agencies and conventions, NGOs, foundations, private sectors and individuals. The funding for programs comes through two major sources: Framework Agreements [the main partner of this category include- Canadian International Development Agency; Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Denmark; Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland; The French Development Agency (AFD); Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Directorate-General for International Cooperation (DGIS), The Netherlands; Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation; Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency; Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation; United Arab Emirates, Environment Agency, Abu Dhabi; MAVA Foundation and Department of State, United States of America] , and through voluntary contributions of the members as well as nonmember organizations and individuals. Additionally, other funding sources include multilateral agencies and conventions, foundations, and private sectors.

Distribution and volume of income

As a membership organization IUCN does not have its own sources of funding. All of its financial resources come either from donors for specific on-the-ground projects or from membership dues. About 85 percent of IUCN’s programs have been dependent on donor
funding, whereas about 60 percent of all revenue comprises project funding from donors, and
another 25 percent is donor funding (from some of the same agencies). Currently there are 84
paying member-states, 120 government agencies, and 812 NGOs, where the member-states
account for 82 percent of the total membership fees, government agencies for 9 percent, and
NGOs for 7 percent.

There was a steady growth in funding mechanism of IUCN during 1990-1999, as shown
by Table 2.

Table 2: The Financial Trend of IUCN during the Last Decade
Financial growth of IUCN (1990-1999; in CHF in 000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unrestricted</td>
<td>7433</td>
<td>8146</td>
<td>10318</td>
<td>11226</td>
<td>10229</td>
<td>10404</td>
<td>11492</td>
<td>11287</td>
<td>12111</td>
<td>11735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core funding</td>
<td>10330</td>
<td>19660</td>
<td>24819</td>
<td>25760</td>
<td>27762</td>
<td>28624</td>
<td>28694</td>
<td>31588</td>
<td>32319</td>
<td>33916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Income</td>
<td>36235</td>
<td>45868</td>
<td>55191</td>
<td>54108</td>
<td>54435</td>
<td>59408</td>
<td>65027</td>
<td>75067</td>
<td>83960</td>
<td>92300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IUCN 2000:32 (1.00 CHF = 1.09385 USD (as of Mid-market rates: 2012-03-04 16:51 UTC)

In 1990 the core funding was 10,330 thousand Swiss Franc (CHF), which increased by
about three times by 1999 and reached to 33,916 thousand; similarly the total income trended
incrementally, whereas in 1990 it was 36,235 thousand CHF, which reached to 92,300 thousand
CHF in 1999. However, the unrestricted funds, which are normally collected as membership
dues, had only a minor increase.

In contrast, there has been no substantial growth in the financial mechanism of IUCN
since 2000. For example in 2004, the total unrestricted, framework, and restricted project
income were CHF103.4 million Swiss Franc, which only reach to 115 million in 2007, as shown
in Table 3.

Table 3: Distribution and Volume of Income (2004–2007) (CHF in millions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unrestricted Income</th>
<th>Framework Income</th>
<th>Restricted Project Income</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHF</td>
<td>% of total</td>
<td>CHF</td>
<td>% of total</td>
<td>CHF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

85
Unrestricted income goes toward broader frames such as: governing the union,

- “to ensure that IUCN’s governance structures fulfill their mandates in an efficient and effective manner; constituency mobilization,
- to ensure that IUCN’s members, commissions, and partners are supported in working towards IUCN vision and mission; program development and delivery,
- to ensure that IUCN achieves 80 percent or more of its intended programmatic, policy, and organizational results; learning and knowledge management,
- to ensure that IUCN’s information and knowledge management, learning and M&E systems, standards and skills, and capacities are among the leaders in the not-for-profit community; resources for IUCN’s work,
- to ensure that IUCN’s staff and commission members have the necessary skills and resources and are motivated and managed to achieve results; and standards, ethics and transparency, and
- to ensure that IUCN’s operational systems and standards respond to the changing needs of the organization while being judged ethical, fair, and transparent in meeting international standards for corporate social responsibility and accountability” (IUCN 2008:244).

IUCN intends to increase the annual budget frame by 6.9 percent, with 24 percent fund allocation in unrestricted categories, by motivating the members, donor agencies and private sectors as shown by Table 3 (Financial Plan for the Period 2009–2012, (document submitted in World Congress 2008).

### Table 4: Income Forecast, 2009–2012, and 2008 Estimate (CHF millions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2008 (budget)</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>Average annual growth %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unrestricted Core Income</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Framework Core Income</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Restricted Income</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>84.9</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>93.6</td>
<td>98.2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Income</td>
<td>117.8</td>
<td>131.9</td>
<td>139.9</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>153.6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on this projected income, in 2012 IUCN intends to utilize the largest amount for managing ecosystems for human well-being (31.4 million CHF); conserving biodiversity (29.6 million CHF); greening the world economy (17.6 million CHF); changing the climate forecast (16.7 million CHF); program development and delivery (10.3 million CHF); and naturally energizing the future (10.1 CHF million).

Table 5: Planned expenditure by Programmatic Priority Areas and Global Operational Results (CHF millions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority Areas/Operational Result</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Naturally energizing the future</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Development and Delivery</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing the climate forecast</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greening the world economy</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conserving biodiversity</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing ecosystems for human well-being</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>31.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Program Priority Areas</td>
<td>101.7</td>
<td>107.4</td>
<td>111.7</td>
<td>115.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


With the addition of the Global Investment Fund (unrestricted fund received from foundation donors), which covers an additional 5.5 percent each year, the total adjustment reaches to 132 million CHF in 2009; 139.9 in 2010; 147 in 2011, and a projected 153.6 in 2012.

*The budget allocations and operational plan 2008-2012*

The budget allocations channel through the headquarters, followed by the regional constituencies. However, over the years, the distribution pattern is proposed to change.

Table 6: Planned Expenditure by Groups of Cost Centers (CHF millions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Core</td>
<td>Project restricted</td>
<td>Total expenditure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director General &amp; Oversight</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regions</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>63.4</td>
<td>71.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Thematic Programs</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commissions Operations Fund</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constituency Support and</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

87
The projected and actual financial trends do not show significant growth in the program expenditure. In analyzing the consolidated balance sheets from 2002 to 2009 however, there is a steady growth in the overall financial portfolio of the organization. The organizational balance sheet is a summary of their financial position at a specific point in time, which shows its assets (what is owned by the organization or owed to it by others), liabilities (what is owed by the organization to others), and equity (the capital or net worth of the organization). The ICUN’s financial sustainability is the result of administrative costs, loss of loans, cost of fundraising, inflation, and capitalization (CGAP 2001:31).

**Organizational Balance Sheet Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategic Partnerships</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>Average annual growth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Operations</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Operational Investment</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisions</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Building IUCN’s reserves</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>36.5</strong></td>
<td><strong>80.9</strong></td>
<td><strong>117.4</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the consolidated balance sheets of 2001, IUCN’s total assets amounted to 70,298 CHF, which decreased to 65,945, in 2002, and rose to 72,044 in 2003. Since 2003, there has been steady growth. For example in 2004 it reached to 77,602 though down again to 76,963 in. In 2006 it reached to 86,640; in 2007 to 102,829; in 2008 to 115,726, and in 2009 to 124,004 CHF. As a rule, liabilities and fund balances also increase in the same order.

Table 7: Assets of the Balance Sheets (2001-2009) in thousand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assets</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current assets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash and short term bank deposits</td>
<td>36,135</td>
<td>30,908</td>
<td>37,535</td>
<td>42,711</td>
<td>44190</td>
<td>50869</td>
<td>67455</td>
<td>70095</td>
<td>57,255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketable securities</td>
<td>5,355</td>
<td>5,384</td>
<td>5,597</td>
<td>5,992</td>
<td>6046</td>
<td>6208</td>
<td>6997</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17,606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership dues receivable</td>
<td>3,537</td>
<td>4,508</td>
<td>4,116</td>
<td>5,656</td>
<td>4237</td>
<td>3803</td>
<td>3941</td>
<td>3748</td>
<td>1,778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff receivables</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>418</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>551</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>519</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receivables from Partner organizations</td>
<td>444</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>616</td>
<td>805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other accounts receivable</td>
<td>1,591</td>
<td>1,615</td>
<td>1,984</td>
<td>1,195</td>
<td>1743</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>1829</td>
<td>2832</td>
<td>2,377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advances to implementing partners</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2059</td>
<td>4191</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-total</td>
<td>47,472</td>
<td>43,274</td>
<td>50,026</td>
<td>56470</td>
<td>56904</td>
<td>63714</td>
<td>81149</td>
<td>79869</td>
<td>84250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Framework agreements receivable -</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>1,139</td>
<td>707</td>
<td>2256</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>853</td>
<td>690</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project agreements receivable</td>
<td>7,835</td>
<td>7,587</td>
<td>7,287</td>
<td>5,850</td>
<td>5274</td>
<td>7098</td>
<td>6410</td>
<td>13805</td>
<td>3694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total current assets</td>
<td>55,307</td>
<td>51,161</td>
<td>57,721</td>
<td>63,459</td>
<td>62885</td>
<td>73068</td>
<td>87559</td>
<td>94527</td>
<td>88624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed assets (net)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land and buildings</td>
<td>13,384</td>
<td>13,057</td>
<td>12,738</td>
<td>12,418</td>
<td>12098</td>
<td>11778</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture, fixtures and equipment</td>
<td>1,607</td>
<td>1,727</td>
<td>1,585</td>
<td>1,725</td>
<td>1980</td>
<td>1794</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total fixed assets</td>
<td>14,991</td>
<td>14,785</td>
<td>14,323</td>
<td>14,143</td>
<td>14078</td>
<td>13572</td>
<td>15270</td>
<td>21201</td>
<td>35370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL ASSETS</td>
<td>70,298</td>
<td>65,945</td>
<td>72,044</td>
<td>77602</td>
<td>76963</td>
<td>86640</td>
<td>102829</td>
<td>115726</td>
<td>124004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Liabilities of the Balance Sheets (2001-2009) in thousand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Liabilities</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Membership dues paid in advance</td>
<td>1,053</td>
<td>1,189</td>
<td>885</td>
<td>1,511</td>
<td>1160</td>
<td>1627</td>
<td>1271</td>
<td>1186</td>
<td>1441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounts payable and accrued liabilities</td>
<td>6,343</td>
<td>4,249</td>
<td>4,960</td>
<td>5,288</td>
<td>4238</td>
<td>4101</td>
<td>4803</td>
<td>4913</td>
<td>4957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social charges payable</td>
<td>1,586</td>
<td>755</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>418</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>531</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>497</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The overall financial analysis shows a growing trend in all sectors; however, the external evaluators of various years clearly indicate a risk in the funding mechanism of IUCN system. For example, IUCN External Review (2003:48) notes that the financial risks of its operations have to be seen at two levels: the short and medium term costs, which mainly reflect the costs of permanently employed staff and general operating costs that are projected in the Secretariat’s section of the total budget. These costs are covered mainly by income from unrestricted and
framework funding, revenues for staff time charged to projects, and project overheads. Normally the deviation between the forecast and actual costs of the Secretariat’s budget is modest. The high risk component is in the projects’ section of the total budget, which may vary between 40-60 percent. In the first instance however, deviations in the projects’ budget directly affect the procurement of external services such as project staff and consultants, used for the implementation of the project contracts. Nevertheless, income from projects in the form of staff time and overheads represents two-thirds of the Secretariat’s budget at the regional level, and must consequently be considered a major risk factor in planning investments in the competence and capacity-building among permanent staff. To overcome overspending on overhead by the HQ staff members; insofar there are no any steps taken. An external evaluation published in 2003 suggested two scenarios to address these problems.

In the first scenario, IUCN’s regional and national offices should be considered as market-oriented project execution units. The success formula for such a unit is comprised of the best possible fit between the unit and its markets in terms of professional competence and capacity; to use the slogan of IUCN in southern Africa; it is “the development partner of choice.” It is the most efficient manager of resources, particularly project resources and support services.

In the second scenario, regional and national offices are the locally representative bodies of the union and are integral to the design, planning, and implementation of IUCN program. The success formula for such a unit includes the optimum selection and design of activities for learning and communicating in priority areas; the most efficient approach to empowering and building capacity for members, partners, and society in general; and the best possible positioning of the union for influencing local and national governments and their role in environmental governance at all levels (IUCN External Review 2003:48-49).
IUCN External Review (2003) is one of the most highly regarded and repeatedly referred references by both the internal and external research participants of this study. The report strongly notes the research participant-endorsed statement that “if IUCN is to survive and to pursue its vitally important role successfully, it will have to change its business model. The external review team recommends a twofold transformation” (IUCN External Review 2003:51).

The Problems of Funding Mechanism

Firstly, core financing must be increased at the regional and national levels. In principle, this means a transition from dominant short-term, market-driven agreements to program-based, long-term agreements with key donors who are working in each region or country. In most but certainly not all cases, these are the same donor organizations that are currently funding IUCN on a project-by-project basis. The current total funding level, if delivered in the revised manner as recommended above, would give the union financial strength and professional capacity for designing and implementing its program. It would also enable it to gradually shift its mode of planning and implementation from mainly secretariat-based action to membership-based action. This change can only be realized with the strong support of the donor community and the governments in which the regional and national operations are undertaken (many of which are Members of the Union).

Secondly, IUCN must gradually turn from its culture of ‘project execution’ to a culture more in the spirit of its new program. Its professional staff must become more competent in understanding the situations and processes of the learning and management of knowledge, more sensitive to and skillful in capacity-building and empowerment, and better in policy research, influence, and communication between global, national, and regional levels. This would be a major challenge – and a next step – in the further development of methods, instruments, and
competencies for the global program and its components. This fundamental transformation would also need to be supported by the Finance, Human Resources, and M&E systems of the Secretariat.

While talking with the Director General, Deputy Director General, and the internal auditor at IUCN’s headquarters, they assured me that these recommendations have been implemented in the 2008-2012 programs. The Report on the Implementation of IUCN Program in 2009 indicates that there has been no shift in the funding mechanism of its system and the core dependencies with the traditional partners still bear the large part of its budget. The 2009 financial distribution scenarios show no change or diversification in the funding distribution of its system. In this respect, the external evaluation report of 2007 had noted that it is remarkable what IUCN has achieved with the resources available to it, but its current financial model is weak and unsustainable. It severely limits how effectively IUCN can respond to the many demands on the Union for collaboration and action. At the heart of its current difficulties is a lack of resources for, and investment in, core organizational capacities to make it more efficient. It also lacks a project funding model with high transaction costs that reduces its ability to be cost-effective (IUCN 2008:23). Since as late as December 2010 there has been no attempt to address the recommendations of external reviews. Just recently in 2011, IUCN has called for another external review to recommend the best solution for financial management (IUCN 2011).

The Major Donor Agencies of IUCN
Turning back to the donors, the traditional funding partners of IUCN include governments, multilateral and bilateral agencies, NGOs/INGOs, and business which are listed in Figure 11.

Figure 11: Funding Sources and Distribution by Donor Types
Source: IUCN 2010: The figure shows that the majority of funds come from the governments, followed by corporations, multilateral donors, etc.

Table 9: Funding Partners of IUCN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework Partners</th>
<th>Program and Project Partners (above Swiss francs 250,000 per annum)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Framework agreements</strong> represent funds received or to be received from donors in accordance with signed agreements. These funds are subject to some restriction in their use, but unlike projects, the restrictions are more generic and generally determined by geographic or thematic conditions. <em>Source: Audit reports from 2001 to 2009 plus annual reports.</em></td>
<td><strong>Project agreements:</strong> These are funds received or to be received from donors in accordance with specific agreements. These funds are subject to a restricted use, usually determined by specific budget lines included in the agreement. At the close of the year, based on the accrued expenditure and cash income, projects may be in positive or negative balances. The sum of the positive balances is reported as Advances on project agreements in the Balance Sheet while the sum of the negative balances is reported as Project Agreement receivables.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian International Development Agency</td>
<td>Governments Federal Ministry for European and International Affairs, Austria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Denmark</td>
<td>International Development Research Centre, Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The French Development Agency Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Directorate-General for International Cooperation, the Netherlands</td>
<td>Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation</td>
<td>Ministry of Ecology, Energy, Sustainable Development and Sea, France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish Agency for International Cooperation for Development</td>
<td>Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs, Directorate-General for International Cooperation and Development, France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency</td>
<td>Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development, Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation MAVA Foundation</td>
<td>Federal Ministry for the Environment, Nature Conservation and Nuclear Safety, Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Multilateral Agencies and Conventions</strong></td>
<td>Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Directorate General for Development Cooperation, Italy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora</td>
<td>Ministry of the Environment and Rural and Marine Affairs, Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Commission</td>
<td>Barcelona Provincial Council, Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Environment Facility</td>
<td>Regional Ministry for Environment, Government of Andalucia, Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramsar Convention on Wetlands</td>
<td>Department of the Environment and Housing, Government of Catalonia, Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union Economique et Monétaire Ouest Africaine</td>
<td>United Nations Development Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Nations Development Program</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Nations Environment Program</td>
<td>Department for International Development, United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The World Bank Group</td>
<td>Department of State, United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Foundations</strong></td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ford Foundation</td>
<td>Agence canadienne de</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundación Gonzalo Río Arronte</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.A.P. Mexico</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keidanren Nature Conservation Fund</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Sector</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danone</td>
<td>Birdlife International</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holcim</td>
<td>Catholic Relief Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinnarps AB</td>
<td>Conservation International</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philips</td>
<td>Global Water Partnership Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sakhalin Energy Investment Company Ltd</td>
<td>International Institute for Environment and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philips</td>
<td>Rights and Resources Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Ltd</td>
<td>TRAFFIC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shell International</td>
<td>World Wide Fund for Nature</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IUCN 2010:6-7 and also in 30-31 (note: all member states and member NGOs pay the dues to IUCN—therefore they are also funding partners of IUCN).

There is no significantly different funding mechanism for Asia or other regions; however, at the regional level some of the partners can be seen in the specific program themes.

**Conclusion**

IUCN does not work against any government or agency; it plays a collaborative role to develop mutual understanding to address global environmental issues. Its vision is a just world that values and conserves nature and the mission is to influence, encourage and assist societies throughout the world to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature and to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable. It helps the world find pragmatic solutions to our most pressing environment and development challenges (IUCN 2011).

IUCN supports scientific research; manages field projects all over the world; and brings governments, non-government organizations, United Nations agencies, companies and local communities together to develop and implement policy, laws and best practice with the application of four basic principles i.e. Knowledge; Action; Influence and Empowerment respectively. It pursue its objectives through an integrated program of activities, formulated, coordinated and implemented by the members and components [the World Conservation
Congress, the Council, National and Regional Committees and Regional Fora of Members, the Commissions and the Secretariat of IUCN.

IUCN is mostly dominated by the western professions even in the staff in the supporting roles. It has been a “green web”, linking governments, non-governmental organizations and the world’s leading individual conservationists and providing a unique forum where they can meet and debate. It has prepared global strategies and originated some of the world’s most important environmental laws. It is the world authority on threatened species and on national parks and protected areas. Its influence has been enormous (Holdgate 1999). It creates global conservation policies through the resolutions. There are more than 700 resolutions of global importance. Each resolution is the guiding principles of specific issue.

It operates six major thematic frame programs i.e. Biodiversity, Climate change, Energy, Public Well-being and Promotion of Green Economy; with the coverage of the specific 12 programs i.e. business & biodiversity; economics; ecosystem management; environmental law; forest; gender; global policy; marine and polar protected areas; science and learning; social policy; species; water and world heritage, where it applies science based action to obtain the goals through the policy influences. These programs are funded by the various bilateral and multilateral agencies. IUCN as a knowledge creating organizations has prepared strategic mechanisms for sustainable financing, but has not been able to apply the same frame in diversifying the funding mechanism in its programs operation. Among them, under the theme of green economy and business and biodiversity it has been operating projects with Holcim; International Council on Mining and Metals (ICMM); Nestlé Nespresso; Rio Tinto; Shell and IUCN’s Partnership with the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) etc. which holds various controversies.
Broadly since 2008, the global conservation movements have taken a different path, with the especial focus towards the *Green Economic Initiatives*. The major stakeholder of global environmental governance, ‘the United Nations’ has been advocating in the international forums to integrate the conservation and development themes and establish for the collaborative platform, where all concerned stakeholders could contribute to a healthy planet. Following the UN path, IUCN has prime importance in this theme, with the statement that are important step in the transition to a more sustainable global economy is the fuller integration of ecosystem values in economic policy, finance, and markets (IUCN 2010:1), which is also one of the debatable issues in its program implementation strategy. Green economy has 14 components, whereas, IUCN covers eight of them in the thematic programs. UNEP is one of the major partners of the IUCN in theorizing, preparation of the policy directives and encouraging the governments to utilize the green economy concepts in the UNEP and IUCN’s member’s states. One of the goals of a green economy is to help reduce poverty, while increasing resource efficiency and improving social welfare. Importantly the “green economy”, as both a journey and the destination, has much to do with the Millennium Development Goals. It is inextricably intertwined with many of the drivers and factors involved in trying to achieve them (UNEP 2010:4). The IUCN’s programs and projects also largely situated to achieve or to support the member nations as well as other stakeholders for the public wellbeing which is one of the core themes of the IUCN’s program priority. The proposition of enhancing the positive impacts on human wellbeing can provide the way positive environmental change, and it is likely that addressing the human well-being aspects can help to empower the society to minimize the impact of the environmental change.
IUCN’s major problem is lack of own Donor Consortium and asset which can generate needed income. It depends upon foundation donors and project specific donors and membership dues. IUCN has created a knowledge base for the ecosystem finance management; however, it has no any direct benefit or impact on its funding crisis. To overcome from this ongoing problem, IUCN has been working with the private sectors; however, the hardline conservation-focused NGO members are not happy with the new move to acquire funding from business organizations of IUCN. IUCN requires a long term policy for funding management, though insofar, there are no any visible programs in this regard.
CHAPTER V

Exploring IUCN’s Failings: View from the members in the IUCN system

Chapter four outlined the unique position and value propositions that IUCN embodies from local to international efforts in policy planning, programming, and on-the-ground implementation. My earlier chapters however, have not identified IUCN’s weaknesses and blind spots. No organization is totally wrinkle free. However, in its domains of policy framing and program structure, I was unable to locate many IUCN’s flaws. To correct for this, in this chapter, I briefly reviews blind spots from the point of view of IUCN’s major asset, its members.

The blind spots in IUCN’s principles and practices

There were attempts to find the blind spots on the basis of an opinion survey conducted with IUCN members. These survey results were presented in the World Conservation Congress held in Barcelona in 2008. As an independent respondent, I was also involved in the process. The purpose of the survey was to obtain systematic data from members on their perception of IUCN’s performance on the following themes: Relevance of IUCN to members, involvement and satisfaction with IUCN regional and global thematic programs, involvement and satisfaction with IUCN commissions; satisfaction with the governance of IUCN; satisfaction with services to members; satisfaction with member relations; IUCN’s performance in comparison to other networks and value and benefits of IUCN to Members. Out of the total 1037 IUCN members of IUCN, 562 members provided written responses. Other respondents of the survey self-identified as executive directors, CEOs, or heads of programs in member agencies or organizations. The survey was commissioned by the director of global strategies and the head of the membership unit in late 2006. Managed by the IUCN performance assessment adviser and implemented by Vital Research LLC, a firm specializing in surveys and research, the survey was designed through a consultative process with the IUCN Global Program Team, senior managers and
regional membership. The data were collected through the mail and emails from February 2007 through June 2007 (IUCN 2008:15). Furthermore, while conducting my fieldwork, from May 2008 to August 2009, I used the same questions (with the permission of the IUCN HQ) to engage IUCN’s stakeholders (members-NGOs and Governments, commission members, IUCN’s ex-officials) from India, Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan. I also asked them whether they agree or not on what had been reflected in the membership survey report. All member respondents assured that the members’ voices that are listed in the Voices of Members: Global Survey of IUCN Members, Undertaken by IUCN Office of Performance Assessment and Vital Research LLC for IUCN Constituency Support Unit IUCN Office of Performance Assessment (revised November 2007), published by IUCN, Gland in 2008 are their voices.

Comments from Members: How they value IUCN

IUCN members value their engagement in the IUCN system. At the 4th World Congress in 2008, the IUCN Secretariat reported the survey results. They showed that about 38.7 percent of members gave a great value to being members of IUCN, 43.7 percent indicated it has of some value; 16.9 percent indicated a slight value; and only a small number of members (0.6 percent) did not see any value as members of IUCN. The most noted benefits of IUCN memberships were: 1) a sense of identity in belonging and contributing to the global conservation movement; 2) IUCN as a platform for learning and influencing change; 3) access to conservation knowledge; 4) brand credibility (members can use IUCN logo in their letter noting as a members); and 5) unique governance role and access to technical assistance and funding opportunities. Similarly, members also agreed that IUCN was relevant to their mission and objectives and recognize IUCN as a world class knowledge-based organization. About half or less view IUCN as a leader in conservation (52 percent) and in sustainable development (42.1 percent) respectively (IUCN
Of course this is not surprising as most would not be members if they did not see advantages of membership. The following quotes taken from the membership survey conducted by IUCN in 2008 provides a brief outline of members concern about IUCN.

*What members say about IUCN?*

- “The Union is undeniably the most important conservation network in the world. It unquestionably has made vast contributions to research and taken many actions to prepare and implement national conservation and biodiversity strategies in many countries. For that reason alone it is a privilege to be a member together with other institutions who also consider the Union to be an organization that is independent from any government, political ideology, economic interest or religion.”
- “If IUCN could focus at a higher strategic level and engage with governments and international institutions and get them to promote an enabling environment for its members then our involvement in regional programs will increase.”
- “Involvement of members in an IUCN World Congress once every four year is not adequate. There needs to be an ongoing relationship with members who are genuinely seen as a key strength of IUCN’s global program.”
- “Working on MEAs I find IUCN’s briefing papers/positions are often very helpful. The TRAFFIC, CITES and COP proposal evaluations are very good.”
- “The whole IUCN needs to be restructured to give members room and priority in delivering conservation programs. As a policy, where there are capable IUCN members, the IUCN should never employ project staff to work with local communities. Instead, empower members to deliver conservation initiatives with the Secretariat only playing an advisory role.”
- “I sense that many IUCN member organizations are not aware of how they can use IUCN Commissions both to contribute to international conservation and to benefit from the exchange of information and ideas. For IUCN, Commissions are still a greatly underutilized resource. On the other hand, IUCN member organizations could do a lot more to support them.”
- “More concrete action and fewer speeches.” “Consider members’ voices.” “Remember we are here.”
- “Our organization focuses on indigenous issues and an indigenous constituency. The opportunity to engage with non-indigenous NGOs and scientists is very important to us. There is much support for indigenous issues at the IUCN internationally and we very much appreciate it.”
- “We are very interested in IUCN Commissions and have great respect for their experts, but we have no way of connecting their expertise with the work of our organizations. Our IUCN membership does not provide a way for us to benefit more from the Commissions and this is a disappointment to us.”
- “Overall, IUCN’s convening role and services are the most important. Its ability to bring a wide diversity of members to the table, this is the most important function and one that does not compete with but rather enhances the role of all members.”
- The value of IUCN to us is “being connected to a forum where emerging conservation issues are often first identified, analyzed and debated; and where the full range of opinion in conservation issues can be heard.” And “to be able to influence dialogue and policy through a partnership with an internationally well established and technically capable organization.” (IUCN 2008:6)

There are two contrasting factors are seen in the member’s opinions. First, they generally value IUCN because it creates knowledge and contributes to the global, regional and national-level conservation movement. It also provides a platform for knowledge sharing and maintains a credible “brand” name that is an organization with considerable legitimacy. IUCN membership
creates an identity for its members as credit worthy conservation stakeholders at the local, national, and international levels. In other words, IUCN’s logo is recognized and that provides resources and substance for their conservation efforts.

IUCN members give high values to its publication and knowledge dissemination processes. For example in the score of 1-4, the members give the aggregate score of 3.25 out of 4 regarding the importance of its knowledge for its members. See Figure 12 for additional information on findings.

Figure 12: Importance of IUCN’s service to the members

Note: data used with the permission of IUCN HQ, (obtained on July 18, 2009): these are the means of data scale 4 = Very Involved, 3 = Somewhat Involved, 2 = Slightly Involved, 1 = Not at all Involved (IUCN (2008:51). Among the 12 parameter of the knowledge dissimilation processes, providing your organization with IUCN publications has the
highest score of 3.62; enabling your organization to attend meetings / workshops organized by IUCN 3.46; and providing your organization with access to conservation and sustainable development related networks 3.42 respectively. Overall each of the parameters scores about 3.2 which is significant acknowledgement of IUCN’s product by its members.

The survey report and the interviews outcome on the familiarity about IUCN regional thematic programs indicate that a significant (65) percentage of members reported that they are not familiar with IUCN regional thematic programs. However, there is no uniformity in their responses. For example 25 percent of members from North America and the Caribbean noted that they have an idea of the thematic programs. In the other seven regions of the IUCN’s constituencies, however, only 20 percent of members noted that they had heard about the thematic programs (IUCN 2008:23), see:

- Figure 13 Members’ involvement with IUCN regional thematic programs;
- Figure 14 Members’ involvement with IUCN global thematic programs and
- Figure 15: Region wide information distribution by IUCN to its members.

Figures 13: Members involvement with IUCN Regional Thematic Programs
The member’s voices regarding their involvement with IUCN Regional Thematic Programs

- The IUCN “Work is mostly being done in a vacuum or in isolation of the members. There is no room for duplication. Local programs should create opportunities for members to engage with and implement the global program. There is a large disconnect which is not addressed by regional offices.

- I never hear from any regional or country office people at all. All I get is a lot of four color publications which I have no time to read….. Frankly I resent the printing budget. I want leadership in data networking and in development.

- Provide real support through IUCN regional offices which currently work like another NGO in the region, forgetting their role in strengthening the Union.

- Improve our relationship by understanding that the members are IUCN. We are the ones who govern, not the staff. The staff is staff, not God.
Local and regional offices provide no support. They simply compete for projects and funding. They do not address members concerns and have not direct impact on conservation issues locally…. Much more work is required to ensure that the offices address conservation and are not simply expensive administrative operations with no teeth” (IUCN 2008:30) (see the comparative analysis of the figures at the end of the section).

Figure 14: Members involvement with IUCN global Thematic Programs

Note: data used with the permission of IUCN HQ, (obtained on July 18, 2009): these are the means of data scale 4 = Very Involved, 3 = Somewhat Involved, 2 = Slightly Involved, 1 = Not at all Involved (IUCN 2008:25-26)

Members voice on involvement of global thematic programs

- “IUCN needs to institutionalize involvement of its members in its global programs. Currently, involvement seems to be on an ad hoc and individualized basis.”
- “The work of the global program does not filter down to the regions and the members in each country. There is no real reporting to us or reflections on the progress of the global programs.”
- “IUCN is too Secretariat-driven and should improve its mechanisms to involve members in the implementation of program as well as WCC decisions and resolutions. The process by which WCC decisions and resolutions are translated into work priorities and actions is not transparent and is too subject to Secretariat discretion.”
- “There is very little cross thematic cooperation in IUCN. IUCN suffers from sectionalism as many governments do. The message of Agenda 21 for sustainable development is to work across sectors. IUCN needs to learn how to do this.” (IUCN 2008:37).

Figure 15: Region wide information distribution by IUCN to its members
Voices of the members as shown in the figures:

- Some members expressed frustration at repeatedly trying to offer their services and skills to IUCN (regional offices and Commissions) without response. They appealed to the Secretariat to involve members in programs when these have the expertise and skills. The Secretariat should provide more timely responses to members’ requests. Some members reported critically that in a number of countries IUCN Secretariat works with other organizations but not with members. The Secretariat should give preferential treatment to members, not to other organizations who do not join IUCN. Overall a low number of members report involvement with IUCN global programs. The levels of involvement for global thematic areas are lower to the levels for regional thematic areas. Members report lower levels of satisfaction in environmental economics, social policy and TRAFFIC both regionally and globally (IUCN 2008:29).

These three figures on the member’s involvement in the regional, global thematic programs and the information dissemination to the members present very contrasting pictures of IUCN’s face in the eyes of the members. In the regional case, the species program appears to be the common with the mean of 2.68 (out of 4); environmental economics and traffic just 1.85 (out of 4) and in the global case social policy is focus program with the mean score of 2.84 (out of 4) and forest conservation, protected area and marine conservation were less informed programs and less supportive to the members only by 1.90, 1.87 and 1.99 scores respectively. These poor
findings also raise questions of why IUCN has not been able to communicate its major institutional strength to its members.

Overall, in using the Likert scale of 1-4, where 1 is no idea about the programs, no information and no consultation in the program framing scenario to 4, which is fully involvement in them; the mean global result is only 2.31 (Figure 18: Region wide information distribution by IUCN to its members). In another words, at the percentage level, the responses indicate that only about 60% of the members aware of what IUCN has been doing.

Similarly, with respect to knowledge the roles of the six commissions the NGO members and the commission members were not aware what commissions have been doing to help the IUCN to attain its goal. In another words, NGO leaders and commission members had no idea of what exactly these commissions’ secretariats have been doing, for whom, and for what purpose. Dissemination of information about the commissions to the members was even worse than information about the thematic programs, see figure 16.

Figure 16: Members’ involvement in the commissions.

Note: data used with the permission of IUCN HQ, (obtained on July 18, 2009): Likert scale 1-4; where 4 = very involved, 3 = somewhat involved, 2 = slightly involved, 1 = not at all involved (IUCN (2008:39)
The regional participation by members also shows a similar picture as shown in the evaluation of the thematic areas programs and as seen in the members’ involvement in the commissions. See figure 17: Members involvement with the commissions in relation to regions

Note: data used with the permission of IUCN HQ, (obtained on July 18, 2009): Likert scale 1-4; 4 = very involved, 3 = somewhat involved, 2 = slightly involved, 1 = not at all involved (IUCN (2008:40).

Member’s voices as depicted in the figure in terms of their involvement to the commissions
• I sense that many IUCN member organizations are not aware of how they can use IUCN Commissions both to contribute to international conservation and to benefit from the exchange of information and ideas. For IUCN, Commissions are still a greatly underutilized resource. On the other hand, IUCN member organizations could do a lot more to support them.
• We are very interested in the IUCN Commissions and have great respect for their experts, but we have no way of connecting their expertise with the work of our organizations. Our IUCN membership does not provide a way for us to benefit more from the Commissions and this is a disappointment to us.
• IUCN can improve my involvement in the work of Commissions by first telling me how to get involved.
• Commissions tend to be very centralized and it is really difficult to participate.
• I don’t have a lot of hope for progress with global Commissions. I think they work at much too large a scale in an environment where real solutions are more local and regional. The function of these Commissions should be more relevant to members.
• We know very little about the various Commissions. Most of our participants (of a member organization) are poorly informed about the work of Commissions, even the specialists in issues covered by Commissions.
• Our weak involvement in the work of the Commissions is a result of our limited knowledge about how they function, and above all, what is expected of members.
• Keep members informed, stimulated and energized. I have never received a single direct communication even though I am a member of a Commission and a member of IUCN. Be more proactive and transparent in communications and information distribution (IUCN 2009:43).

In fact, figure 17 simply reflects the members’ precise reaction towards their involvement in the commissions. Furthermore, in terms of regional participation and familiarity with the commissions overall mean score is quite low: 1.77 (in the 1-4 scale). Individual regions had the following results: Africa 1.92; Meso & South America 1.86; North America & Caribbean1.62; South & East Asia 1.77; West Asia 1.57; Oceania 1.78; East Europe, North & Central Asia 2.04; and 1.66 for West Europe. These results are troubling because one of the major strengths of IUCN is intend to be creating knowledge for use at various scales (local to international) and creating a platform for collaboration efforts with members. Whenever there is major gap between the members and the commissions, national committees and secretariat, then a serious question arises – how do the members feel “about the value of the knowledge” itself? IUCN is a knowledge producing organizations; and a neutral forum for governments, NGOs, scientists, business and local communities to find pragmatic solutions to conservation and development challenges. However that is not all. IUCN also works on-the-ground with its members to influence, encourage and assist them in their efforts throughout the world to conserve the
integrity and diversity of nature as well as to ensure that their use of natural resources is both equitable and ecologically sustainable. IUCN officials particularly from the memberships units have acknowledged this weakness and submitted these agendas for improvement. However, there is no record yet about any initiative to overcome this issue.

Figure 18: Members awareness about IUCN’s Governance Structure/ Arrangements

![Bar chart showing members awareness about IUCN's Governance Structure/Arrangements](image)

Note data used with the permission of IUCN HQ, (obtained on July 18, 2009): Likert scale 1-4; where 4 = very involved, 3 = somewhat involved, 2 = slightly involved, 1 = not at all involved (IUCN 2008:40).

Figure 18 shows that most regional members have some level of familiarity with IUCN’s governance process. On a Likert scale of 1-4, the overall familiarity score is 2.5 (aggregate score of 8 regions); whereas familiarity on Regional Conservation Forum scores 2.11; National Committee 2.91; Regional Councilors from region 2.50; IUCN Council 2.38 and the Members Assembly, World Conservation Congress scores 2.82 respectively. Similarly, aggregate
familiarity, North America & Caribbean scores only 2.006; followed by West Europe 2.384; Africa 2.486; East Europe, North & Central Asia 2.6; South & East Asia 2.782; Meso & South America 2.81; Oceania 3.024 and largest score holds the West Asia with 3.192 out of 4 highest scores. The familiarity score on governance is slightly better in comparison to awareness about the activities of IUCN programs and commissions.

As a membership organization, IUCN officials claim (during face to face interviews) that one of its roles is to empower the members and if the members are taking hold of special issues, it is a matter of satisfaction. However, the members do not take this scenario easily. They say “IUCN is ignoring its members’ stake, favoring only those from which IUCN could get funding and other supports. IUCN is also not coordinating with members in preparing programs, implementation and also not helping members to highlight their agendas, in which we hold the first hand information and knowledge. We need to work together to address the local to national issues, with the combined efforts of the states and NGOs. IUCN as an umbrella organization holds the power for the collaborative work, but, it competes with members for the same funding, which creates the unseen tension between us” (combined voice from the focus group discussion in Barcelona 2008). These statements are only from the members of the South Asian region. However, the voices of the members enlisted in the survey report with global coverage also reveals a similar perception of the role of IUCN.

Members are the strength, identity and the public face of IUCN. However, either the secretariat is not well equipped to disseminate information to the members or members are not in a position to understand what has been communicated. This serious problem needs further research to unveil why IUCN and its members have these disconnects. This chapter explored a few of the blind spots of IUCN related to how familiar or unfamiliar its members were with
IUCN, its themes, missions and activities, which basically shows the members’ dissatisfaction with the working structure of IUCN. The chapter shows that the member value the IUCN; however, they are not fully satisfied with its working procedures. IUCN’s is a membership organization but it lacks coordination with its members. IUCN needs to better prepare its programs that have better coordination with its members. The following chapter further investigates the strengths and weaknesses of the IUCN.
CHAPTER VI

The strengths and weaknesses of the IUCN

The framework of organizational evaluation

There is nothing better known in the field of organizations, perhaps in all of sociology, than Weber’s model of bureaucracy. It also happens that there is no more complete misunderstanding of major sociological theory than the way Weber’s organizational theory was treated in American Sociology (Collins 1986:286).

Chapter five explored a few blind spots of IUCN related to how familiar or unfamiliar its members were with IUCN, its themes, missions and activities. There is no denial of the importance of IUCN’s role, which is to empower the national states to find pragmatic solutions to earth’s most pressing environmental and developmental challenges. This chapter goes one step further, however, and explores IUCN’s strengths and weaknesses. This assessment is based on interviews of organizational members, IUCN volunteer councilors, and secretariat officials, as well as related documents.

As an international organization, IUCN holds many puzzling forms because of its membership’s structure. It emerged as well under widely varying environmental conditions. As a consequence it has had to deal with complexities within and from outside the organization. As such, this chapter does not evaluate IUCN’s organizational performances but appraises its position as a knowledge producer and as a conservation-focused organization on the basis of its stakeholders opinions collected through emails, face to face interviews, focus group discussions and secondary sources [i.e. the reports of external and internal evaluations from various years].

IUCN utilizes various performance evaluation processes, namely (1) basic (job specific competencies), (2) economic, (3) program impact, (4) analytical, (5) operative, (6) evaluation of results, and (7) personnel evaluation processes (IUCN 2008). To evaluate itself, IUCN also uses an approach it calls Meta Evaluation. Meta Evaluation is a systematic review of previous
evaluations and reviews conducted by IUCN. Similarly, IUCN also engages other types of evaluation protocols. These include Synthesis Evaluation which is evaluation of annual reports. It also conducts periodic review of policies. A policy evaluation is a systematic review of Council-approved policies of environment management (IUCN 2001:1-2).

An IUCN document published in 2008, lists major strengths as follows:

- IUCN brings people and organizations together to resolve critical issues (involvement in the various Worlds’ forums, conferences of parties and Commission related to nature conservation)
- IUCN deploys scientific knowledge to support conservation and sustainable use (development and implementation of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD); the Ramsar and CITES Conventions; and the system for assessment of threatened species).
- IUCN forges links between the policy and practice of conservation (workings of international conventions; assistance to countries in the development of national conservation strategies and national biodiversity action plans; and working with local communities and member organizations to test solutions to challenges at the local level)
- IUCN strengthens the capacities of countries and NGOs to manage resources in a sustainable manner (Developing the capacity of local NGOs is an important contribution to the development of civil society).
- IUCN builds environmental awareness, through its high quality publications and capacity building activities with members and partners;
- IUCN advocates the importance of the environment at local, national, regional and global levels, and in many fora and sectors of society where this is new on the agenda;
- IUCN analyses and disseminates information on conservation and development, e.g., through establishing the Biodiversity Conservation Information System (BCIS) together with commissions and members; and the Environmental Law Information Service, together with UNEP (IUCN 2000:8).

Based on the statements listed above, research participant’s response and IUCN’s own evaluation and reporting, IUCN positions itself as a unique and strong conservation organization.

In terms of strengths, IUCN is a unique and respected international organization. As one of the research participant states:

“I consider IUCN as a lead international/global agency in the field of conservation. The organization distinctly takes lead in collection of required information on landscapes, ecosystems, species, communities, etc. and its dissemination. They also develop strategic planning for future actions. In my opinion, most of the publications are of high quality and of immense use by wider groups. Role played by most of the NGOs (WWF, TNC, etc.) is more site specific and of "execution" in nature. UN organizations (FAO, UNEP, and UNDP) have specific mandates and being UN organizations they have played significant roles since their establishment. I am familiar with outstanding contribution by the FAO and UNDP. FAO has generated enormous information on various subjects related to Forestry and Agriculture. They have wide spread presence by their number of successfully implemented projects. Capacity building is one of the important mandates. In recent years, emphasis is on local communities and approaches to sustainable livelihoods. Undoubtedly, the IUCN, WWF, FAO, UNDP, etc. have an effective global network and these organizations can initiate any activity with the support of its members/
country organizations… “Probably, IUCN is one of the few organizations in the field of conservation which
tries to identify the global concerns and generate information, develop opinion/ action plans in consultation with
its large number of members, Commissions, etc.” (Email response from the IUCN commission member 2009)

Likewise one of the commissions chairs states:

Its strength is the government and non-government members, so it can convene across civil society and
government - agreements to discuss and create a platform for negotiations, discussions, and agreements. And
the other strength is commissions and scientific expertise

Its weaknesses are that it is hard to govern, because they are so many interests, and so to get agreement on any
issues takes long time. It’s also not easy for the Director-General or the Council to make decisions without
going through significant processes.
So the weaknesses are: it’s hard to make decisions, and the politics can get quite difficult – people play for
political gains . . . maybe you’ve noticed! (Email response from the IUCN commission chair 2009)

Similarly, the Summary of the External Review of IUCN Program (2000:1) also asserts this
notion and notes that IUCN gains its strength from its membership – a worldwide constituency
of governments and NGOs that share the common mission of the Union. It has its technical base
in thousands of conservation scientists who contribute voluntarily in global Commissions. It has
a competent and dedicated Secretariat, serving, driving and delivering at global, regional and
local levels. IUCN is an engaged and important member of the world conservation community.
Its work is essential because of its deep legitimacy and global reach. It is considered highly
professional and its policy statements are balanced. The complexity of the Union is its most
precious asset but also its major liability. The richness of ideas, views, people, cultures and
political systems in IUCN’s everyday world must be balanced into a working organization.

Major challenges of IUCN

By its nature, IUCN is one of the most difficult organizations to explore. Even IUCN’s own
review documents admit that fact. It has almost every conceivable component of organizational
diversity. It comprises not only different cultures, but also works in many different geographic
area, political systems, and development situations. In addition, it is a vast decentralized
organization that draws upon different members and talents including an army of volunteers and
professionals, with both government and non-government members. It is an organization with
relatively autonomous regional and country offices and its members collectively work at various scales from locally on the ground to being a major policy actor at the global level. The governance, strategic management and operation of such a body represent unique and difficult challenges. The complexity of IUCN is partly constitutional, deriving from basic ideas with which the Union was launched in 1948 and from the subsequent growth and structural changes, particularly during the two last decades. These changes have substantially altered the governance and strategic management challenges facing the Union (Task force 2003, External review 2003:9, review 2008:40). These reports also note how the change in complexity has been occurring. The major identified changes include:

- the evolving interpretation of the concept of conservation, reflected in changes in the mission and strategy of the Union;
- the regionalization of IUCN’s resources, operations and management;
- the integration and systematization of the Union’s delivery system, from programming through execution to monitoring and evaluation;
- the enormous growth in the scale of the Union’s work, with its operational and managerial complexity and the strategic and economic risks that it carries;
- new financial relations with some of IUCN’s main donors, which have gradually evolved from project-by-project funding to confidence based unrestricted framework agreements. (IUCN 2008:39)

However, to cope with these changes, there has not been sufficient reform in its governance system. As noted above the demand for its knowledge in the national and international forums has been increased substantially but the governance reforms in IUCN have led to little real change. The external reviews of 2003 and 2007 which were presented in the 4th World Congress (2008), clearly noted that if the current governance reform process also fails to deliver substantial reform, there is a good chance that the governance mechanism of the Union (or the weakness thereof) will become a major factor holding IUCN back from realizing its potential as the world’s premier conservation organization (IUCN Governance Task Force, 2003:9; repeated in review 2008:40).
Having these scenarios of the lack of organizational reform, IUCN has been also facing various challenges, particularly being unable to meet the expectation of its global conservation partners including its own members. The various internal and external evaluations reports note that the governance structure; growth and decentralization of the Secretariat; financial resources and external competitions are the key challenge of IUCN. The research respondents from World Congress Meeting sites as well as in the program sites- Amman, Barcelona, Gland, Bangkok, Karachi, Dhaka and Kathmandu and other parts of world (who responded by emails), also repeatedly mentioned the same points as the major challenges of IUCN.

Organizational complexity is the *first* challenge. All evaluation reports and the research respondents clearly indicate that IUCN is a unique membership-based organization and accept the fact that its current bi-cameral governance structure would be recreated today. This is because of membership structure (hybrid membership including governments, NGOs, and individuals through commissions). However, the respondents accept the case that IUCN has not been able to maintain constructive relationships between its constituent parts – the membership, Commissions and Secretariats. The major concern is its operational procedures; it fails in effectively engaging its membership in program and policy planning to the implementation of field projects. Similarly, the research participants not only blame the secretariats but comment upon the inefficiency of the council, which is the major body of organizational management.

The *second* challenge is the growth and decentralization of the Secretariat. The respondents observe that decentralization of the Secretariat is problematic because of the lack of collaboration and communication across functional units and regional offices. The Summary of 2007 External Review (2008) notes that a smaller organization can rely on informal networking and still function quite well but an organization that operates from more than 60 locations and
has more than 1000 staff needs strong organization-wide systems and processes. These include clear accountability for who does what and who informs whom. IUCN lacks sufficiently clear and consistent systems and processes to manage the Secretariat (IUCN 2008:1). A similar observation was made by several IUCN exOfficials during a focus group discussion in Barcelona (I conducted a focus group discussion during World Congress in 2008).

In fact, similar concerns were raised by all research participants from Nepal and India during the face to face interviews. This clearly indicates that IUCN is unable to cope with public expectations and also missing in managing its communication network. However, the senior most officials of IUCN look at these phenomena in a slightly different way.

The first thing to remember, as I said, that 20-odd years ago we decentralized. And we’ve also grown very fast. We’ve had a growth rate of somewhere between 3 and 6 percent per year, which if that’s human population that’s enormous. It’s a very fast growth rate and when I joined IUCN in 1996 I think we were around SUS 45M and now we’re SUS145M – in 11 years. So that’s an extremely fast growth rate. Also when I joined IUCN I think we had three or four regional offices, at one stage we went up to 10, and now we’re back down to 8 regional offices plus two outpost functions, US and Mediterranean. So we’ve established new areas, we had probably 10 to 12 country programs, now about 26-30. We had some of those before; you know Nepal had a country program for many years. So the complexity of the organization has grown. What has not totally kept up with that is all of the organizational procedures and policies and infrastructure to deal with a decentralized organization. The change management process that’s been in place for the last 5-6 years has been about building those infrastructures so that there’s a common . . . whether you’re in Bangladesh or Botswana, the procedures are the same.

[Focus group contains the NGO leaders, past and current (as of 2008) commission chairs, exOfficials who were the participants at the World Congress in Barcelona].

Focus group views on IUCN decentralization:

In the Secretariat, well, the decentralization . . . in the Secretariat itself, there’s always a center-periphery tension – it’s a sociological issue. It can at times be very strong and it’s natural in a decentralized organization . . . what do you mean, is it devolution or decentralization? Is it simply we’re putting things out there with central control? Or is it decentralizing the control to regions? And when you decentralize, how do you do that, and maintain standards? How do we ensure that what we do in South America is equivalent standard – might be different things, but equivalent standard to Asia. That’s a real problem in the Secretariat. As we said, we decentralized the Secretariat into a vacuum. The procedures, the standards, the systems were not in place and it grew very quickly, so the second problem is that we didn’t have time to build the systems because we were too busy growing. Now you’ve got a situation, as I said, that in the last five years we’ve been trying to catch that up, but all of the systems are not fully in place. We have a major problem that the technology that underpins all our systems is old-fashioned. We don’t have a good internet-based system, we don’t have voice-over internet for telephones, we don’t – we can’t access information in Bangkok, they can’t access my information. That’s a real organizational weakness. We think the Secretariat works extremely well together, the governance structures internally work very well, the Secretariat are extremely hard-working, mostly gets some very nice people, most places. The lack of finance means we’ve had recent problems with having to dismiss some people – that creates tension. What else in terms of organizational problems? We would see mainly it revolves around...
not having a complete set of standards, procedures, and the things that underpin that, like the technology, the internet technology. It’s not modern. We have a very good planning cycle. We have a situation analysis that looks at things. We have a planning system that works extremely well, both financially and programmatically. That is decentralized now, right down to national level. In theory, where we started the discussion from what?

This perspective assures us of the importance of decentralization but also accepts the complication of such an organization. The third perspective from the members’ side was more favoring the top officials of IUCN; their concern was only the lack of coordination by the regional offices with the members. By and large, decentralization as such is not problematic if the communication network were strengthened in the program venues of IUCN system.

The third major challenge, financial resources, is universal for all donor-dependent organizations. As seen in the financial section of this research, IUCN has achieved impressive results with available resources but its current financial model is weak and unsustainable. IUCN derives at least 85 percent of its income from Overseas Development Assistance [ODA: ODA is “Flows of official financing administered with the promotion of the economic development and welfare of developing countries as the main objective, and which are concessional in character with a grant element of at least 25 percent (using a fixed 10 percent rate of discount). By convention, ODA flows comprise contributions of donor government agencies, at all levels, to developing countries (“bilateral ODA”) and to multilateral institutions. ODA receipts comprise disbursements by bilateral donors and multilateral institutions” OECD term statistic 2003; IMF 2003] funding through a limited number of OECD countries and about 73 percent of its income is restricted to specific ODA funded projects. Only about 11 percent of income is unrestricted, including fees from its members (IUCN balance sheets and other sources 2004-2008; IUCN 2008-2, 2010). Reflecting on this constraint one of the current commission chairs mentioned the issue in face-to-face interview (Barcelona World Conservation Congress 2008):

IUCN needs to get off its dependence on public funding. It needs to find new innovative ways to get more flexible money. And it needs to have a big expansion of its membership, especially the government membership – not enough governments are represented. In your region most of the governments are...
represented, though not Bhutan, not Myanmar – but most of the other governments are. So we need many more state members. I think we want all the governments of the world to be represented, and more NGOs.

The senior management officials accept the problems created by the lack of the funding but are thinking through some possible solutions:

The major challenge that we face is just the limited resources relative to the expectations that we have to cover. Every organization says that, but I have worked in many agencies before IUCN and the disparity between expectation and resources is much higher in IUCN than in any other organization, so that’s a fundamental challenge. It’s an opportunity and a challenge that we are a voluntary network so there are people in that network and WCPA and Commission on Protected Areas have 1400 members in 160 countries – these people are not staff so I can’t direct them. So it’s a question of having a different way of working in a way that looks at mutually agreed outcomes which are good for the volunteer and for the staff. It’s a challenge but it’s an opportunity also. There’s a challenge in the agenda being so big for conservation and for protected areas particularly, so that the challenge is to focus where we can really make a difference. Some things we do better and those are the four areas I mentioned, and that’s what we are trying to focus on over the next four years (Barcelona World Conservation Congress 2008).

The annual report of 2009, published in 2010, repeats the same statement and states that IUCN needs to search for an alternative model to address its financial crisis. However, the 2009 financial distribution scenarios show no change and diversification in funding distribution in the IUCN system. In this respect, the external evaluation report of 2007, had noted that it is remarkable what IUCN has achieved given the resources available to it. IUCN’s current financial model is weak and likely unsustainable. These resource constraints severely limit how well IUCN can respond to the many demands on the Union for collaboration and action.

On the issue of transparency in financial management none of the respondents pointed to a problem. A senior official noted that (Barcelona World Conservation Congress 2008):

One of those of course is about finance, the accountability of finances. We have a single finance system but it comprises something like 72 ledgers – there are a lot of different ledgers because there’s one for each country. We’re just in the process of putting in something called the? An-enterprise Resource Planning System, which will be an internet-based finance system, so whether you’re in Bangladesh or Botswana or whatever you’ll be able to access the finances, and the records will all be stored. We do abide by international audit requirements, we abide by Swiss audit, we’re in the place of putting in the most recent accountability standards – just been changed in Switzerland a year and a half ago. We should be compliant with that audit I would guess in late 2010 – it takes a long time to do. We have an annual external auditor. We have an internal auditor – we try to get six audits a year done. It’s not always achieved but we try to do six internal audits a year plus several external audits. The external auditor does headquarters every year, and does a selection of regional or country offices. So we’ve always passed audit. In terms of that accountability we also have a set of all the policies, if you would like to see them. There’s a set of policies on finance-related policies, on things like reserves, on how money is managed, on banking, on financial controls, we have an anti-fraud policy, policies on human
resource issues. All of that is very strongly accountable and all managing staff has had to sign that they’ve read and understood all of these. Those things all exist. They’re not 100 percent complete, for example we don’t have . . . some policies that are not quite finished yet on what’s called disaster recovery, so if your computers are stolen, if your database crashes, we don’t have that policy universally in place at the moment. They’re slowly coming, and yes, you can get access to them, like any bureaucracy we’ve got policies; they’re consistent policies whether you’re in Bangladesh or elsewhere, but many of the policies have room for local adaptation: you can’t change the core of the policy but you can add things on, so you can modify them to suit Bangladesh law. Our first and foremost thing is we have to be compliant with national law. In some places the national law precludes certain things or requires certain things that we would do.

The *Fourth* challenge, as noted in the IUCN Summary of the 2007 External Review, is that IUCN lacks some of the fundamental tools such as a state of the art Management Information System (MIS) to remain organizationally competitive in a rapidly changing business climate. To some extent IUCN needs to reinvent itself if it is to maintain its leadership as the voice for nature and sustainable use of natural resources (IUCN 2008:2-3). However, the research respondents are optimistic about IUCN’s position because they say that IUCN holds a unique position in nature conservation.

Because it provides a neutral forum where government and non-governments can step aside from their positions which can be confrontational to try and reach in a neutral forum, which is that they are all members of IUCN, some agreed results which can be very useful, so we discussed this morning a government and non-government motion relating to Tasmanian forests, which is very controversial, and we were able to reach a useful compromise text (as one example of that). There are many others. It’s still a reality, it’s still challenging, but this bridge-building role does provide a real avenue where civil society is not sitting in the back of the room, they’re at the table and a real actor [research participant from Australia in Barcelona 2008]

As the external reviews of 2000 note, what is lacking in its position is the leadership for reaching conclusions and for taking the requisite action. This has generated serious confusion, frustration and disorientation among management and staff at all levels. Thus, the high quality and intellectual capacity of the staff of the Union have not been used to their real potential. The Union appears scattered in many unrelated fields and depends almost totally on the drive and commitment of the individuals involved. Good performance is usually achieved despite this problem, rather than because of the lack of coherent organizational structure of IUCN. The Union’s ‘program’ has tended to be a synthetic, *post hoc* rationalization of ongoing activities. It has not provided a mechanism to link and synchronize priority activities with corresponding
budgetary commitments (IUCN 2000:1-3. This comment was repeated in the 2003, 2005 and also in the 2007 external evaluation reports). This indicates that the organization has failed to utilize these recommendations.

IUCN’s members highly regard IUCN as an umbrella organization for sustainable development.

As stated by a member from the USA:

“Caring for the Earth: A Strategy for Sustainable Living….needs to be revived as a handbook for the Future of Sustainability Initiative….IUCN is in a unique position in the conservation community to promote the new-old concept of environmental sustainability: the most important constituency for change can be found in IUCN members, specifically its member states and state agencies”. (Jeanrenaud 2007:3-25)

Member from UK states:

“IUCN was once already at the forefront of developing sustainable thinking, with the World Conservation Strategy in the 1980s….The problem is – why has it not been continuing to do this? The problem is really the need for a new type of organization that can aggressively lobby for alternative patterns of development, without being seen as an ‘interest group’, and yet using only partial information and evidence for the optimality of alternatives”. (Jeanrenaud 2007:3-25)

Member from Pakistan:

“The mantle of leadership rests on us at IUCN and our colleagues in like-minded sister organizations. We have to do things differently by emphasizing not the headquarters but the regional levels. The work at the regional levels shall be the most important”… “The future of sustainability lies not in redefining it, but making it the underpinnings of the social movements and in developing communities of practice, especially focusing on empowerment of people through ownership rights to the poor, decentralized governance in fragile ecosystems and investments in capacity building of local level community based participatory institutions.” (Jeanrenaud 2007:3-25)

Likewise, the Member from New Zealand states:

“IUCN is probably in a stronger position than ever before to become the central moral agency of sustainability” (taken from the Jeanrenaud 2007:3-25).

These quotes above present a very strong expectation of IUCN should maintain its identity as an organization of sustainable development. However, the concept of sustainability is comprised of many challenging issues within the IUCN system. Jeanrenaud (2007) has outlined them in the following order table 10.

Table 10: Summary of Challenges and Innovations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Innovations</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Concept of Sustainable</td>
<td>Recognition that the three-pillar model is flawed. Sustainable development has lost its ecological sharp edge. Language has been hijacked by powerful and vested interests.</td>
<td>New models of sustainable development: ecosystem as foundation and life support. New ways of framing sustainability. Beyond 'concepts' to communities of practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Condition of Natural</td>
<td>Millennium ecosystem challenges The ‘double extinction crises – loss of cultural diversity. Uncertainties in biodiversity</td>
<td>Innovations in 'sustainability sciences'/systems thinking. Cultural and biological diversity for resilient societies. Call for the democratization of</td>
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<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>Role of Science</th>
<th>science. Over-emphasis on western epistemologies. Science is too slow and fixated on ‘how much’ impact.</th>
<th>science/a ‘new science project’ for the 21st century</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Source: Jeanrenaud 2007:26

Based on the Jeanrenaud (2007) report, I discussed these challenges during both focus group and face to face interviews while at IUCN HQ in Gland, Switzerland (in June 2009).

Largely, the officials accepted the challenges, however, they also noted that these issues have been incorporated in one or another of the thematic programs of IUCN, “Green Economy” and “Business and Biodiversity”. These programs aim to encourage greater convergence between conservation and business interests and to reach beyond the environmental community, through the Green Economy Network. This network coordinates and facilitates related work across the Union’s programs, commissions and member organizations. It is made by IUCN secretariat, commissions, and membership, as well as from partner organizations (IUCN 2010). However, the business and biodiversity program is hotly debated among members and its future directions are unclear. According to the Situation Analysis for Enhancing IUCN Interaction with the Private Sector report (2005), the concept is not clear even to the program implementer.
What do Secretariat staff and Commission members say about IUCN capacity to deliver service to the business sector?

“We don’t know what companies are looking for. We aren’t able to speak the same language. We don’t know what’s interesting to them”... “IUCN lacks the expertise and knowledge”; “Engagement with the private sector is making the gaps [in membership vision, ethics, management culture, program process and structure] visible, but it is not the cause of the issues or the gaps....can it be part of the solution?” “We need to educate staff on the risks and opportunities” “We need to have a broad understanding of how [a business sector we wish to engage with] works, of what they are doing. It is up to us to find the hooks”; “We need to build our credibility” “We are often arrogant in our approach to business”; “We will need a sharing, learning environment to achieve the change we need to engage with the private sector” (IUCN 2005:29).

The listed views of IUCN officials indicate that the business sector programs are not satisfactory. However, it is in operation method, the projects with such major corporations such as: Holcim, International Council on Mining and Metals (ICMM), Nestlé Nespresso, Rio Tinto, Shell and IUCN’s Partnership with the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) (the detail is noted in the section titled Business and Biodiversity-The program of controversies and focus). However, so far, there are not many programs in focusing the challenges of sustainability.

The weakness of IUCN

Having a complex and cumbersome governance structure, massive organizational expansion and decentralization of the secretariat, issues with proper communications, inadequate financial resources, and external competitions are the major challenges facing IUCN today. With acknowledgement of these challenges the following section briefly presents the stakeholder’s thoughts on some of these issues based upon field data (collected during 2008-2009), and the external evaluation reports, published during 1990 to 2010.

The member views of the IUCN system
The members concerned are briefly explained in the section titled Stake of the members in IUCN system. It seems that members strongly value IUCN; however, their major dissatisfaction is the lack of specialized programs in the country-specific cases. Several members and the past councilors and chair of the commissions also repeatedly stated that the major weakness of IUCN is its unfocused programs. Here are few comments: [based on the external reviews 2008 and research participants opinion]

- Work is mostly being done in a vacuum or in isolation of the members. There is no room for duplication. Local programs should create opportunities for members to engage with and implement the global program. There is a large disconnect which is not addressed by regional offices.
- I never hear from any regional or country office people at all. All I get is a lot of four color publications which I have no time to read…. Frankly I resent the printing budget. I want leadership in data networking and in development.
- Local and regional offices provide no support. They simply compete for projects and funding. They do not address members concerns and have not direct impact on conservation issues locally…. Much more work is required to ensure that the offices address conservation and are not simply expensive administrative operations with no teeth"
- IUCN is too Secretariat-driven and should improve its mechanisms to involve members in the implementation of program as well as World Conservation Congress (WCC) decisions and resolutions. The process by which WCC decisions and resolutions are translated into work priorities and actions is not transparent and is too subject to Secretariat discretion” (also in IUCN 2008:30)
- Weaknesses of IUCN: it’s not focused on impact. They do all kinds of things, they’re spread very thin, and they don’t have real lasting results. A weakness for me, the policy arena: they produced the drafts for the Biodiversity Convention that may have results for information, that those were instrumental for the scientists’ lists, that they are making this Red Book, but in terms that you can see IUCN really changed things? . . . . That is all dollars driven; they’re all things that keep all these people happily in their salaries, but a real impact of a change nature for the better in a country? No, Not at all.

Similar concerns were raised by the research participants of India and Nepal. However, regarding the resolution process IUCN officials have to say something like as democratic process and the strength. For example:

The way that we go about building that Program is we look at three or four things at once. One is we look at the body of IUCN policy that we have, which is generated by members through resolution process at Congress; there tends to be themes that emerge from that, that are relevant to nation-states, because nothing can get approved at Congress if nation-states don’t also go for it, so, for example, we have a lot of resolutions about protected areas, about species, about business, about forests and water and climate change and all that sort of thing. So that’s one tool we use to make sure it’s relevant to nation-states. … And it still passes – a key sociological issue. That also is strength, but it also is a weakness. I think the chair of the resolutions committee described it as ‘approval by neglect’ and said that because people don’t bother to vote and if only a few people vote but if it’s more than 50 percent that did vote say yes, then . . . by neglect, or sometimes people just vote yes because they don’t know what the issue is . . . there is a challenge there about how focused the program of work can be.

On the other side, NGOs leaders comment on the lack of the information regarding the resolution implementation process.
In connection with this, the external reviews of 2007, published in 2008, summarizes the members concerned in the following order, which is similar with the research respondents.

- There is a gap between IUCN’s strategic intentions and member expectations on the one hand and secretariat capacities and priorities on the other.
- Members have different priorities from those reflected in the secretariat.
- Organizational systems and operational procedures within the Secretariat need to change if “membership engagement is everyone’s business”
- Members look to IUCN for networking so IUCN should strengthen its capacity to support members to work together and with the Commissions
- IUCN publications are highly appreciated by members and their value could be further increased.
- Most members are only marginally involved in the IUCN Program, and do not see it as driven and “owned” by members.
- The gap between member profile and program is widening. The 2009-2012 Program requires more expertise in areas that do not match the skill and interest profiles of the majority of members.
- Some members are critical of the way the secretariat delivers the Program citing competition with members and working outside of its technical expertise.
- Members want to be able to play a larger role in IUCN policy setting than they currently do.
- Members look to IUCN for support in policy work
- The three core elements in IUCN’s value proposition to members are: networking, IUCN’s convening power, and governmental and non-governmental members sharing the same platforms from local to global levels.
- Many of IUCN’s strengths and weaknesses are the same in 2007 as in 1994 with organizational weaknesses deepening.
- IUCN can do better to support good management of its partnerships and alliances
- The Membership Strategy 2005-2008 has not been made operational with specific objectives and performance measures. For the most part it has not been implemented, and with the exception of the IUCN Member Survey, little effort has been made to measure results.
- The membership strategy and recruitment and retention guidelines need revision based on a rethinking of IUCN’s membership policy as an integral part of IUCN’s strategy for the future of the Union (External review 2007:vi-viii and also in 11).

One of the distinct opinions of members about their problems with IUCN was their change of working modality from policy formulator and also as a program implementer (a change to project driven organization). Some members also reported critically that in a number of countries IUCN Secretariat works with other organizations but not with members.

Councilor’s views

The council is the most responsible body at IUCN in managing its affairs. Consequently it needs to be the unit to heal the cracks in the organization’s body at is IUCN. To reiterate, the Council is composed of: the President; (There are four Vice Presidents elected by Council from the list of Regional Councilors: the Treasurer; the Chairs of IUCN's six Commissions; three
Regional Councilors from each of IUCN’s eight Statutory Regions (Africa, Meso and South America, North America and the Caribbean, South and East Asia, West Asia, Oceania, East Europe, North and Central Asia and West Europe) (24 in total); a representative of IUCN’s Host Country - the Swiss Confederation; and five additional Councilors chosen by Council on the basis of diverse qualifications, interests and skills respectively (IUCN 2010). In summary, the council is the main responsible body for the success and failure of IUCN.

The councilors are the membership’s representatives at IUCN HQ. They have also dissatisfaction about IUCN governance approaches. Here are few comments from externals reviews reports (about IUCN’s World Congress – the general governance meetings of IUCN):

- Governance of the whole Union must be revisited given the growth of IUCN. The way IUCN works from national committees to the regions and up to Council needs to be much clearer. Members need to be more involved at the national and regional levels. Councilors need to be more connected with members’ needs and there should be stricter criteria for Councilors to make sure Council has the people of the caliber to guide the organization. There is need for some deep thought and re-examination of the whole governance question.

- “The organization was not clear on what they wanted out of this Congress” In terms of Program, there is still a lot of disquiet that has not been expressed; there is ‘resigned buy in’. There needs to be a better participatory process before and after the Congress. There are still some frustrations and concerns not expressed.”

- “At this Congress, the senior leadership of member organizations has been missing. In most cases only representatives have been here. This has a negative effect on how well the Congress can position IUCN”

- Decisions are not democratic. Moreover, they lack transparency or they are not taken at all. There is a show about transparency and democracy but the things that matter are not decided here.” And “The Congress was chaos, focus was lacking – this cannot guide the Secretariat.” (IUCN 2003:7-8,9 and 33)

- “No new motions from the floor. This is an unfair process that does not permit proper consideration of the motions and their implications for IUCN and members.”

- “We need to seriously rethink the motion process. Motions were not properly debated (except a few), and many members have little idea of what they’re voting on.” (Universalia Management Group 2009:41)

IUCN officials also have dissatisfaction with the working modalities of the Congress.

- “General participation of members in the members’ business sessions has been very poor. This participation is needed to give legitimacy to IUCN.”… it does not seem that the Congress is really dealing with the strategic issues for either IUCN as an organization or for conservation. This is a real missed opportunity…

- “Governance of IUCN is weak, and the Council is the weakest point. The relationships between the DG and Council and senior management should be examined. The Commissions are un-managed and the relationship between the members and Secretariat is not always as it should be. The relationship between HQ and regions is still not well understood. Where does governance begin and where does it end? These are the issues that need to be sorted out, and the Congress is not conducive to sorting them out.” There is a naïve assumption that all members can use a democratic process equally and to its full potential. This is not
the case. It wastes time on unimportant issues like approving the financial accounts and financial plan; these could be dealt with by Council (IUCN 2003:56-57).

These few opinions illustrate the real picture of IUCN’s programs performance as well as in management of the World Conservation Congresses which are the major convention of the IUCN system. These scenarios show its major problem with coordination within the IUCN system.

The secretariat

IUCN Secretariat has over 1,000 full-time staff in more than 60 countries. Seventy percent of staff members are from developing countries. Accountable to the IUCN Council, the Secretariat is led by a Director General (DG) and a Deputy Director General. The Secretariat has a decentralized structure with regional, outpost, country and project offices around the world. IUCN’s headquarters are in Gland, near Geneva, Switzerland (IUCN 2010). The secretariat is the main executive body and responsible to program planning to implementation. The DG or any designated person by DG represents IUCN in local and international conservation forums. The secretariats is made by the global experts in their respected fields and highly paid on the basis of global and country standards where they operate. These scenarios show that the secretariat is basically the most responsible body for the success and failure of IUCN’s stand. The higher officials at headquarters, regional office and country offices accept the notion that they are the actual face of IUCN.

In my interviews with IUCN officials, they accepted noted weaknesses in the various reviews and research outcomes discussed above; however they tend to place blame on the complexity of its system, global change, and with the financial meltdown in 2008. Comments about IUCN’s biggest challenges faced by HQ officials are as follow:

A senior official (June 2009):
this is a hybrid, one of the biggest organizations in the world, it’s because it’s such a huge organization with such different types of members, ranging from the state department in the United States to the Sierra Club which is an advocacy organization, so the main challenge is to find the middle way, a Program that all of our members agree to. Any membership organization is a challenge, a democracy is a challenge, but it’s a very worthwhile challenge, it’s a positive challenge. That’s the main challenge. It’s difficult to speak in the voice of IUCN unless our members have agreed. So our Program for 2009-2012 is a program agreed by our members but getting there is a long road, and I guess another challenge is to be able to act quickly, because we wait for our members to agree to things.

I think in a place where there is so much bureaucracy and so much organized civil society like India it hasn’t been that easy for us to find our niche, naturally and we also haven’t had the leadership there. We had real leadership in the early days in Pakistan and everything depends on that. It’s just a question of luck – as it turns out, a Pakistani woman became very important in IUCN world and she played a very strong role, well-connected through her family and all that. We haven’t had that kind of real leadership in Nepal, and Bangladesh either, and that’s really too bad for us.

I think that the organization should have succeeded in getting governments to take seriously the importance of healthy ecosystems, as a contribution to adaptation and mitigation of climate change, but also as our life support system; that we need to respect nature – pay for it and protect it, because in fact it’s not a luxury but an absolutely essential part of our lives, and I think our organization should have contributed to that understanding.

Chief Scientist (June 2009):

I think that the biggest problem is one that we deny exists, that we are donor driven, and we deny that it’s true, but it is true. The source of money really does make a difference. And so, I’m the chief scientist, so I try to promote science. None of our donors will give us money for science – they give us money for projects. That’s the problem that we have. That’s number one. Then a second kind of problem is that we have . . . maybe we’ve grown too fast, and we have too many members that have too many different ideas and sometimes it prevents us from addressing some of the issues that we really should address. So because of our membership we are not allowed to talk about genetically modified organisms, which to me is an incredibly important issue, and not for us to promote it, that’s not what I have in mind, but to look at it seriously – yes, what are the benefits, what are the costs, and I think the governments would really like to know, but we’re not allowed to because our members have said “no-no, you must have a moratorium”, and “that’s a totally un-scientific issue, it’s just a belief that these things are somehow going to cause trouble”. Well maybe they are, but we don’t have any evidence of that. So that’s another problem. But it really comes down to money. Our budget is our problem. And where the budget comes from? And that in turn influences who we hire. And so the people that we hire to work for IUCN are people who are good at project management. They’re not necessarily good scientists – that’s not the criterion. The criteria are can you manage a project, can you raise money, not can you figure out the range of the giant panda – that’s what our Commission members do – so we have network managers, who work within the Secretariat, and a few scientists, we do have a few, but few.

To sum up, all levels of personnel at the secretariat accept that there a number of important challenges. The only “readymade” answer that I heard frequently was the “we are trying our best to cope with the situation”. One of the important aspects comes through the interacting process is the theoretical support of IUCN programs. The following are few theoretical discussions among the scholars of IUCN.

IUCN helps by participating in environmental regimes (the summary of the focus group discussion on regime theory) (June 2009)
We did an analysis of IUCN’s policy work and one of the big conclusions we came to was that the day of forming environmental regimes – the big agreements, the big conventions – has largely passed. Because conventions are written and for IUCN to have the type of influence that it wants to have it really needs to be there on the invitation side. So take the Convention on Biological Diversity and maybe we’ll take the Climate Change Convention as well. We still know that the CBD is not well implemented at national level, that we’re still losing biodiversity, that the regime of the CBD itself still creates headaches for national governments because when you look at the CBD in the context of CITES, the convention on Migratory Species, the Climate Change Convention – there are so many different conventions out. There’s two problems, one, if you’re in the Ministry of Environment trying to implement the CBD, how to do it on the ground. The second problem is how to do it without contradicting your Climate Change obligations, or your Migratory Species obligations, or your Trade in Endangered Species obligations. So IUCN is trying to work on both of those things, but I think we do need to be doing more. We need to be doing more to implement conventions; we need to be doing more to teach governments how to reconcile the differences between them. We do have the Environmental Law Centre, and they take care of the law and conciliation part and we do have field based programs that work on the implementation of these things. But what we’ve found ourselves . . . this is a little bit unfortunate . . . we’ve found ourselves in competition with our membership: we’re doing a program, World Wildlife Fund is doing a program, Conservation International is doing a program, NCI is doing a program, and then you’ve got a whole host of little NGOs out there doing programs as well. What IUCN can and should be doing is to make sure there are no gaps in implementation, having a thorough knowledge of what is being done and being able to present a united voice. We have a Program which is supposed to be the program of us, our members and our Commissions. In practice it ends up being the program of us and our Commissions, and we’re not so sure what the members are up to. The members approach the question of what to do in different ways, so we have governments that receive allocation from parliament and they implement based on that. We have small NGOs who run ad hoc projects – no big game plan, just doing what they can. And then we have big international NGOs, some of which engage in planning processes, some of which have a broad set of targets that their franchises are supposed to be delivering towards. There’s a multiplicity of different models. Basically, when you try to do this sort of inquiry, this is where academics sometimes fall down, and this is where evaluation can kick in. In political science at least there’s a very real temptation to try to fit the data to the theory. Right? So you come up with a big understanding of international regime theory, you know, the cowhand approach, and you try to understand the object of investigation, the context of that particular theory. On the flip-side you can go at it purely from the qualitative perspective. Again, Michael Quinn Paton’s got an excellent book on qualitative data research. And you can simply take the data without bias or theory and see what the patterns are. In your particular case I’m going to suggest you probably need to do both. You need to have some sort of theoretical construct so you don’t get lost . . .

And finally, one more academic response on the question *what are the key conservation issues now and in the future* (I received via email Chief Scientist Jeffrey McNeely’s response June 2009):

The umbrella conservation issue is adapting to changing conditions. While climate change seems to have the greatest attention among the public, its ramifications reach out to issues such as loss of biodiversity, impacts of pollution, the spread of invasive alien species, and the conversion of natural habitats to domesticated ones. These issues need to be addressed in a reasonably coordinated manner, as none will be able to be successfully addressed in isolation. For example, healthy ecosystems will be essential to adapting to the climate changes that seem to be inevitable, and maintaining the richest possible biodiversity provides the widest range of options for adapting to change. Reducing pollution of air, water, and soils will improve human health and enhance productivity of both land and people. Nor can these issues be separated from cultural diversity, which provides humanity with the creativity to adapt to specific local conditions in terms of climate, natural resources, history, and so forth (this response is also available on IUCN 2009:1).

In summary, IUCN stands for conserving biodiversity, with all possible means including policy formation to program planning, project development and implementation with the
principles of public participation and wellbeing. Throughout its history it has demonstrated how biodiversity is fundamental to addressing some of the world’s greatest challenges: tackling climate changes, achieving sustainable energy, improving human well-being and building a green economy. As one of the most complex organization of the world, it has been facing fundamental challenges of managing a network of networks, including governments, NGOs, business organizations, and individuals. As other international organizations have done before, isomorphic pressures are at work forcing changes to the organization to enhance its chances for survival. This situation has created tensions among the members and IUCN. Another problem is it dependency upon donors. IUCN has created the tools for the sustainable financial model but in practice it has not implemented the tool in its finance management system. Similarly, it regularly, conducts various monitoring and evaluations, but it has been not able to implement them at program levels.

Finally, the following table summarizes the strengths and weaknesses of IUCN in 1994 and 2007.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 11: The strengths and weaknesses of IUCN in 1994 and 2007</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1994</strong> (811 members)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Same in 1994 and 2007</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strengths</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique membership structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networks of experts in the Commissions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical expertise in IUCN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Change between 1994 and 2007</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strengths</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct democratic participation of members in defining IUCN policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secretariat staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nearly 60 years of activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Same in 1994 and 2007</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Weaknesses</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of clarity and consensus in mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor communication and collaboration across Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited effectiveness of Council and General Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Change between 1994 and 2007</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Weaknesses</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapid growth is challenging management capacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate realization of its potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate attention to networking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor advocacy of Union’s policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate strategic planning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Table 11 we see the major strengths and weakness of IUCN in two different periods of time, 13 years apart. As seen in that table, IUCN still holds the Members value the knowledge resources, science-based solutions, and the prioritizing of national capacity building. Similarly, it has a global recognition as its main assets are its members, its networks of experts organized through its Commissions, and its worldwide Secretariat.

In summary, IUCN’s stakeholders are not fully satisfied with its program creation, management and implementation. Similarly, they are some communication problems especially (from secretariats) with its member. However, all research respondents assert that, IUCN has been able to maintain its global identity as a democratic conservation organization. Its stakeholders want transparency in all phases from programs development to implementation and also policy tool preparation to policy implementation. IUCN is a network of networks; therefore, special attention is needed to maintain them. It is true that it has several challenges but those challenges are not out of reach and unmanageable. This chapter revealed the strengths and weaknesses of IUCN; whereas its strengths are associated with its value proposition embedded on bottom up approaches and weaknesses are lack of incorporation of members’ views in program implementation at the global scale and also lack of financial resources to implement sufficiently the posturized programs by the members. The following chapter seven explores how the four countries are both similar and different in terms of governance and environment conservation.
CHAPTER VII

Comparative Chapter: Case studies of Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a brief background on the similarities and differences of four countries in terms of major development indicators, such as population, territory, economy, governance performance and institutional competitiveness. Similarly, this chapter also analyses environmental indicators by examining the environment performance by using environmental performance index. It also briefly unveils the forestry coverage, biodiversity and protected area management conservation practices in these four countries. The chapter also serves as the background for chapter eight that analyses why IUCN’s presence is stronger or weaker given that each of the four countries has similar histories and share similar principles of governance.

This chapter also provides a comparative situation of four very different states that range from a strong democracy and bureaucratic system (Indian), relatively medium-strength bureaucracy and weak democratic system (Pakistan) and weak bureaucracy and transitional democratic system (Nepal) and weak democracy and bureaucracy but strong NGOs and INGO influence in national development (Bangladesh). These countries similarities, differences, weaknesses and strengths are measured in terms of performances in governance (see table 12), which is the exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country’s affairs at all levels and an ongoing process of ascertaining how well, or how poorly, a government program is being provided (UNEP 1997; World Bank 2010). It involves the continuous collection of data on progress made towards achieving the program’s pre-established

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3 These four countries also hold different historical accounts. For example in August 14/15, 1947, when India and Pakistan (which includes East Pakistan: Bangladesh) became the independent Nations (from British colony). Bangladesh became independent Nation in 26 March 1971 following the nine months war with Pakistan. However, Nepal was never colonized but was the ally of the British rule in the region.
objectives. In this research I used the series of World Bank data administered by Kaufmann, Kraay and Mastruzzi (1996-2010) in the Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) project. The World Governance Index (WGI) are identified with comparison of country at large with assignment of rank and scores in terms of their performances, in given six criteria such as (1) Political Stability and Absence of Violence (2) Control of Corruption (3) Regulatory Quality (4) Government Effectiveness (5) Rule of Law, and (6) Voice and Accountability respectively (detail are discussed under the governance performance heading below). The study supports the established differences and obviously show that India has strong bureaucracy in terms of rule of law and political stability and absence of violence, Bangladesh has strong influence of domestic and international civil society organization (IUCN, WWF and other international development agencies) in terms of overall socio-economic development and environmental conservation movement, whereas Nepal is playing exemplary role in public participation in natural resource management (see environment performance section below) and Pakistan is on the way to establish the conservation regime largely influenced by IUCN and WWF. In addition, this study analyses the role of international organization especially by IUCN for conservation policy instruments development determined in large part on the basis of the administrative strength of each country.

A brief account of the four countries

Before we compare the governance performance of our four study countries, it is first to present more basic information. This information will include a brief comparative account of four countries (territory, demographics, economics, and health profiles); Governance Performance; institutional and environmental competitiveness / performance followed by the forestry coverage, biodiversity and protected area management conservation practices.
Within four countries, India is the largest territory and is the 7th largest country of the world comprising 2.1 to 2.3 percent of the planet, among the four nations followed by the Pakistan which is 36th among the largest country list, and Nepal 93th among the world country list, followed by Bangladesh 94th position among the world country list (CIA 2010). The table below shows the countries position in terms territory, demographic, economic and health services.

Table 12: A brief comparative account of four countries (territory, demographics, economics, and health profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>IND</th>
<th>PAK</th>
<th>BGD</th>
<th>NPL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>Territory (land surface in 000 Sq. Km.)</td>
<td>3287</td>
<td>796</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population density (per Sq.km. 2008)</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>1120</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total (million)</td>
<td>1181.4</td>
<td>184.4</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural (% of total)</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Over 65 years (% of total)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Young</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Old</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>GNI/capita (US$)</td>
<td>1,220</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PPP GNI/capita (US$)</td>
<td>3,280</td>
<td>2,680</td>
<td>1,550</td>
<td>1,180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Annual growth GDP (%)</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% male 15 years and older</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% female 15 years and older</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Extreme Poverty (% &lt;US$1.25 PPP)</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>55.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Indicators</td>
<td>Mortality rate, infant (per 1,000 live births)</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Life expectancy (years)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Services</td>
<td>Hospital beds (per 10,000 populations)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physicians (Density per 10000 population)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Financing</td>
<td>Total expenditure on health (% of GDP)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General government expenditure on health (% of total)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Per capita total expenditure on health (US$)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 above summarizes a brief account of four countries in terms of territory, demographic distribution, economic stand and the issues on health. As noted above, India has the 7th largest territory and the 2nd largest population in the world. Bangladesh has the largest population density in the world with 1120 people per square kilometer. Among the four countries, India has the highest annual population growth on GDP (7.3%) and Pakistan has the lowest of only 2% annually. Other aspects of socio-economic indicators are not significantly different (as the table indicates).

Governance Performance of Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan

Governments often are described as standing on three legs—economics, politics, and administration—whereas governance is the sum of the many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, manage their common affairs. It is a continuing process through which conflicting or diverse interests may be accommodated and cooperative action may be taken. It includes formal institutions and regimes empowered to enforce compliance, as well as informal arrangements that people and institutions either have agreed to or perceive to be in their interest (as in UNDP 1999:29). The efficacy of an administration depends on civil service and public financial management, government policy-making procedures, leadership, and service delivery systems (UNDP 1997, 2009).

Table 13 governance performance below summarizes the standing of the four countries of this study with regard to overall governance performance in terms of six universally applied parameters (Kaufmann; Kraay and Mastruzzi 2010). India holds the top position, followed by Bangladesh on Voice and Accountability, Political Stability and Absence of Violence, and Rule of Law (2nd among the four); Pakistan in Government Effectiveness and Regulatory Quality (2nd among four); and Nepal, which is 2nd among the four in Control of Corruption. In the category
of political stability and absence of violence Pakistan scores lowest and Nepal 8\textsuperscript{th} lowest in the world.

Table 13: Governance Performance (higher score better on rank)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Voice and Accountability (rank and estimation)</th>
<th>Political Stability and Absence of Violence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>-0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>-1.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kaufmann; Kraay and Mastruzzi 2010; Bhandari 2011

Note: World Governance Index (WGI) measures the standard normal units of the governance indicator, ranging from around -2.5 (low performance) to 2.5 (high performance), and in percentile rank terms ranging from 0 (lowest) to 100 (highest) among all countries worldwide. The column labeled "Est." provides the point estimate\textsuperscript{4}.

\textit{Summary of the results on governance performance}

\textsuperscript{4} Disclaimer (The governance indicators presented here reflect the statistical compilation of responses on the quality of governance given by a large number of enterprise, citizen and expert survey respondents in industrial and developing countries, as reported by a number of survey institutes, think tanks, non-governmental organizations, and international organizations as in Governance Matters VIII: Governance Indicators for 1996-2008).
1. Voice and Accountability (measures about political processes, civil liberties, political rights and independence of the media): is one of the major measures of governance performance, whereas India’s performance increased by 6 points from 1996 to 2008, in contrast Nepal appeared one of the worst by dropping 21 points, followed by Bangladesh by 11 and Pakistan by 8 points respectively. The reason for such a drastic fall in Nepal’s performance was the Maoist insurgency, which kept the country in turmoil for about 11 years over that period. In the case of Bangladesh and Pakistan, the reasons are the direct or indirect militarization, internal violence and power struggles.

2. Political Stability and Absence of Violence (measures the stability of government, change of government through unconstitutional or violent means): all four countries’ performance is not satisfactory in the global context. To some extent India is stable; in contrast in 1996, Nepal was the best performing country among the four, with a rank of 42, but dropped by 34 points by 2008 and was 8th among the 10 weakest performing nations. Pakistan ranked the worst and Bangladesh 10th.

3. Government Effectiveness (measures quality of public services, the quality of bureaucracies and competencies of civil services etc.): India remained almost constant over the 12 years studied, whereas, again Nepal’s performance dropped by 25 points (from 49 to 24), while Pakistan dropped by 6 and Bangladesh by only 3 points.

4. Regulatory Quality (measures policies and effectiveness in implementation): India’s performance increased by 7 points, Pakistan’s by 6 points, Nepal by 4 points; in contrast Bangladesh quality dropped by 14 points.
5. **Rule of Law** (*measure the extent to which agents abide the roles of society*): Bangladesh gained 3 points in 12 years; whereas Nepal appeared a major loser by 25 points, followed by Pakistan 16 points and India by 6 points.

6. **Control of Corruption** (*measures perceptions of corruption, defined as the exercise of public power for private gains*): has been considered as a serious problem of the region (UNDP 1999). In this category Pakistan gained 10 points and India 6 points, whereas again Nepal was the worst among the four, dropping 35 points (from 64 to 29) and Bangladesh 22 points (from 33 to 11), (Bhandari 2011).

In summing up, table 13 shows that overall situation is that the all four countries are performing poorly in relation to the global scenario governance performance. Among the four, India’s situation is either stable or improving incrementally and shows that India has stable government and strong bureaucracy. However Nepal’s performance dropped drastically in all categories followed by Pakistan and Bangladesh. This table also reveals that regardless of international effort, a country’s position in governance performance could not be improved until or unless the norms of governance function. The case of Nepal, for example, is frustrating picture in the sense that, it instituted a democratic government system in 1990, but has not been able to institutionalize democratic norms. Instead of keeping pace with the global scenario, Nepal’s performance has been deteriorating further every year in all six governance performance measures.

**Competitiveness of Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan**

The World Economic Forum (2010) defines “competitiveness as the set of institutions, policies, and factors that determine the level of productivity of a country. The level of productivity, in turn, sets the level of prosperity that can be earned by an economy. The
productivity level also determines the rates of return obtained by investments in an
economy, which in turn are the fundamental drivers of its growth rates. In other words, a
more competitive economy is one that is likely to grow faster over time (World Economic

WEF (2010) examines the competitiveness on the basis of three frames and twelve pillars:
Basic requirements (1-4 pillars); Efficiency enhancers (5-10 pillars), and Innovation and
sophistication factors (11-12 pillars).

Basic requirements
- The First pillar- Institutions: The institutional environment is determined by the legal and
  administrative framework within which individuals, firms, and governments interact to generate
  income and wealth in the economy.
- Second pillar: Infrastructure: Extensive and efficient infrastructure is critical for ensuring the
effective functioning of the economy, as it is an important factor determining the location of
economic activity and the kinds of activities or sectors that can develop in a particular economy.
- Third pillar: Macroeconomic environment: The stability of the macroeconomic environment is
  important for business and, therefore, is important for the overall competitiveness of a country.
- Fourth pillar: Health and primary education: A healthy workforce is vital to a country’s
  competitiveness and productivity. Workers who are ill cannot function to their potential and will
  be less productive.

Efficiency enhancers
- Fifth pillar: Higher education and training: Quality higher education and training is crucial for
economies that want to move up the value chain beyond simple production processes and
products.
- Sixth pillar: Goods market efficiency: Countries with efficient goods markets are well positioned
to produce the right mix of products and services given their particular supply-and-demand
conditions, as well as to ensure that these goods can be most effectively traded in the economy.
- Seventh pillar: Labor market efficiency: The efficiency and flexibility of the labor market are
critical for ensuring that workers are allocated to their most efficient use in the economy and
provided with incentives to give their best effort in their jobs.
- Eighth pillar: Financial market development: The recent financial crisis has highlighted the
  central role of a sound and well-functioning financial sector for economic activities.
- Ninth pillar: Technological readiness: In today’s globalized world, technology has increasingly
  become an important element for firms to compete and prosper.
- Tenth pillar: Market size: The size of the market affects productivity since large markets allow
  firms to exploit economies of scale.

Innovation and sophistication factors
- Eleventh pillar: Business sophistication: Business sophistication is conducive to higher efficiency
  in the production of goods and services.
- Twelfth pillar: Innovation: The final pillar of competitiveness is technological innovation.
  Although substantial gains can be obtained by improving institutions, building infrastructure,
reducing macroeconomic instability, or improving human capital, all these factors eventually seem to run into diminishing returns.
The World Economic Forum (2010:4-8)

**Competitiveness in 12 pillars**

The process of the competiveness evaluation is based on weighted scale. On the basis of these basic frames, each country’s competiveness is evaluated in terms of the stage of the development. All four countries of this study belong to the stage 1 among the four stages, whereas poorest performing countries are kept in the 1st and the best performing (developed countries) belongs to the 4th stage (World Economic Forum 2010). Among four, Nepal is the worse, followed by Pakistan, Bangladesh and India respectively, table 13. The Global Competitiveness Index 2010-2011 rankings and 2009-2010 comparisons.

Table 14: Global Competitiveness Index (GCI)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country/Economy</th>
<th>GCI 2010 Rank</th>
<th>GCI 2010 Score</th>
<th>GCI 2009 Rank</th>
<th>Change 2009-2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>-22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>-5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that all four countries Competitiveness level is weak, whereas Pakistan’s position dropped drastically by 22 points, Nepal 5, India 2 and Bangladesh by 1 point respectively.

India’s performance remains quite stable, falling two positions to 51st but with a small improvement in score among four. However, the rank and score in each of the 12 pillars are not same among the four countries, presented in the following four figures.

**Four Countries Competitiveness Level in Relation to the 12 Pillars (in table 14 a, b, and c)**

Table 14.a: The Global Competitiveness Index: Basic Requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country/Economy</th>
<th>Basic Requirements Rank</th>
<th>Basic Requirements Score</th>
<th>Institutions Rank</th>
<th>Institutions Score</th>
<th>Infrastructure Rank</th>
<th>Infrastructure Score</th>
<th>Macroeconomic environment Rank</th>
<th>Macroeconomic environment Score</th>
<th>Health and primary education Rank</th>
<th>Health and primary education Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>5.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For example as shown in the table 14,a, in the case of the basic requirements pillars which comprises the institutions, infrastructure and macroeconomic environment and health and primary education; Pakistan belongs to the lowest rank by 132 among 139 nations, last among the Asian countries, followed by Nepal with rank of 125 and Bangladesh 114 respectively.

However, in terms of infrastructure Nepal is the worse globally having the lowest rank of 139, whereas Bangladesh ranks 133. Among all four parameters of basic requirements, India remains to the good ranking, however in the health and primary education category it ranks 104, with the score of 5.16. Among four India is the best performer and Nepal is the worse. The cause of weak competitiveness is the same as outline in the framework of the poor governance.

Table 14, b: The Global Competitiveness Index: Efficiency enhancers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Efficiency Enhancers</th>
<th>Higher education and training</th>
<th>Goods market efficiency</th>
<th>Labor market efficiency</th>
<th>Financial market development</th>
<th>Technological readiness</th>
<th>Market Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ran</td>
<td>Scor</td>
<td>Ran</td>
<td>Scor</td>
<td>Ran</td>
<td>Scor</td>
<td>Ran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data compiled from the World Economic Forum (2010)

Similarly, as shown in table 14, b, in the case of efficiency enhancers, which is evaluated through six parameters such as higher education and training, goods market efficiency, labor market efficiency, financial market development, technological readiness, and market size; India ranks 38, followed by Pakistan 95, Bangladesh 97 and Nepal the lowest by 131 rank. Similarly,
in the case of Market size India ranks 4 in the global context, having the best infrastructure for the domestic and international market and also through the financial development, where it ranks to 17 in the world context. Again, Pakistan remains in second and Bangladesh in third position among four, whereas Nepal is even not in close in efficiency enhancers parameters.

Table 14, c: The Global Competitiveness Index: Innovation and sophistication factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Innovation and sophistication factors Rank</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Business sophistication Rank</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Innovation Rank</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>2.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>2.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data compiled from the World Economic Forum (2010)

And finally as shown in table 14, c, eleventh and twelve pillar, Innovation and sophistication factors which look at business sophistication and innovation, again India ranks 42 in the global context with the 39 rank in innovation and 44 rank in business sophistication; Pakistan score around 76 in both cases and Bangladesh belongs to the 109th rank. However, again Nepal is way below in both cases, and ranks 137 positions among 139 in the innovation. It clearly indicates that Nepal’s position in terms of competitiveness level is severely poor.

Each of these 12 pillars described above holds several parameters in course of evaluation. For example the 1st pillar: institutions has 21 variables; 2nd pillar: infrastructure has 9; 3rd pillar: macroeconomic environment, 6; health and primary education, 10; higher education and training, 8; goods market efficiency 15 and so on. All pillars variables are identical and important in measuring the competitiveness level of each country. However, it seen that (in the World Economic Forum Report of 2010), analyzing of the 1st pillar institution alone sufficiently provides the sense of the overall competitiveness level of the country, because it captures the
notion of legal and administrative framework within which individuals, firms, and governments interact to generate income and wealth in the economy.

*Institutional competitiveness in global context (in rank)*

The quality of institutions has a strong bearing on competitiveness and growth. It is important to note that the role international organization like IUCN play depends on strength and weakness of the country in terms of its overall competitiveness, including the institutional competitiveness. Less competitive would make IUCN’s involvement more likely or better served and that higher levels of competitiveness tends to limit what IUCN can do in that country. The institutional competitiveness can be measured with 21 different variables presented in table 15 below.

Here institutions refer to a number of governments related activities such as the judiciary to burden of government regulations (see table d below for the full list). It is argued that institutions influence investment decisions and the organization of production. They play a key role in the ways in which societies distribute the benefits and bear the costs of development strategies and policies (WEF 2010:4). The 21 variables presented in the table 15, show the difficulties of these four countries to position them in the current global socio-economic competition.

**Table 15: Institutional competitiveness in global context (in rank)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall competitiveness</th>
<th>India Rank (51)</th>
<th>Bangladesh Rank (107)</th>
<th>Pakistan Rank (123)</th>
<th>Nepal Rank (130)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Strength of investor protection</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Favoritism in decisions of government officials</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Judicial independence</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Transparency of government policymaking</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Wastefulness of government spending</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strength of auditing and reporting standards</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Diversion of public funds</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Burden of government regulation</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Intellectual property protection</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Efficacy of corporate boards</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Efficiency of legal framework in challenging regulations</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Reliability of police services</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Property rights</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Protection of minority shareholders’ interests</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Efficiency of legal framework in settling disputes</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Public trust of politicians</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Irregular payments and bribes</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Business costs of crime and violence</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Organized crime</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Ethical behavior of firms</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Business costs of terrorism</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data compiled from the World Economic Forum (2010)

As seen in table 15 above, the cost of terrorism, where Pakistan is 2\textsuperscript{nd} (Rank 138 among 139) and Nepal is in 3\textsuperscript{rd} (Rank 137) among the most costly countries to overcome from the terrorism. However, even India which ranks 51 in the overall competitiveness holds severe risk of terrorism as it holds the 12\textsuperscript{th} position among the most threatened country list. In addition to terrorism; Asian countries are also not performing well in the institutional frames such as in the burden of government regulation, Pakistan ranks 72, followed by India 95, Bangladesh 102, and Nepal 114; in Public trust of politicians, India ranks 88, Pakistan 91, Bangladesh 115 and Nepal 130; Irregular payments and bribes India 83, Pakistan 117, Nepal 130 and Bangladesh 137 (third worse in the globe); and in the case of efficacy of corporate boards, India 76, Pakistan 115, Nepal 119 and Bangladesh 123 rank respectively. In Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan governance mechanism are relatively low (all three rank above 115); and India is 55\textsuperscript{th} in global ranking; however in the Political Stability and Absence of Violence category it is in 16\textsuperscript{th} position in the
global context. Table 11, summarizes the GDP (PPP) of the Asia total, and the developing trend of all three country, which is severely weak except India (Setnikar-Cankar and Pevcin 2004:2-3). Even though India is the largest economy of the region, it only shares 5.6 percent of GDP (PPP) of the world total, followed by Pakistan only 0.63; Bangladesh 0.35 and Nepal as low as only 0.05 percent of global economy share (WEF 2010) and they are still below in the global competition index (ADB, DFID and ILO 2009; WEF 2010; ADB 2010). This is important in understanding IUCN work in the region because, its effectiveness depends on the competitiveness of the government.

**The Environmental Performance of Bangladesh, India, Nepal, and Pakistan**

Among the listed above countries, the Environmental Performance measurement is one of mostly applied tools of country situational analysis developed with the aims to shift environmental decision-making to firmer analytic foundations using environmental indicators and statistics by Yale and Columbia Universities in collaboration with the World Economic Forum. Together they produce the Environmental Sustainability Index (ESI) and Environmental Performance Index (EPI) annually. To evaluate the Environmental Performance of India, Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan, this research utilized public domain data from the 2005 and 2010 Environmental Sustainability Index (ESI) and Environmental Performance Index (EPI) respectively. According to the ESI and EPI data base, Nepal has been the best performing country among four followed by India, Pakistan and Bangladesh respectively.

Table 16: Selected Countries of Asia and their ESI Score in 2005 and 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>ESI Rank (05)</th>
<th>ESI Score (05)</th>
<th>ESI Rank (10)</th>
<th>ESI Score (10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>68.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The ESI was majored in 10 major categories: (1) 32.1 - 38.3; (2) 38.4 - 44.4; (3) 44.5 - 50.5; (4) 50.6 - 56.7; (5) 56.8 - 62.8; (6) 62.9 - 68.9; (7) 69.0 - 75.1; (8) 75.2 - 81.2; (9) 81.3 - 87.3; and (10) 87.4 - 93.5 respectively (Scores are calculated for each of the ten core policy categories based on two to eight underlying indicators. Each underlying indicator represents a discrete data set.)
The 2010 Environmental Performance Index (EPI) evaluated 163 countries on 25 performance indicators tracked across ten policy categories covering both environmental public health and ecosystem vitality. The ten categories are as follows: (1) environmental burden of disease; (2) water resources for human health; (3) air quality for human health; (4) air quality for ecosystems; (5) water resources for ecosystems; (6) biodiversity and habitat; (7) forestry; (8) fisheries; (9) agriculture; and (10) climate change. These indicators provide a gauge at a national government scale of how close countries are to established environmental policy goals. In the global context, the EPI 2010 reported that Iceland secured the highest rank, with a score of 93.5, followed by Switzerland (89.1), Costa Rica (86.4), Sweden (86.1), and Norway (81.1) and the countries with the worst environmental performance are Sierra Leone (32.1), the Central African Republic (33.3), Mauritania (33.7), Angola (36.4), and Togo (36.4) respectively. The BRIC countries – Brazil, Russia, India, and China – occupy the ranks 62 (just behind the US), 69, 123, and 121, respectively (EPI 2010).

EPI (2010) show that Nepal has been the best performing country and Pakistan remains the lowest among four, because of its conservation focused natural resource management tradition and large coverage of protected areas. Within the Asia and Pacific, (1) New Zealand is the highest performing with the score of 73.4 followed by (2) Japan 72.5; (3) Singapore 69.6 and (4) Nepal with the score of 68.2 respectively. Other countries of this study are way below in EPI performances, i.e. India Ranks 20 with score of 48.3, (21) Pakistan 48.0 and Bangladesh ranks 24 with the score of 44.0 respectively. In terms of improvement all four have performed better than 2005; however Nepal has taken highest Rank 85 to 38 (or 47.7 to 68.2 in score). In the categorical improvement Nepal was 3rd rank in 2005 and up to 6th in 2010 in the frame of ten classes. There is no uniformity in the categorical performances, for example, Climate Change,
Ecosystem Vitality, Biodiversity & Habitat, and Agriculture Nepal is the best performing country in the global context, whereas Environmental Burden of Disease and Environmental Health, it belong to the lowest category. In forestry management India is the best with 100 perfect score and good in fisheries management by 85.95 score respectively, in contrast Bangladesh whose one of the source of livelihood is fisheries score only 26.02 worst in the world context. Figure 29 below provides an overall picture of performance in the major categories listed above and followed table 50 provides the details with sub groups.
The above analysis provides a totally contrasting picture of the competitiveness and performances as seen in the sections above. For example Nepal’s situation is poor in all six variables (worst) followed by enter-change with Pakistan and Bangladesh. Likewise in terms of competitiveness among the four countries in relation to the 12 pillars, Nepal is in the worst position including the institutional competitiveness in global context as well as in the index of the economy and stage of development. The civil service in terms of the creditability Nepal, Pakistan and Bangladesh are in the bottom in the global and regional context. However, India still belongs to the first stage in the development index although it appears as emerging economy.
with the strong administrative system. On the corruption index, in the global context, all four belong to the low performing countries in using the control mechanisms. However, India’s position is far better than among four nations. In relation to the environmental performances, the analysis shows a totally contrasting picture in all parameters used by EPI index as seen in the tables and figure above.

What is the reason of such contrasting results? The answer is two-fold, first the main answer is that, the environmental performances was evaluated on the basis of anthropogenic disturbances in the environment, for example, Urban Particulates, Indoor Air Pollution, Sulfur Dioxide Emissions, Nitrogen Oxide Emissions, Volatile Organic Compound Emissions and Ozone Exceedance etc. which only occurs if there is any substantial growth in the economy. In the case of Nepal, in terms of infrastructure, it belongs at the bottom as a “no competitive power” country in the global context. Second reason is the combination of the elevation and the biophysical situation and constant violence and instability in the governance, which does not provide a favorable environment for the economic growth. It is obvious, when there is no economic growth there is less pressure upon and destruction of the biophysical environment. In addition there are also some good initiatives as denoted in the Policy Categories of Biodiversity and Habitat conservation (score 79.58). In this frame, Nepal holds strong position because about 23 percent of total land surface belong under the protected area system, which is highest in the region after Bhutan (UNDP 2010).

As the South Asia Environment Outlook (2009:98) notes, to address environmental challenges in South Asia, it is essential to focus on diverse response options and instruments for possible solutions. Emphasis must be placed on increasing responsibilities of all stakeholders and more cooperative efforts towards ensuring a healthy environment in future. Increased awareness
of ecosystems and new market based systems will prove to be important mechanisms in dealing with environment issues. To some extent, in Nepal, the awareness of ecosystems is increased due to the improvement in the education system. However, it is far behind in managing its stake as successful nation (see table on governance performance and figures on competitiveness above).

Environmental Conservation movement in South Asia with focus on Forest conservation

Historical outline of conservation

The conservation history and movements of Nepal and India has been largely influenced by religious awareness (Dwivedi 1990). However, this is not uncommon practice in the religiously dominated world. Dafni (2007) in a survey on rituals, ceremonies and customs related to sacred trees with a special reference to the Middle East, finds several such traditions where tree plays important part for the rural lives. Bishnoism (a tradition of conservation of wildlife) of India is one of the best illustrated cases of human harmony with wildlife and forest (Drivedi 1990). India faced several colonial invasions, which introduced the western views on nature largely during the 1700 century. As a British colony scientific forest management system were introduced to some, which detached people to have their stake in the natural resources. Nepal, remained isolated during the British era in India, therefore, it managed to continue the tradition of harmonious relation with nature until very recently, the 1950s. The religious and cultural ties with forests and watersheds still play important roles in the Nepali society. There are still several religious forest areas in different parts of the country.

It has been known that all three countries (India, Pakistan and Bangladesh) are similar in terms of history because of British colonial rule, [1858 to 1947] Maclagan (1963). The British invasion of India and their attempt to bring Nepal under the British control introduced Nepal to the western world as a country of warriors. Nepal and British India had series of wars mostly from 1810 to 1816. In 1816 British India and Nepal signed a peace agreement which ended the
bloody wars; however Nepal lost its large territory. Through this agreement, Nepal agreed to supply its soldiers to support British to rule the India and rest of their colonies. In those eras, Nepal was ruled by Rana, who established good relationships with the British throne. The British agreed to not intervene in Nepal’s internal politics and Rana agreed to help to expand the British colony to the rest of the world. As a consequence from 1846 to 1947; Nepal was totally isolated from the rest of the world. When British left India in 1947, the Rana regime was also challenged and within the few years they were also overthrown from the throne. The newly independent democratic India helped Nepal to throw Rana’s from power in 1950.

In terms of institutionalization of forestry management system, India is the pioneer in South Asia (Rao et al 1961). In 1867, to institutionalize the forest conservation forest department known as Imperial Forest service was established. Having this established legacy of institutionalization, India, Pakistan and Bangladesh hold the strongest institutional arrangements relate to the establishment of public-based conservation programs and policies. In contrast, because of the lack of institutional arrangements and experts in forestry sector in Nepal, forest regulation policy did not materialize even in the early democratic era of Nepal [1950s]. The first formal law of forest regularization was Private Forest Nationalization Act, which was introduced just recently in 1957, when India had already 90 years old history of forest laws by 1957. In 1950 Nepal opened to the rest of the world and by November 21, 1951, it became member of Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and in 1955 it joined the United Nations. After entrance to the United Nations as member, Nepal has been participating in UN peace building efforts sending Nepali Army to the UN peace Keeping force as early as 1958. In 1952 government of Nepal and FAO signed an agreement to improve Nepal forest management system, and appointed forestry expert to establish the institutional framework. He made several recommendations including the
modalities of forest conservation, plantation and soil erosion control. However, the government did not implement them. The FAO helped Nepal to create conservation policy in collaboration with other international organizations like IUCN. FAO helped Nepal to prepare its National Forestry Plan, which was formalized in 1976. That plan established the notion of public participation in conservation. On the basis of Nepal experience, the FAO created the Forestry Division and launched the Community Forestry Development Project globally that was later integrated as a new division with the Department of Forests.

Bureaucratically, each country has relatively similar hierarchy of conservation administration. For example India has both federal and state systems, Pakistan has federal and provincial, and Nepal and Bangladesh have centric administrative-decentralized mechanisms executed through the authorized power to the district administrations. India and Pakistan also have the districts-level management authorized by the states and the provincial governments. In regularization of laws and orders and policies, in the local level there is the same order of administration in each country. On the basis of the administrative frame, each country’s policy supports the notion of public participation. However, it not implemented universally. The underlying reason could be the geographical variations, available of the resources and dependency and the conflicts of interests among the citizens of each country. For example in the case of forest coverage, Nepal has the highest canopy coverage, followed by India and to some extent Bangladesh respectively. However, Pakistan suffers largely due to its dry climate and forest coverage which is the lowest in the region (as in the table 17 below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>-2.1</td>
<td>-1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>-1.8</td>
<td>-2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>16.31</td>
<td>15.60</td>
<td>14.87</td>
<td>14.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: Forest area, average annual change rate (% per annum) is the average rate of change in forest area, calculated as an arithmetic mean for a range-year period, expressed as a percentage. Averages are calculated using sum of individual country values within each group of forest area.

The forest coverage percentage shown in the table do not include any newly planted forested areas, whereas India, Bangladesh and Pakistan have initiated huge plantation programs on land classified as waste land or other categories.

Modern practices

In terms of modern conservation practices, all four countries have similar trends. The conservation efforts largely began after the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in the Stockholm of 1972. The Conference gave a major shift in forest and environment conservation field for both developing and developed world including to South Asia. From 1972 onwards, all four countries took several major steps for the environment management including forestry and biodiversity. Governments started more recently an initiative to address global climate change issues. In 1972 the Wild Life Protection Act was passed in India which provides for the constitution of the Wild Life Advisory board, regulating hunting of wild animals and birds, laying down procedures for declaring the areas as sanctuaries and national parks, and regulation of trade in wild animals (The State of India's Environment 1980-85). Similarly, to address other environmental issues, water (Protection and Control of Pollution) Act was passed in 1974, which open the window for the establishment of central and state pollution control boards for the prevention and control of water pollution. The act seeks to control pollution primarily through standards to be laid down by the boards and the consent orders issued by them. Stiff penalties are imposed for violation. The boards are given ample powers for investigation and inspection and to take samples and to establish laboratories for analyzing the samples. As a follow of Water Pollution control act, Air (Protection and Control of
Pollution) Act was passed in 1981. This act set the standards to control air pollution. Following the footsteps of India, Nepal, Pakistan, and Bangladesh also introduced several legal instruments to address these environmental problems.

In terms of institutionalization of forestry management system, India has been the pioneer in the South Asia, which was further strengthened after the independence and the separation of Pakistan and Bangladesh. Nepal has a relatively new history of utilization of modern tools in forest management. However, in recent years it has prepared and implemented several instruments and has been considered as one of the best country for conservation of nature through people participation. In Nepal policies for conservation and protection have been organized through decentralization and community participation. In Bangladesh policies focus on increasing tree cover in agricultural and urban landscapes. Similarly in India many initiatives have been taken in Joint forest management and resolving tenure issues with Forest Rights Act. Pakistan has not been that successful as the other countries and recently made an appeal to the UNFCCC for assistance in conducting a national economic, environment and development study to engage in mitigation and adaptation activities.

This is critical to understand that among the four countries Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan have been benefiting from IUCN in the preparation of all conservation related policies. Among the four countries, India stands out with most advanced policies, however, it lacks on the implementation part. Having a strong knowledge base system, India has also been helping Nepal in the preparation of its own policies as well as providing the financial support for project implementation (Kant et al. 2010).

Biodiversity
The four Asian countries India, Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan occupy an area of 4,374,537 Square Kilometer Surface Area of the earth (CIA 2010) ranging all verities of lives support systems of the planet, whereas about 15.8 percent (based of the data of 2001) of land surface is under the forest canopy, which contains a region rich in biodiversity. India alone it holds the 12th place among the top mega biodiversity countries in the world. The country is divided into 10 biogeographic regions. The diverse physical features and climatic situations have formed ecological habitats like forests, grasslands, wetlands, coastal and marine ecosystems and desert ecosystems, which harbor and sustain immense biodiversity. Biogeographically, India is situated at the tri-junction of three realms - Afro-tropical, Indo-Malayan and Paleo-Arctic realms, and therefore has characteristic elements from each of them. This assemblage of three distinct realms makes the country rich and unique in biological diversity (Government of India 2010).

Similarly, Pakistan also has the varieties climatic variation due to its unique location. It constitutes a broad latitudinal spread, and immense altitudinal range, and number of the world’s broad ecological regions, as defined by various classification systems. It contains areas that fall under three of the world’s eight biogeography “realms” (Indo-Malayan, Pale arctic, and Afro-tropical); four of the world’s ten “biomes” (desert, temperate grassland, tropical seasonal forest, and mountain); and three of the world’s four “domains” (polar or mountain, humid-temperate, and dry). The great variety of landscapes, including rangeland, forest, wetland, and other wildlife habitats has generated a rich diversity of life forms. However, among the south Asian countries, Pakistan holds the least varieties of biodiversity (ADB 2008:13-14). In short, Pakistan has the lowest biodiversity richness in the region.

Following India, Nepal is also one of the richest in biodiversity countries in the region. It ranks 25th in biodiversity with about 118 ecosystems, 75 vegetation types and 35 forest types
Due to unique geographical location, there is a wide range of climatic conditions in Nepal mainly as a result of altitudinal variation. Altitude varies from 67 meters above the sea level at Kechana Kalan, Jhapa in the south-eastern Terai to 8848 meters at Mt. Sagarmatha (Mountain Everest), the highest point in the world. Nepal’s biodiversity is a reflection of its unique geographic position and variations in altitude and climate (ICIMOD 2007: xiv). This is reflected in the contrasting habitats, vegetation, and fauna that exist in the country. Other important climatic factors influencing biodiversity and the composition of flora and fauna in Nepal include rainfall, winter snowfall, temperature, and aspect (Government of Nepal 2002:6). It shares only 0.1 percent of land area on a global scale, but it possesses a disproportionately rich diversity of flora and fauna at genetic, species and ecosystem levels (ICIMOD 2007). Nepal is located on the central part of the world's top 20 hottest global biodiversity hotspots, the Himalayas. Six biomes and twelve terrestrial eco-regions can be found in Nepal, out of the total 867 terrestrial eco-regions of the world, which can be grouped in four major physiographic zones.

Similar to Nepal and India, Bangladesh is also one of the biodiversity rich countries and belongs to the Sunderban biological diversity hotspots illustrated in the above section. In contrast to Nepal, Bangladesh is located in the world largest deltaic region, formed by the rivers the Ganges and the Brahmaputra and their tributaries, which is considered one of the most vulnerable country in terms of rapid change in terrestrial ecosystems. Geographically, about 80 percent of land belongs into the flood plains and about 12 percent in the hilly areas and about 8 percent terraces, of which about percent of land stands just nearly 10 meters above of the sea level (ADB 2004). Bangladesh has three major rivers the Ganges (Padma), the Meghna and the Brahmaputra those enter from India. In addition to these, there are more than 700 other rivers,
distributaries, streams and canals which cover a massive length of water areas. Such water body covers about 24,000 km. land through the Beels, baors, haors (Beel is perennial water body; baor is an ox-bow lake; haor, endemic to Bangladesh, is saucer shaped depressed land which remains underwater for more than 6 months) rivers and canals, floodplains, estuaries etc. made up this vast network of wetlands which provide a huge refuge for wildlife, fish and other aquatic species (ADB 2004:2; Rashid 1991:15). In general, as the country’s richness in water resources the biodiversity is also dominated by the fresh water and marine species diversity, however it equally rich on abundances of plant species, where about 5000 known species were recorded during 1992-2002 (WRI 2010).

Table 18: Comparative overview of biodiversity distribution in the region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Geographical Area (Sq. Km)</th>
<th>Number of Flowering Plants &amp; Ferns</th>
<th>Birds</th>
<th>Mammals</th>
<th>Reptiles</th>
<th>Amphibians</th>
<th>Fish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>143,998</td>
<td>7,400</td>
<td>632</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>3,287,263</td>
<td>17,000</td>
<td>1,200</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>147,181</td>
<td>5,568</td>
<td>844</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>796,095</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td>3400</td>
<td>1044</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>4,629</td>
<td>9,672</td>
<td>6,900</td>
<td>4,522</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: There is no uniformity about the number of the faunal and floral species in the world, the above table is based on the IUCN Red Data Book of Animals 1996 (The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species is the accepted standard for assessing species extinction risk. Note: India has the third largest amphibian population in Asia. The amphibian fauna of India comprises of 272 species of which 167 (66.3 percent) are endemic to the country.

Table 18 provides a general overview of the biodiversity distribution in the four countries, South Asia and the world. In the regional context four countries cover all the biomes of South Asia and more than 95 percent of faunal biodiversity. To protect such bio-richness the governments have dedicated a large percent of territory to the protected area system. As we shall see, IUCN has helped to protect the biodiversity richness of this region.

*The protected areas systems*
The concept of protected area in India is very old. As Singh (1997) notes, the notion of ABHAYARANYA (inner sanctuaries), propagated in Kautilya’s Arthashastra (c. 2500 BP) corresponds very closely to the notion of a national park as it is being increasingly understood today. Also, historically, in many parts of the country’s village communities protected forest groves and tanks which they designated sacred. These also had the level of protection that is now being sought for national parks (Singh 1997:5). The original idea of a sanctuary in India was to ban for hunting wildlife and to declare as a conservation area. While there is still provision for hunting in certain States, there arose the modern conception of a sanctuary as a part or whole of a government forest permanently closed to shooting and in some cases to forest exploitation, grazing and other such revenue operations as in Assam (Stracey 1963:1161; Mackinnon et al., 1986 as in Singh 1997:6).

In the developing world, the modern protected area system based on the western model (Army for the protection), began only in the 19th century and in Asia from the second quarter of the 19th century (Mishra, 1991). By 2009, there were about 100,000 protected areas (PA) in the world covering about 11.7 percent of the Earth Surface (IUCN-WCPA 2010). Among the SAARC countries, India was the first to establish a national park, the Corbett National Park, which was founded in 1936, in Uttarakhanda with the area of 520.82 square kilometer. Continuing the trend, after the Independence, the India government established a second national park, Kanha National Park, in on June 1, 1955. Pakistan’s first National Park “Modhupur” was founded only in 1962 (in East Pakistan-current Bangladesh). In Nepal, the Chitwan National Park was the first and was established in 1973. Now Nepal has a large number of protected areas (Pas) have been established covering of 9.5 percent (average of four countries) of the total area. The notion of the parks establishment has been growing substantially since the first UN
Environment Conference is held in Stockholm in 1972, which outlined the important of nature conservation, the figure below gives a general overviews of marine and land surface protected areas from 1990 to 2010.

Figure 20: Protected area system increasing trend from 1990-2010

![Protected area coverage and increasing trend](image)

Source: Data compiled from ESCAP 2010:185 (SAARC=The South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation-It has seven founding members Sri Lanka, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Bangladesh. Afghanistan joined SAARC in 2007).

Figure 20 above shows that, in the global context, there was 3.2 percent of coverage of marine protected system in 1990, which reached to the 6.7 by 2000 and dropped to the 4 percent in 2008. In the SAARC region it was 1.1 in 1990, which increased by only 0.2 points by 2000 and remained constant at 1.3 percent. The protected areas in the land surface of the world were 8.2 percent in 1990, which increased to 10.7 by 2000 and reached to 11.7 percent in 2010. In the
SAARC, it was 4.5 percent in 1990 and by 2000 it reached to 5.1 by 2010. In the case of individual nations Bangladesh has the lowest coverage of the protected area system, whereas only 0.5 percent of the areas are under the marine protected area throughout and 0.3 points increment from 1990 to 2010 covering only the 1.7 percent of the land surface. India and Pakistan are also in the similar situation, whereas (India) in 1990, the total area under the marine protected was 1.4 percent, which reached to 1.5 percent in 2008 and land surface it was 4.1 in 1990, which increased to 4.5 in 2000 and remain constant; and in Pakistan marine protected area is 1.1 percent constant over the years, with small increase in the land surface. In contrast in Nepal, there was only 6.8 percent of land surface coverage in 1990, which reached to 16.5 percent in 2000 and 23 percent in 2010, respectively, figure above. As seen in the figure above, the protected areas increment is continued in Asia, and four countries of this study are the best performer after Bhutan. Now there are 783 protected areas in four countries; India 545, Pakistan 205, Nepal 22 and Bangladesh 11 respectively. However, in terms of the protected area coverage with the global percent 11.7, these four countries cover the 81.76 percent (that is 9.50/11.7*100) and 100 percent in terms of all Asia average (8.3/8.3*100) respectively.

Among four India has a strong economy and stable governance system. However, in natural resource conservation, Nepal’s exemplary situation of conservation of forest and protected area management is not dismissed, even in regular violence and insecurity. As result the protected area land escape is reached one of the highest with the area of 34,186.62 sq. km that is 23.23 percent of the total area. However, in sustaining the conservational arena, in addition to the Forest and Soil Ministry and its departments, line agencies, NGOs and CBOs, international organizations like, IUCN, WWF, FAO, UNDP, JICA, DFID and many other have been playing important roles providing both technical and financial support in Nepal as well as
Bangladesh and Pakistan, to some extent India. These four countries are also playing important roles in the conservation of wetlands and wetland-resources with the same spirit as it has been for conservation of forest and management of protected areas. Each of the four countries has given high priority for the overall conservation of natural resources, including wetlands and introduced or being prepared the strong policies and programs to stop further degradation of nature. Among them, India has the established system of conservation policies. However, in terms of policy implementation and conservation, Nepal has shown the exemplary cases of natural resource management with the application of the public participation machineries. Bangladesh and Pakistan performances in conservation are relatively weak, even having very strong involvement of international organization to improve their situation (ESCAP 2010). In addressing the conservation problems, there have been some efforts in the region, coordinated by various organizations such as the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC), Bay of Bengal Initiative for Multi Sectoral Technical and Economic Cooperation (BIMSTEC); Asian Disaster Reduction and Response Network (ADRRN), IUCN regional office, UN Agency Regional Office, and several other international organizations. Among them SAARC’s initiatives is very important to address the conservation problems which hold the regional issues particularly, water resources and climate change. The major cause of the weak conservation output is due to the scarcity of the resources and various types of conflicts in the region. Due to the scarcity the conflict in natural resource utilization is seen as normal and day to day problem in all four countries. Conflicts have been occurring in the use of the natural resources such as arable land, water, hydroelectric potential, and natural gas reserves and forest and wetland products (UNEP 1999).

Public Participation in conservation (general)
Based on the new approach of forest conservation guided by various policy instruments, all four nations have been implementing the Community-Based Forest Management system. As a result, India has been focusing for the Joint Forest Management, Nepal Community Forest, leasehold forestry (LHF), watershed management (WM), collaborative forest management (CFM), integrated conservation and development (ICD) and buffer zone (BZ) User Groups and Bangladesh has been implementing the participatory management of Sal forests, homestead plantations, participatory buffer zone plantations, urban greening, with the involvement of all stakeholders. Pakistan also has been implementing the Community-Based Forest Management system; however, it has not been successful because of the very low forest coverage in the country (Kant et al. 2010; Gabriel 2006:25).

In addition to the application of the public participation modality of forest conservation, the governments of the region are also implementing Special Forest Rehabilitation Projects such as India which introduced the Green India Mission under the National Climate Change Action Plan and National Mission for Sustaining the Himalayan Ecosystem, Nepal has initiated Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD). Similarly, Pakistan and India have initiated the program for Combating desertification on Thar Desert in their boundaries. Bangladesh and India have been running the Reforestation of Mangrove program and conservation program for Sundarban and most recently, the Tiger Conservation project has begun with joint efforts of Nepal, Bangladesh and India. It is too early to forecast about the success of the Forest Rehabilitation program. The governments of the region have not given the high priority on it (Kant et al. 2010). In addition to these major efforts of forest conservation, the governments have established extensive networks of protected area systems, conservation area systems. Nepal, India, China and Bangladesh have recently initiated the greater landscape
conservation programs on the basis of the connecting the corridors approach. In recent years, there is growing tendency of civil society involvement in conservation.

All four countries have signed or are a signatory of most of the humanitarian and environment related international treatises, conferences, and agreements. In this regard, for the entire region the role of NGOs and CBOs is very important. They are also equally involved in the international campaigns and advocacy and showing strong present in the global context as well.

**Conflict in the utilization of Natural Resource in South Asia**

The four countries of this study have been facing various conflicts; especially Pakistan, which has the problem of terrorism and Nepal, which is still facing a Maoist insurgency. However, natural resource based conflicts are similar in all four countries. Flow chart showing causes and consequences of conflicts in natural resources utilization

![Flow Chart](image)

Source: Adopted from UNEP (1999:23)

As illustrated in the flow chart above and IUCN’s research, varieties conflicting issues related to natural resources management are present in every of the four study country. These South Asian governments have begun to apply a people-first approach to conservation which
might improve the situation in due course (Hassan 1994; Burki 1993; Noman 1991; Addleton 1992; Menke 2009).

Among the four countries, WWF and IUCN have been playing very important roles in Pakistan to reduce the tension in natural resource management. Regardless of the conflicts, from 1980s the international organizations mostly WWF and IUCN have been helping to raise the awareness of conservation of nature and natural resources. In the 1980s WWF was actively involved in research on natural resource condition and recommended for the legal and institutional development in the country, which was a big millstone in establishing a protected area system in Pakistan (Somuncu et al. 2009). The establishment of protected area did not help to reduce the conflicts in the country, however, provided the knowhow to involve the local stakeholders to resolve the conflict in the conservation field. Similarly, the IUCN was invited by the government of Pakistan to help with the preparation of its National Conservation Strategy back in 1982. Since then, the IUCN has helped the government of Pakistan to prepare all national, provincial level and even the district level conservation strategies as well as for the preparation of forestry master plans and wetland conservation plans and policies. Regarding the mitigation of conflict, IUCN has been closely working with the all stakeholders including local people. In sum, IUCN is playing very important role in helping to reduce conflicts on natural resources and park people conflicts (based the discussion with IUCN officials and government and NGOs leader in Karachi July 2009). In addition to that IUCN has also played on important role for the people participation in protected area management. Similar kind of conflict occurred in Nepal with a Maoist insurgent for about 12 years, which also have a direct impact over on natural resources at the community level (USAID 2006).
The natural resource conflicts never completely go away (FAO 1998), though most often those conflicts in the region are settled by the local stakeholders and governments, but sometimes international organization such as FAO, WWF, IUCN etc. also become involved to solve such crises (silent valley case of India was the exemplary case).

This chapter presents the overall comparative account of Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan including a brief account of the four countries whereas India holds the largest in term of territory, demographics, economics, and health profiles. Chapter also examines Governance Performance (higher score better on rank). Among the four countries studied, we looked at six governance performance indicators such as (1) Voice and Accountability (rank and estimation) (2) Political Stability and Absence of Violence (3) Government Effectiveness (4) Regulatory Quality (5) Rule of Law and Control of Corruption, India appears the best performing country. To examine the economic and social competitiveness of the country which is only available measurement techniques of overall competiveness (Basic requirements; Efficiency enhancers; Innovation and sophistication factors) India appears best among four. However, in terms of the Environmental Performance of four countries, which was measures with 10 variables (1) environmental burden of disease; (2) water resources for human health; (3) air quality for human health; (4) air quality for ecosystems; (5) water resources for ecosystems; (6) biodiversity and habitat; (7) forestry; (8) fisheries; (9) agriculture; and (10) climate change, Nepal appears as best performing country, because of its geographical remoteness, protected area coverage and also environmental policies and its management practices. Additionally, the chapter also provides a comparative overview of the environmental conservation movements in the four countries with a focus on forest conservation. India is only the only country of the four that is able to maintain its forest system efficiently (no decrease in
forestry since last 10 years or so). In the other three countries there is forest degradation is still taking place. All four countries have made use of western protected area management system (top-down, army protection, not involvement of local people etc.). However, in recent years all four countries have introduced the people participation approach for conservation of forestry and protected area system. In this new approach, IUCN has been playing critical role in policy formation, project planning and implementation in Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan; whereas, India has working alone because of its own knowledgebase in conservation field. Since 2007, India has allowed IUCN to operate its conservation programs; however, its role is only as facilitator not as influential at it has been in the other three countries.

The following chapter elaborates IUCN’s role for environment conservation in India, Pakistan, Nepal and Bangladesh.
CHAPTER VIII

IUCN’s role for conservation of nature in Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan

The chapters above unveiled the IUCN’s policies and programs at the global scale, its strengths and weakness on the basis of opinions of the stakeholders, similarities and differences of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Nepal, measured by competitiveness, advancement in environmental conservation, biodiversity, quality of protected areas, public participation in conservation, and natural resources conflict management. This chapter reviews IUCN’s role in conservation and analyzes how programs, policies are implemented and utilized among four countries of this study. This chapter identifies differences in IUCN’s position among these four countries, by examining the conservation programs, funding mechanisms, policy intervention (resolutions), and finally analyzes public opinions of IUCN’s role.

The IUCN has been demonstrating that the biodiversity is fundamental to addressing some of the world’s greatest challenges: tackling climate change, achieving sustainable energy, improving human well-being and building a green economy. “IUCN helps the world find pragmatic solutions to most pressing environment and development challenges. It supports scientific research, manages field projects all over the world and brings governments, non-government organizations, United Nations agencies, companies and local communities together to develop and implement policy, laws and best practice” (IUCN 2011).

In the country specific cases, IUCN prepares and runs various programs on basis its strengths i.e. science, action, influence and empowerment, on the five themes such as biodiversity, climate change, sustainable energy, human well-being and green economy, supported by twelve supportive programs. As outlined in the chapter four to seven, IUCN works on building nature protection programs in states by ‘invitation only”, whereas in the case of countries of different capacities, it utilizes the need base approaches, by playing a natural role. In the case of case study countries, IUCN has been mostly playing the role on knowledge dissemination and environmental inventory development, research and helping the governments in preparation
national conservation strategies of various sectors. In addition it has been running 100s of projects to enhance the capacity to protect the biodiversity particularly in Bangladesh, Pakistan and Nepal. However, in India, there is no direct IUCN’s participation in national policy preparation and program intervention was begun only in 2007. In contrast India has been helping Nepal in conservation policy formation, management and implementation throughout the history, even while it was under British colonial rule. This chapter explores the cases of IUCN’s attempt to build the programs designed to preserve and/or protect nature, including policy development, with precise examples of its activities in four countries.

IUCN in Asia

IUCN in the Asian Region extends from Pakistan in the West to Japan in the East, Indonesia in the South to Mongolia in the North. There are 23 countries in the region. IUCN maintains offices in Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, India, Lao PDR, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Vietnam. The regional office is located in Bangkok, Thailand. There are 136 IUCN members in Asia, including 12 States, 21 Government Agencies, 103 NGOs, and two affiliates. Most of the major nature conservation NGOs in the region is the members of IUCN (IUCN Asia 2003:96)

IUCN’s Organizational structure in Asia
In Asia, Nepal was the first country to invite IUCN to help in environment conservation policy formation sometime in the 1960s, followed by Pakistan in 1982, Bangladesh in 1989 and India 2007 respectively. However, in terms of membership of government agencies, Indian National Board for Wild Life, Ministry of Environment and Forests joined IUCN in January 1955 and the Government of India formally obtained IUCN membership in January 1969.

**Membership from the region**

As noted above, both governments (1955 as government agency and 1969 formally as the government) and nongovernmental organization (The Bombay Natural History Society-BNHS) 1950), India is the first nation region which became the member of IUCN. Following the India, Bangladesh’s Ministry of Environment and Forest (MoEF) became member of IUCN in 1973 and Nepal in January 1974 and Pakistan joined IUCN in January 1975 respectively. Currently
there are two international organizations such as International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD) with headquarters in Kathmandu and The Aga Khan Development Network (AKDN) International from Pakistan. ICIMOD works in the eight countries in the region, however, AKDN works globally with special focus in Asia and Africa. In addition to 2 INGOs, there are 70 NGOs members from four countries having, whereas from India 22, Pakistan 20, Bangladesh 16 and Nepal 13 and with the 13 government agencies respectively. These members including the governments and NGOs need to pay annual dues to IUCN on the basis of its economic strength of the government and according to the annual budgets of the NGOs. Because of the membership dues and sometimes conflicts of interests, governments or NGOs members decline the memberships with IUCN. The figure 21, only presents the current members of IUCN.

Figure 21: Membership composition

![Figure 21: Membership composition](image)

Source: IUCN membership portal 2010 Note: Aaranyak is the new 22nd member from India (membership obtained in 2010), it is a registered society working in the field of biodiversity conservation in North East India since 1989.

In addition to these voting members from the respective countries, there are several scientists serving voluntarily through its six commissions, the total number of such volunteers of four countries is 630, where India has the largest share in the global context with the with 425 individuals as commission members figure 22.

Figure 22: IUCN commission member distribution (including all six)
Note: These commissions’ members are the major source of knowledge for IUCN, who mostly contribute for the conservation policy formation through the national committees and the focal points. India has the largest commission membership (425) followed by Nepal (91), Pakistan (75) and Bangladesh (51); whereas, among four countries, SSC has the largest members 451 individuals, followed by CEESP 65, CEC 43, WCPA 32, CEL 33 and CEM 18 individuals respectively (Source: HQ and country offices of the IUCN). Commissions member are the experts of IUCN’s commissions themes. The larger membership in India represents its strength of knowledge and its network within the commission’s member.

In addition to this major portal of memberships, IUCN also have the provision of regional Committees. Currently Asia Regional Committee is in Bangkok, Thailand and IUCN National Committees are also formed in each four countries chaired by IUCN NGO member organization. In principle, the regional councilors or any highest position holder of IUCN governance, he or she automatically became the member of the National committee. These national committees are important in the sense that they are guided by their own statute approved IUCN council, who can use IUCN logo in their letter head (as IUCN voting members does), but in the world congress they do not have any special power except they hold as NGOs member. The important part the national committees do in the region is prioritizing of the national conservation agendas, within the national and international forum. National Committees also can invite the commissions member in their meeting, however, voting rights remains only to IUCN member organization. IUCN National Committees of India, Pakistan and Bangladesh are strong in helping IUCN for program extension. In contrast Nepal committee is only functioning for the name shake (based the interviews).
Asia - A Source of Inspiration: Asia is one of the richest regions in the world in terms of its species and ecosystems and one of the most vibrant in terms of the diversity of cultural groups. It is also a region where nature and natural resources are contested domains, where geopolitical tensions threaten to damage the potential for economic development, and where millions of poor struggle to survive in degrading environments. Yet, Asia has long been one of the world’s most dynamic regions in terms of its evolving institutions for biodiversity conservation and equitable natural resource management.

IUCN is playing an active role in this evolution, from guiding policy reform and legislation in support of community participation, to fostering partnerships between different stakeholders. Through its progressive initiatives IUCN in Asia has much to teach the rest of the world about integrating biodiversity conservation and social equity (Achim Steiner former IUCN, Director General, currently the Chief of the UNEP, IUCN Asia 2003: ii).

The statement of Dr. Achim Steiner clearly summarizes the major role of IUCN in Asia, which solely fits the cases of Pakistan, Bangladesh and Nepal, where IUCN has been involved in preparation of most of the policy instruments, conservation strategies and empowerment of the conservation related sectors. As it has been playing a major role in most of the international conservation forums and in preparing a number of key publications such as the World Conservation Strategies and Caring for the Earth for the Sustainable Future. It has engaged in the preparation of the multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs) Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES), the Ramsar Convention on Wetlands and the World Heritage Convention. Sustained involvement in the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), it also worked hard to engage with the processes of the World Trade Organization and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). And most importantly it has given more attention to the UN Convention to Combat Desertification and made important contributions in existing and new regional initiatives such as the Mekong River Commission, the Central American Commission on Environment and Development (CCAD) and the Environmental Action Plan of the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) and its involvement in the presence at the Johannesburg World Summit
on Sustainable Development (WSSD) 2002 are some of the selected works of IUCN in the global conservation forum (IUCN 2003:7).

The entry of IUCN in Asia was completely based on its vision to empowering the world for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources. As noted above IUCN began its conservation regime formation task from Nepal in the 1960s and extended to the other countries who invited for the help. After Nepal, Indonesia, Thailand, Sri Lanka and Vietnam invited IUCN to assist them in policy formation. Its strong percent further extended after the establishment of a country office in Pakistan in 1982, and Bangladesh in 1989. Among the other Asian countries, particularly for Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan it has been involving all most all environment related issues throughout. Its involvement is three nations policy sectors include:

- Contributions to important policy reforms in Nepal, Pakistan and Bangladesh:
  - National Conservation Strategy; (in the Pakistan case IUCN has prepared not only the national conservation strategy, but also prepared all provincials and some of the districts conservation strategies as well ); National Environmental Policy and Action Plan; Environmental Impact Assessment; Environmental Protection Acts; Environmental Protection Regulations; National Wetlands Policy; Environmental education curricula and materials; Various Area Program Strategies; Draft Bill on Access to Genetic Resources and Benefit Sharing; and Gender, Poverty and Social Equity (GPSE) monitoring indicators etc. (e.g. IUCN 2009).

- IUCN in Pakistan: Following the formulation of the World Conservation Strategy in 1980, the Government of Pakistan requested the World Conservation Union (IUCN) to help develop a National Conservation Strategy (NCS). In 1982, an exploratory mission from IUCN Headquarters laid the foundation for the IUCN country program in Pakistan, culminating in the establishment of IUCNP country office in Karachi. Since then, IUCNP has grown into the largest country program with five program offices as well as a number of field offices. After an extensive consultative process, the NCS was completed and approved by the Government of Pakistan in 1992. IUCN Pakistan also contributed to the Pakistan Environmental Protection Act (PEPA) 1997, facilitated and participated in the development of all key environmental policies including the NEQS. IUCNP has also co-designed and facilitated most of the post-NCS environmental projects helped develop the Biodiversity Action Plan for Pakistan and successfully advocated more space for civil society in public policy and decision making. IUCNP's work on district and local strategies offers insights into the debates and possibilities that need to be explored to address the issue of good governance. Following the NCS, geographically specific and contextually-relevant strategies have
been developed for the NWFP, Balochistan, Northern Areas, Sindh and the districts of Abbottabad, Chitral, Dera Ismail Khan, Gwadar, Qila Saifullah and Badin (IUCN 2009:17)

IUCN Bangladesh: The Government of Bangladesh joined IUCN as a State Member in 1972. IUCN started its operation in Bangladesh as a “liaison office” in 1989 and a fully operation Country Office was established in Bangladesh on 22 November 1992. A Memorandum of Understanding was signed between the Government and IUCN on 22 November 1992. The Bangladesh Country Office aligns its activities with the current IUCN thematic areas: Conserving the diversity of life, changing the climate forecast, naturally energizing our future, managing nature for human well-being, and Greening the world economy. To achieve its goals and objectives, IUCN Bangladesh parallels the vision and mission of IUCN globally, with well-set strategic directions. IUCN Bangladesh Country Office works in close association with its members formed from a collective of national non-government organizations with key support from the Ministry of Environment and Forest, a State member. Support, advice and encouragement are also received valued from partners, donors and commission members, and volunteer scientists at home and abroad (IUCN 2009:28)

IUCN Nepal: IUCN has been assisting conservation efforts in Nepal since late 1960s. With strong support from civil society, government and donors, IUCN has been able to contribute greatly in linking conservation with better livelihoods, mobilizing local communities and generating tangible results to promote biodiversity conservation, environmental justice and sustainable livelihoods in Nepal, even in the conflict situation. Contributions at the field level: improved conservation of important biodiversity; enhanced local natural resource management capacity; improved livelihood security for the natural resource dependent poor; greater awareness of conservation and sustainable livelihood strategies; and increased knowledge development and policy feedback (IUCN 2009:31). - As seen in the quotes above, in addition to preparation of policies, IUCN also has been helping these three countries in preparation of national inventories of Biodiversity, Wetlands, Forest, River Systems, and the tool books for environmental governance. For example only in the wetlands management sector, IUCN Bangladesh has published 29 books and reports. For Nepal 31 books and reports, and 59 for Pakistan have been published respectively. Similar account is visible in biodiversity and forest sectors as well, in all three nations. In the global, regional and the national context, most of the policy directives have been completed and the focus of the global conservation forums is shifted towards the implementation phase. The four countries of this study have the conservation
strategies and policies directives in hands and also have shown their commitments by signing and ratifying the international treaties, conventions, protocols and agreements related to the environment conservation. Similarly, all four countries have shown the strength or weakness of National state of environment by submitting their position papers to the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) or to other international venues (UN, World Bank, Donor agencies or whoever requires them). This clearly shows that, there should be shifts in the mission of the organizations like IUCN, whose purpose is to influence and build capacity to improve people’s livelihoods and to conserve the diversity and integrity of the region’s ecosystems and the livelihoods they provide. IUCN has not shifted its core mission, which is to improve the scientific understanding of what natural ecosystems provide for humans. However, it has shown the concentration towards the conserving the fragile ecosystems with the linkage of livelihood. This tendency is clearly depicted in IUCN Asia’s goal, which states: “to conserve biodiversity and to promote sustainable and equitable use of ecosystems and natural resources. Despite a regional awakening of the importance of conserving the environment, people still need to better understand and realize the goods and services that nature, biodiversity and ecosystems provide to mankind” (IUCN 2008:15). The importance of well-functioning ecosystems in helping reduce poverty and improve livelihoods, societies and economies needs to be integrated into decisions and actions. In the case of Asia these goals are pursued through a combination of territorially based activities (country programs) and thematic based activities (the ecosystems and livelihoods and two thematic programs-global marine and water). To manage these programs, IUCN in Asia has been supporting to develop cutting-edge conservation science and implementing research in field activities throughout the region. By linking both research and results to local, national, regional
and global policies, IUCN Asia is building bridges, convening dialogues among governments, civil society and the private sector to find pragmatic solutions to pressing environmental problems (IUCN 2010).

IUCN’s Chief Scientist’s opinion on IUCN Asia:

IUCN is above all a networking organization, so that building a strong regional network was seen as essential. In cooperation with various partners, IUCN therefore designed regional projects to start building capacities in a number of fields. These involved carrying out taxonomic work (with BioNET International and the Convention on Biological Diversity), supporting the preparation of national biodiversity strategies and action plans, designing environmental legislation (with the Asian Development Bank and the National University of Singapore), and implementing the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety (with the Global Environment Facility). IUCN in Asia has provided opportunities for many young professionals and interns, who are supported by senior staff. Young professionals may be hired for a fixed term, and are able to stay on if they find the right niche. Interns work for IUCN for up to a year, before returning to their studies or former positions, often with an IUCN member. Some may return to IUCN after gaining experience, while others will go on to work for their government, or for another conservation organization. For IUCN, building capacity for conservation is more important than simply building staff capacity for itself. Many of the regional staff already possessed considerable skills from their work at the national level, but adapting those skills to address the greater challenges at the regional level would not happen overnight. IUCN staff from outside the region, but who had long worked in Asia, was able to provide mentoring for the new regional staff. Today, over 90% of the staff of IUCN in Asia is from the region (McNeely 2008:1-2).

IUCN Asia regional office is based in Bangkok, Thailand. It manages IUCN’s policies and provides coordination support for the region. It oversees ten country offices (Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, India, Laos PDR, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Vietnam). IUCN Asian region is considered by some as the best managed office in comparison to other regions (McNeely 2009 face to face interview in Gland Switzerland June 2009). However there is some limitation which is depicted in the table 19 (Based on IUCN-ARO 2009:39).

Table 19: IUCN Asia SWOT analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Threats</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Credible and good reputation among donors, governments, and regional institutions</td>
<td>Large project base – susceptible to donor agenda Planning and budgeting time horizon too short Different parts of region at different stages of evolution</td>
<td>Enhanced acceptance of “broker” and “convener” roles Increased awareness of need for resolving transboundary issues</td>
<td>Reduced attention and funding to environment Continued conflicts and security concerns in Asia (e.g. Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Nepal)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table shows a general picture of the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) of the regional program of IUCN Asia. It has strength of its reputation and opportunities to extend its programs; however funding and conflict over natural resource management are its weaknesses and threats.

Conservation programs

Having these broader frames of working modalities, with the continuation of the policy and institutional building, IUCN has been also conducting area specific projects in these countries. Among them, Pakistan has been the most focused country since 1982, where IUCN has completed more than 100 projects and followed by Bangladesh from 1991. Until 1995 Nepal also had several projects mostly funded by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation, which begun to downsize because of the Maoist insurgencies in the country, however, still some of the core programs have continued. In India there are only a relatively few programs running because the country administrators see themselves as more of a program implementing country vs. program recipient country. As a general established notion in each country IUCN identically works in the same core areas as set in the policy directive from the headquarters and the regional office. Recently, in all four countries programs and projects have been implementing within the following core themes.
- Environmental governance – institutional mechanisms and strengthening, policy advocacy, legal frameworks and tools, multilateral environmental agreements and integration of environmental imperatives into development planning
- Landscape restoration, rehabilitation and management – community-based integrated natural resource management, forests and protected areas system management and sustainable agricultural systems and practices
- Environment, peace and security – conservation for peace, conflict resolution and environmental security, gender and social policy, communication and education for sustainable development, multi stakeholder networks and alliances and rights-based resource governance
- Development, economic growth and environment – payment for environmental services, environmental fiscal reforms and valuation, strategic and environmental impact assessment, corporate social and environmental responsibility, poverty reduction strategies and furthering Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)
- Climate change, energy and ecosystems – impact assessments, adaptation and mitigation strategies, policies, and plans, sustainable energy and clean air (IUCN 2003; Rademacher 2005; Hasan 2005; IUCN 2009; IUCN 2006, 2010).

On the basis of these core program themes several projects have been ongoing in all four countries, table 20.

Table 20: Ongoing projects to support core programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>IUCN’s ongoing projects and programs</th>
<th>Donors and important partners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td><strong>Ongoing projects</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Species Conservation &amp; Protected Areas</td>
<td>Ministry of Environment &amp; Forest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ecosystem &amp; Landscape Management</td>
<td>Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Water Management</td>
<td>UK AID Department for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economics, Law &amp; Policy Assessment</td>
<td>Embassy of Denmark, Bangladesh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community Based Sustainable Management of Tanguar Haor Program</td>
<td>United Nations University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enhancement of Bangladesh’s Capacity to participate in Road to Copenhagen Negotiations and Enhancement of Capacity in Post-Copenhagen Regime</td>
<td>The Netherlands Climate Assistance Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Improving Environmental Governance for Sustainable Management of Natural Resources in Bangladesh: Empowering local communities through natural resource governance</td>
<td>Care Bangladesh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One stop service: facilitating conservation of medicinal plants and traditional health services to ethnic communities of Chittagong Hill Tracts. Phase II: One Stop Service - herbal healing</td>
<td>USAID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection of recently completed projects (10) like</td>
<td>U.S. fish and wildlife service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Climate adaptation and Environmental awareness climate variability and other 75 major projects from 1991-2008</td>
<td>United Nations Environment Program (UNEP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>United Nations Development Program (UNDP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>United States Department of Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The Global Environment Facility (The World Bank)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pakistan</th>
<th>Ongoing projects</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Balochistan Partnership for Sustainable Development (BPSD)</td>
<td>Royal Netherlands Embassy, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the Swiss Agency for Development Cooperation (SDC), the Department for International Development (DFID), the Royal Norwegian Embassy, the Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (DGCS), GTZ, the French Development Agency (AFD), the Government of Finland, and the US Agency for International Development (USAID), Global Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sindh Coastal Community Development Project</td>
<td>Recently completed by 2008 (major 25), Afghanistan Environmental Capacity Building; EIA etc. And about 100 from 1982 to 2005</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facility (GEF), the United Nations Development Program (UNDP), the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP), the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, the European Union, the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Nepal | Ongoing Projects | Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) |
| Conservation and Sustainable Use of Wetlands Project | Government of Nepal, Global Environmental Facility/UNDP Nepal and IUCN Nepal. ICIMOD, NTNC and WWF Nepal |
| Environmental Justice | |
| Rhino Conservation | |
| Mainstreaming Environmental Rights | |
| Economic Valuation | (more than 25 by 2005 and more than 55 by 2000) |

| India | Ongoing Projects | Tata Steel Ltd. and engineering and construction firm Larsen & Toubro (L&T), CARE, FAO, UNEP and Wetlands International, with support from Norad and Sida the Netherlands Directorate General for International Cooperation (DGIS) |
| Livelihoods and Landscapes Strategy (LLS) | |
| Mangroves for the Future (MFF) Initiative | |
| The Water and Nature Initiative (WANI) | |
| Dhamra Port Project | |
| Regional cooperation on climate change mitigation and adaptation in the Himalayan region | |
| Linking grassroots action to policy debate | |


IUCN is not treating India the same as other three countries in the region and also has not entered to India to help nation for the environmental empowerment. Instead IUCN has engaged India for strengthening regional collaborations and improvements in knowledge, capacity, and governance. IUCN’s conservation priorities for India are:

Enhancing India’s cooperation with other countries on issues where national, regional, and global conservation concerns converge; Influencing mainstream policy and programs to recognize the trade-offs between social, economic and environmental considerations, and to integrate conservation concerns into the process of decision making; Employing effective instruments that encourage environmentally sensitive resource use, and discourage unsustainable practices by resource users; Designing special measures to ensure the survival of fragile ecosystems in different parts of the country; Promoting community conservation of common pool resources, whether owned by the state, or by local entities and Managing protected areas, reserved forests, and other habitats controlled by the state in a manner that balances conservation imperatives with local needs, synthesizes scientific conservation principles with indigenous knowledge, and provides local communities a long term stake in conservation (IUCN 2006:21-22, 2010).

Similarly, IUCN’s India strategy also states that there is the need of international cooperation in developing knowledge because of:

- the nature of sub-regional, regional, and global environmental threats;
• social and environmental impact of international development choices on India and social and environmental impact of India’s development choices on other countries;
• and also need for the building capacity through the bilateral and multilateral cooperation in areas of mutual concern, by national and sub-national agencies;
• and essential to improving governance for the equitable and effective arrangements for environmental conservation at the regional and global level (IUCN 2006:9).

These are vague but essential parameters in addressing the degrading natural resource wealth in the region. The performance of achieving these goals depends on the various factors because India is not as passive of a recipient as Nepal, Bangladesh or Pakistan. For example, one of the first projects of IUCN in India, which was initiated with under the theme of Business and Biodiversity Program (BBP), was with the Associated Cement Companies Limited (ACC). It a branch of Holcim and The Dhamra Port Company Limited (DPCL), a joint venture of Tata Steel and Larsen & Toubro (IUCN 2008), has already generated considerable debate among its members. The debate is whether IUCN should handle the joint programs with the profit making big business organizations. The Dhamra Port Company Limited (DPCL), project is not a directly managed by IUCN India office instead it is managed by the Regional HQ under the business and biodiversity program. However, after having the country office in India, it has been a focal point and to some extent bears the responsibility. IUCN India office is facing criticism because of its unclear stand about the controversial Dhamra Port project.

As noted in the Marine Turtle Newsletter (MTN), the Dhamra Port development in Orissa, India, has been characterized by conflict. The tension exists not only between developers and environmental groups, but also among local and international environmental organizations and individual experts around differing approaches, processes, and uses of information. For more than a year, the issues surrounding the Dhamra Port development have sparked passionate and sometimes vehement discussion on email listservs and during the Marine Turtle Specialist Group (MTSG) meeting at the International Sea Turtle Society’s annual symposium (January 2008,
Loreto, Baja California, Mexico) (Marine Turtle Newsletter (MTN) No. 121, 2008:10). The MTN has been publishing the controversies regarding port and several discussions have been held but there is no agreement between the local stakeholders and Dhamra Port authority and IUCN. Instead of criticism IUCN has been supporting the project and has asserted that IUCN’s support will be continued (IUCN 2008).

Regarding these concerns, IUCN (2008) gave the response noting that it is important to remember that IUCN is not a regulatory organization and does not have a mandate to adjudicate in cases such as this. Rather, it provides independent scientific advice when called on to do so (IUCN 2008:1). It further elaborated that “Any such involvement is neither intended nor should be construed as approving or disapproving a particular development but rather as a means to help those making decisions with respect to the conservation of nature” (IUCN 2008:1; IUCN 2009:1; The MTN 2008:12-13). And regarding this controversy, I tried to understand the public views during my field visit in India with both who were against and supportive of the project. The people who has been criticizing the project argument has two parts. First they say that, the project was begun without complete Environment Assessment which is mandatory by existing environmental rules and regulations. They argue that the turtle breeding ground has been affected and IUCN involvement in the project is unfortunate. However, the people who were involved in the decision making process argue that, the project has used the most modern technology to minimize the impact on turtle breeding and the development of port is essential for the nation (the respondents include the current president of IUCN, IUCN staff in Bangkok, Gland and NGOs leaders).

IUCN headquarters has begun to response to its stakeholders at least by providing the details about the ongoing business and biodiversity projects. In response to the Dhamra port case,
as demanded by various stakeholders related to turtle conservation in India and the globe, IUCN has had made available most of the documentation related to this project and also has provided the link on its home page.

The other few ongoing projects of India are mostly linked to the regional environment in which one of the largest programs in the region is Mangroves for the Future Initiative (MFF) which is a unique partner-led initiative to promote investment in coastal ecosystem conservation for sustainable development. It provides a collaborative platform among many different agencies, sectors, and countries who are addressing challenges to coastal ecosystem and livelihood issues, to work towards a common goal. It has six MFF “focal countries: India, Indonesia, Maldives, Seychelles, Sri Lanka and Thailand and three UN agencies (FAO, UNDP and UNEP) and three international organizations (CARE, IUCN and Wetlands International) in implementation (MFF 2008). India implemented the first phase of this initiative (2006-2009), as a result a detailed National Strategy and Action Plan for Mangrove conservation was drafted and adopted by the National Coordination Body (NCB) that oversees this initiative. This document identifies five focus states: West Bengal, Orissa, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu along with gaps in knowledge, research priorities, and currently implementing various programs in the identified areas with success.

IUCN India program is still in the beginning stage. India office has only 4 staff and 2 volunteers (when I visited in July 2009). However, it has undertaken couple of groundbreaking activities such as (1) the Himalayan Region Water and Nature Initiative (WANI) – which is an innovative management practices to support mainstreaming of an ecosystem approach to water management; (2) the Regional Environmental Law Program – which is a study on the access to legal resources by the rural communities to enforce already created norms and the role of NGOs
in legal systems and (3) the Tiger Reserve Assessment - IUCN Asia worked with the Ministry of Environment and Forests to undertake an independent review of tiger reserve assessment reports, and provide technical assistance to improve tiger census methodologies (IUCN 2010). In addition to that at the regional level IUCN has formulated two innovative strategies those includes (1) The Livelihoods and Landscapes Strategy (LLS) which is a global initiative that examines the rights and access of the rural poor to forest products in the context of the entire landscape in which people and forests interact; and (2) the Mangroves for the Future Initiative (MFF), which seeks to address long-term threats to coastal ecosystems, and promote investment in conserving coastal ecosystems as development ‘infrastructure’ respectively. LLS Livelihoods and landscapes strategies are plans to address human and environmental needs in large areas of land. They have a special emphasis on improving livelihoods through the sustainable use of forests. The purpose of LLS includes improving livelihood security, governance, enhancing ecosystem services, linking biodiversity and poverty reduction, and supporting national and global priorities. It is joint project of IUCN with Winrock International India’ (WII) and ‘The Energy and Resources Institute’ (TERI) respectively. The major components of the program include: poverty reduction, market linkages and incentives, and improved governance (IUCN 2010).

According to the Report of the IUCN Scoping Mission to the Dhamra Port Project, Orissa, India (2008:1)

“In July 2006, Aban Marker Kabraji, IUCN Regional Director for Asia met Mr. Ratan Tata, Chairman of the TATA Sons in Mumbai to discuss various aspects of environment and corporate social responsibility for TATA’s operations. This also included the conservation of turtles in view of the impending development of Dhamra Port in Orissa State, on the east coast of India. The project is to be implemented by the Dhamra Port Company Limited (DPCL) as a joint venture between L&T and Tata Steel. The ensuing communication exchanges between IUCN and TATA Steel led to an agreement between DPCL and IUCN for the latter to undertake a mission for scoping out the issues that could be followed by the setting up of an independent scientific review panel (or some other intervention)
organized by IUCN, should the two organizations so agree. Accordingly, the objectives of the Scoping Mission, undertaken during Nov 29 – Dec 02, 2006 were to:

a. Develop an understanding of the Dhamra port project and its implications for the environment in general and for the conservation of turtles in particular;
b. Develop an understanding of the debate and efforts undertaken thus far between the NGOs, DPCL and the Government, and establish a list of key outstanding issues that remain to be addressed;
c. Establish the need and expectations of key stakeholders, in particular DPCL, as to the potential IUCN intervention and support;
d. Clarify with DPCL the conditions, requirements and schedule for potential follow up work (should such a follow up be agreed between IUCN and DPCL); and,
e. Establish the scope for the agreed follow up”.

The same documents also list the concerns of local conservation organizations. According to the Report of the IUCN Scoping Mission to the Dhamra Port Project, Orissa, India (2008:3)

Under the section 5. Environmental Impact Concerns notes:

“The issues related to turtle conservation and the Port development have been the subject of protracted and, at times, strongly contested debate. The opinions vary widely, from assertions that the development of the port will severely threaten the nesting and existence of turtles (by conservation NGOs) to no impact (NEAA), although the DPCL recognizes there will be impacts but believes these are manageable through simple mitigation measures (by DPCL officials). According to the DPCL officials, the Gahirmatha nesting beach lies some 18 km away in a straight line, and some 30 km through available waterways, with some islands intervening in between as to reduce the impact of lights and glare from the port, and this distance was considered by them to be sufficient to minimize impacts to turtles” (IUCN 2007:3).

Further the document in page 3-4 states that:

“Following concerns raised in 2005 by conservation NGOs, Tata Steel offered (and advanced necessary funds) to WWF Orissa for an assessment of the potential impacts by the Port. The funds were later returned at the direction of WWF India. The Bombay Natural History Society was subsequently given funding to carry out a similar study, to assess the potential project impacts and solutions regarding turtles. They also returned the funds, accusing the project of having already started the development work (land acquisition). Various people in the NGO community felt that the project should have been abandoned or moved to an alternate location, had the company been sincere in its commitment to protect the environment. However, from the initial intelligence that the Mission was able to gather, the company lacked a scientific basis for decision making and the NGOs did not provide practical advice or assist when invited by the company to undertake necessary scientific assessments, thus representing a missed opportunity to have an impact at the earlier stages of the development’ (IUCN 2007:3-4).

“It appears then that a lack of understanding of the issues on all sides of the arguments to date has exacerbated the issues related to the port proposal: The developers were not clear about the real concerns of the NGOs, as these had not been clearly articulated. The NGOs
didn’t know the commitment of the DCPL, as this also had not been clearly articulated. The Government had no idea of the potential impacts, as these had also not been clearly articulated. Thus, most people operated on a ‘half knowledge’ basis, whereby they knew parts of each argument. It seems there was a lack of understanding on the implications of the port development on the turtles based on biology and natural history, and both sides worked rather from notions or partial understandings of common misconceptions about turtles. Issues such as these, and numerous others, will need to be dealt with in any future environmental planning if the project is to benefit from valuable scientific and conservation input from the relevant government agencies and NGOs” (IUCN 2007:4).

The IUCN’s publication itself clearly indicates how the project has been controversial. It is noteworthy to highlight that the TATA Company made donations to conservation organizations like World Wildlife Fund India and The Bombay Natural History Society, but IUCN returned the money to Tata Company. The document does not elaborate how IUCN benefited from such a controversial program. So far, as noted above, except the Dhamra Port project, IUCN in India has been working smoothly. However, it is too early to tell if it would make a significant impact on the conservation of nature and natural resources in India, as it has the reputation in the other Asian countries as well as in the Caribbean and Africa.

**Funding for the country specific programs**

As such, there is no significantly different funding mechanism for the Asia from the other regions. However, at the regional level some of the regional partners can be seen in the specific program themes. In Asia, there are some identical programs such as ELG Ecosystems & Livelihoods Group; REEP Regional Environmental Economics Program; RELP Regional Environmental Law Program; RFP Regional Forest conservation Program; RCMP Regional Coastal and Marine and Program, and RWWP Regional Water and Wetlands Program. In addition, the Asian Development Bank, ICIMOD, and few private sector actors have collaborative programs with IUCN Asia programs.
Among other the main focus is in maintaining ecosystems and addressing the livelihoods needs of the inhabitants of coastal ecosystems, however about 90 percent programs are funded by the bilateral donors (as shown in the figure below), 4 percent by multilateral and only two percent by the governments and the private sectors respectively, figure 23.

Distribution of funding by donor types in Asia

Source: Source: IUCN Asia External review 2010:41

The figure clearly indicates the dependency with the particular types of donors that by principle is not a sustainable model of financing for which IUCN has been advocating (Emerton et al. 2006; CBD 2005; 2007; Thomas 2007; Hoang et al. 2008). The project funding through the particular types of donors is often short term. Once the project period is over, the funding will end whether or not the project has brought the desired outcomes. Also, there is no certainty that the funder will continue its funding for the successfully completion of the project. There is also a chance that a donor agency will change its focus of funding interest. Insofar there is no funding arrangement in regional as well as the country specific programs, which is one of the major challenges IUCN has been facing along with reducing program size.

*IUCN resolutions and country focus*
Resolutions are official decisions made by the members through votes or by consensus. As seen in the most of the World Congress of IUCN, most resolutions come from the developed world without the complete understanding of the impacts of such resolutions, whereas the developing world’s own voices do not get enough attention. The content analysis of all resolutions passed from IUCN inception to 2008, shows that more than 85 percent of resolutions are tabled by the organizations from the United States and Europe, followed by Australia and New Zealand, and few from Caribbean and South Africa. Among the Asian countries, Philippines, Thailand, and India are the major countries that propose resolutions. Among the four countries, India has been always in the top in preparing policy directives, taking part in the international conservation forum, and proposing agendas through the various proposed resolutions. The review shows that, as the research respondents had repeatedly mentioned, India’s presence at the World Conservation Congress is not only due to its size and population, but also due to the willingness to build conservation knowledge on the emerging issues on the global stage. This thesis is largely supportive of India’s involvement in IUCN’s resolution process. Figure 24. Participation or occurrences in IUCN resolution 1948-2008
A content analysis of the countries listing in the resolution from 1948 to 1994, India occurs 51 times (resolutions about conservation programs-both support and oppose), followed by Pakistan 16 times, Nepal 2 times and Bangladesh only once. Similarly, from the first World Congress in Montreal (IUCN change the General assembly name to World Congress in 1996) to the fourth World Congress in Barcelona in 2008, India’s occurrence is 72; Pakistan 22, Nepal 11 and Bangladesh only 7 times respectively. This indicates that India has had a strong presence in IUCN’s global policy formation process.

Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan’s minimal involvement in the IUCN resolution which largely draws global attention and helps to acquire funding from donor agencies [international sources], shows that either Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Nepali scientists have been reluctant to propose resolutions to IUCN World Congress or lack the expertise in doing so. In contrast in the case of India (as seen in the figure 24 above), IUCN has passed several resolution and even
intervene the government’s decisions in conflict issues (Narmada Dam project, Silent Valley conservation cases). As the above sections shows IUCN has been major stakeholder in Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Nepali national conservation policy formation, planning, preparation of projects, and in implementation. However, they have been always passive recipients but very active in achieving conservation goals through on-the-ground project implementation.

The response of Experts on IUCN’s role in Environment Conservation

The overall analysis mentioned above shows that IUCN has been playing an important role in the conservation of nature in Asia particularly in Pakistan, Bangladesh and Nepal by helping them in protected area management, principally by helping these countries formulate conservation strategies, developing appropriate policies, and by empowering the countries in creating conservation regimes. In the case of India, IUCN’s direct program started only in 2007. However, IUCN’s presence can be seen throughout the country’s history, especially in regards to policy recommendation on water resource management these actions occurred particularly through the resolutions from the 10th General Assembly, which was held in New Delhi from November 24 to December 1, 1969. In the case of India, it has been mutual, whereas IUCN provided its expertise to India and also the Indian scientists helped IUCN to extend its mission at the global level. Most importantly IUCN expanded its role by contributing in drafting the CBD and the World Conservation Strategy during the Monkumbu Swaminathan (India) Presidential time since 1984–1990. Similarly, several Indian experts have served IUCN as regional councilors or as commission members to help achieve its conservation goals.

In the most of the Asian countries, IUCN is considered as a one of the most resourceful of major international organizations, with the high profile in the international forums. However, Indian experts accept its importance in the global south context, but do not think that India needs
any expertise from IUCN at the policy level. The absence of IUCN office in India during the first sixty years of its existence certainly shows India’s ability to manage its own resources. IUCN’s role in India in the earlier era was specifically to help the developing nations to prepare conservation strategies and other policy instruments. It also helped in the institutionalization of conservation policies when countries invited it for assistance. Therefore, by not inviting IUCN into the country, it indicates that either India had sufficient expertise for preparation of conservation policy instrument or IUCN could not demonstrate its usefulness to the Indian government. Additionally, the India experts view IUCN as a western hegemonic organization (based on interviews July 2009, New Delhi).

The cases of other three, particularly Nepal recognized the role and expertise of IUCN from the very beginning of the development planning process and invited IUCN to guide it in the National Planning Commission when it was preparing its five years plans related sections of the natural resource management. IUCN headquarters sent highly skilled experts from overseas to Nepal. They did not simply concentrate on policy formation but also were engaged (until 1990) in infrastructure and human resource development particularly in the biodiversity conservation within the region and overseas as well. From 1990 onwards, Nepali experts took the lead in extending its niche to include project planning and implementation. Similarly, in Pakistan, IUCN used the well-trained Pakistani scholars and a few international experts to promote policy formation. These individuals were able to produce the exemplary effort in few years and manage to show IUCN’s presence in every sectors of natural resources management. Bangladesh followed a similar path as Pakistan and managed to intervene into the conservation governance system. It helped both countries in the preparation of policy directives as well as in the development of self-directed project that addressed the countries severely vulnerable ecosystems.
All four countries of the region share the similar types of cultures, broadly speaking. However, Nepal and India having Hindu dominated populations and hence share common conservation approaches (In Hindu mythology conserving nature was also worshiping of God; however, in practice it is no more there) Pakistan and Bangladesh both follow more Islamic values and norms but Bangladesh is more open to application of civil society-friendly efforts. As a result Bangladesh houses some of the largest and self-sustaining NGOs in the world. In relation to conservation mechanism, Nepal and India have strong ties. Having the facility of an open border and close cultural ties, it was easy for Nepali to get into the Indian educational institutions particularly in forestry and wildlife conservation. They used similar knowledge as Indian conversationalist used in India. As a result, there are similar concepts and opinions about the role of IUCN in Nepal and India. It is surprising because Nepal has been enjoying IUCN’s contributions from 1960s and India just since 2007. The major difference between the two countries was that Indian scientists repeated that IUCN needs to work only in the local level where environmental problems are severe. In contrast Nepali experts repeated that IUCN should work both at the national policy level as well as at the local project level.

In the case of two countries, Pakistan and Bangladesh, working largely from IUCN’s regional headquarters in Bangkok, the respondents indicated not only the directives of IUCN council, world congresses, or the secretariat made IUCN one of the successful conservation organization in the region, but they were highlighting the role of the dynamic or charismatic leadership that has made IUCN quite influential in their respected countries. The respondents from Bangladesh in particular, including IUCN officials, government officials, NGOs leaders and other scholars repeatedly mentioned that IUCN (because of its leadership who come from academia), managed to handle IUCN as knowledge center by involving academicians in the
conservation research process through helping the government draft most of the country’s conservation policy instruments. IUCN also engaged the role of program implementation, through its own mechanism. However, they commented that IUCN has some limitation and weakness both in terms of global programs as well as the country-specific programs including those in Bangladesh and Pakistan. The following paragraphs illustrate the country-specific case of the four countries.

**Bangladesh**

During that first decade, the IUCN managed several projects specifically related to policy formation, capacity building and creation of conservation regime of the country; those are considered as the exemplary works for paving the way for the development of a well-considered and effective Bangladeshi environmental regime. Through these projects the IUCN was able to build trust with the government, other international organizations who were working in Bangladesh, as well as with NGOs and other stakeholders mostly in the field of natural resource conservation and management. The IUCN in Bangladesh is visible in sectors related to nature conservation and is a highly trusted and respected international organization. It also has been a major attraction to work collaboratively with the other international organizations in Bangladesh. The IUCN has been able to secure funding and is free to work independently in any part of the country under the provision of memorandum of understanding signed by the government and the IUCN, related to environment conservation and management.

Having this creditability, the experts in Bangladesh highly appreciate the IUCN’s contribution. To get the IUCN’s officials, member organizations, government officials and commissions members views about the role of IUCN in Bangladesh I conducted seven email interviews with experts, nine face to face interviews with the IUCN officials working in the national headquarters in Dhaka, and four NGOs leader of IUCN member organization including
the regional councilor in Dhaka and with seven officials from BRAC Bangladesh (IUCN-national member one of the largest NGOs of the world in terms of program and converge-interviews conducted in my 2008 trip to Dhaka). In addition to that I also conducted interviews with Government officials formally with Conservator of Forest and three other officials who did not wish to disclose their names, and two ex-officials who are now working for WWF-Bangladesh and Practical Action, Dhaka. Surprisingly, whatever the question I asked, there was appreciation of IUCN’s contribution and the instrumental role of leadership similar to Pakistan where most of the respondents appreciated the role of the leadership. In the case of two countries Pakistan and Bangladesh, and largely from the regional headquarters in Bangkok, the respondents were indicating not only the directives of IUCN council or world congress or the secretariat made the IUCN one of the successful conservation organization in the region, but they were highlighting the role of the dynamic or charismatic leadership that made IUCN most influential in their respected territories. Particularly the respondents from Bangladesh including the IUCN officials, government officials, NGOs leaders and other scholars repeatedly mentioned that, the IUCN (because of its leadership who come from academia), managed to handle the IUCN as knowledge hub through involving the academicians in the conservation research process.

Returning back to the IUCN’s officials, member organizations, government officials and commissions members about the IUCN role in Bangladesh, most of the respondents agreed that the IUCN has played and catalytic role in institutionalization of conservation practice, firstly through helping the government in drafting mostly all policy instruments those were drafted after 1989. In addition to that the IUCN officials, government officials, NGOs leaders, the scholars who are associated in IUCN through commissions and the ex-officials appreciate the role of
program implementation, through its own mechanism. However, they also comment that, the
IUCN has some limitation and weakness both in terms of global programs as well as the country
specific programs including Bangladesh.

In this respect the (then) country director (CR) of IUCN Bangladesh was not happy how
IUCN was playing its role for conservation of nature.

He states that at one time, IUCN was possibly the most influential organization at the global
level to set priorities, propose development approaches and work out strategies for nature
conservation. Possibly, the influence is no longer as strong as before. As the organization
could not move at a desired pace as demanded by the rate of changes in global thinking. Let
me give one example: the 1992 Convention on Climate Change had three main goals,
namely, (i) to control the process of climate change so that biodiversity and ecosystems are
able to adjust (ii) food security is not hampered (iii) the process of development is not
impeded. Based on these three major goals of UNFCCC, IUCN should have been major
actors in the arena of climate change. But, it has not happened. [Ex-country director of
Bangladesh 2009, Dhaka]

Four other senior officials of IUCN Bangladesh office also provided the same story that IUCN
had been playing the key role in institutionalization of conservation process in Bangladesh.
However, they shared the difficulties in convincing government officials and other policy makers
generate a priority list of urgent issue to address. As the CR noted, they feel that IUCN needs to
reorganize its position because its major task of creating the conservation regime is complete and
need to move in next steps with new vision and new mandate. In this respect, they also believe
that the bureaucratic system of IUCN is a major hindrance in re-positioning IUCN as necessary.
In terms of bureaucratic difficulties, they do not see the flexibility mandate given by the regional
office and the headquarters.

In terms of program planning and implementation the NGOs observation is positive;
however, they want more collaborative approach from IUCN country office. There are two
scenarios among the members. For example the large NGOs like the Bangladesh Rural
Advancement Committee (BRAC was established in 1972 and this is the largest NGO in Bangladesh and a member of IUCN) and other NGOs who have been implementing the larger forest and wetlands conservation programs program before IUCN’s presence in Bangladesh. The other large NGOs such as POUISH-Bangladesh (IUCN member), Grameen Bank; the Association of Development Agencies of Bangladesh (ADAB is the national association for hundreds of development NGOs), Proshika - A center for human development is another large NGO in Bangladesh; RDRS: The Rangpur - Dinajpur Rural Services; TMSS Thangamara Mohila Sabuj Sangha (Established in 1976, but on the scene since 1965) and several others have been working with the partnership of government and with the other donor agencies. These NGOs see IUCN as the competitor for funding and program implementation. The IUCN member NGOs such as Environment and Social Development Organization (ESDO); Nature Conservation Management (NACOM); Center for Natural Resource Studies (CNRS); Bangladesh Environmental Lawyers Association (BELA) who have been playing important role in lobbying and activism in overall conservation issues including climate change want some space and collaboration in obtaining the funding, however they also feel the competitive threat of IUCN. Another scenario is still the IUCN member and nonmember NGOs expect direct funding support from IUCN. Some of the research participants (especially from large NGOs) express their dissatisfaction with IUCN’s ways of working and believe that IUCN cares only about the big NGOs who actually compete for the same funding from the same agency.

The IUCN has been helping in overall policy reform especially in the natural resource management system; however the effects if its colonial legacy still lingers in Bangladesh. In this regard one of the best known environmental lawyers Mrs. Syeda Rizwana Hasan (Defender
of environment) formed the Bangladesh Environmental Lawyers Association (BELA) (IUCN member organization), nicely summarizes Bangladesh current situation given its colonial history.

She makes some very important remarks which give insights of insiders of Bangladesh.

She states:

1. If we (as lay person or NGO leader) request government for services, what we will get (italic is my adding to make clear the statement):
   'Asking government offices for service is treated as an offence as these offices usually use "colonial laws" as an excuse for not providing service to the people’. 'Moreover, the politicians and the officials who run these offices never question why the colonial laws are not amended or changed.'
2. In addressing the environmental problem government response would be:
   Unfortunately, (political) leaders (and the government) in our country cannot say no to anti-people steps...They remained silent when industries and powerful quarters were polluting and encroaching water bodies...Now they are taking projects to stop pollution and reclaim the rivers.'
3. How government initiates the community involvement in preparation of development plans:
   'The government does not seem to believe that community involvement can be helpful and all development plans require impartial cost-benefit analysis. They even do not provide information to the people,'
4. What about the government initiatives in addressing the environmental problems:
   'You cannot solve the problems by organizations such as Rajuk (RAJUK is one of the lead "Construction Actor" in the development process of Dhaka. The main activities include construction of roads, box-culverts/culverts and bridges and also development, excavation and filling of land) and the Department of Environment, which have actually created the problems in the first place.
5. Is corruption is still a problem:
   Corruption has reached its peak in many of these offices. Of course, there are honest officials in these organizations but they are marginalized,’ 'In many cases the laws also inspire corruption. The forest law was enacted during the British rule as a tool to collect revenue. In fact, you need to infuse wisdom. It is important how you do it.'
6. How we could solve these conservation problems and especially why we care the forest:
   'We need to change the attitude towards forests, wherever they are. Many consider forest as a commodity. Now it (forest) has become a tool for carbon trading depending on how much money it would be able to earn. In fact, the trees are our soul. They provide all living things with shelter, food, safety, security. They give us a sense of beauty.

Source: The New Age (2010:11)

Mrs. Hasan responses on above questions give an overall account of the administrative problem of Bangladesh and answers why the policy instruments are not fully functioning, even having the so many efforts by the international organizations such as the IUCN and others.
These points are not 100 percent applicable in every sector. The change is taking place, the awareness level regarding the environmental problem is relatively high (World Bank 2009). It clearly indicates that the intellectual society, especially the conservation activist group is not happy with the government performance in public service delivery and in addressing the environmental issues.

However, in the case of IUCN’s performance, the majority of respondents of all sectors show their satisfaction of IUCN’s working modalities especially for its instrumental role on environmental and climate change regime creation in Bangladesh. In addition to that they also acknowledge the IUCN’s multi-layered focus and areas of intervention and endeavor for the natural resources and nature-based social issues including sustainable livelihoods. The respondents also assure that, the organizational performance depends on the leadership role and its vision. The analysis also indicates that the success of IUCN in Bangladesh is not only due to its policy directives mandated by the council or world congress or the secretariat, but it was due to the role of the dynamic or charismatic of leadership who made IUCN most influential and successful where the bureaucratic system still follows the colonial legacy and reluctant to adapt any significant change in the ongoing system.

The IUCN officials themselves feel that the decentralized principle has not been implemented because of the bureaucratic system does not allow the in re-positioning IUCN in country level as necessary.

India

In this research I have attempted to understand the reason for the long absence of IUCN in India. I have done this by using archival search as well as face to face, email and phone interviews with the IUCN officials from the Headquarters, in Gland, Switzerland, Asia Regional Office, Bangkok, Thailand and country office in New Delhi. In additional, I conducted
interviews with the leaders of the IUCN member organizations, commissions’ members from India and with Ministry of Environment and Forests officials.

There are thousands of research articles, reports and monographs regarding IUCN’s stake in global environment conservation, particularly after IUCN’s 10th General Assembly. However, the IUCN’s fame mounted after the publication of the *World Conservation Strategy* in 1980 and *Caring for the Earth: A strategy for sustainable living* in 1991. It is needless to say that in any publication related to global environment, sustainable development, protected area management, protected area conflict, forest management and indigenous people’s rights, the IUCN’s presence can be found as a profound conservation knowledge producer.

The same is true regarding the case study of Indian archival materials. Any research article, monograph or report written on environment conservation issue in India cites IUCN contributions one way or another. At the same time, within the IUCN documentation—including major outcomes of the resolutions and policy framing—Indian scientists have been a force within IUCN. In each general assembly from 1948 to 1994 as well as the World Congresses from 1996 to 2008, the Indian scientists were present either in the personal capacity, as representatives of member organizations, or as government officials. However, no documentation is available explaining why it took India’s government so long invite the IUCN to establish its office in India or why the IUCN could not convince the Government of India that to do so would be mutually beneficial for the citizens of India.

There has been a variety of responses regarding the role of IUCN in general and specifically to India from the Indian scholars who are currently working or have previously worked with the IUCN, leaders of the IUCN member organizations and the IUCN commission members. Of the 253 interviewees worldwide, 27 of them were from India; 14 of whom
participated in face to face interviews and 13 responded by emails or provided their input through telephone conversations. Five participated in face to face interviews and also provided their responses in written form. A total of 41 individual interviews with Indian scientist were conducted. In this process, some (particularly those responding by email) provided their input several times, either because I had further questions in some cases or because some could not manage their time to respond on follow-up questions. The comprehensive responses came from mostly university professors who accept the importance of the research procedure and also agreed to quote their names and their feedbacks as it was developed through interview process.

In response to the presence of the IUCN in India, all 13 respondents agreed and stated that India supplies substantial intellectual capital for the world community and it has the largest number of IUCN commission members of any country. Oddly, however, the IUCN maintains a minimal presence in India. The Indian subcontinent has very diverse terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems, which must be studied for conservation and sustainable development. There are several environmental issues to be addressed in different provinces of India. Hence, activities of the IUCN should be enhanced in the sub-continent. Being a premier international environmental organization, it could work at the provincial level in synergy with the respective Department of Environment and Forests and helpful NGOs to bring a new paradigm in natural resource management and conservation in the Indian subcontinent.

However there are also contrasting views from some scholars who had a long association with IUCN as commission members. Research participants from India state that while India has provided substantial intellectual contributions to the world community, there is nothing the IUCN can provide that India can’t provide itself. The scholars shared some of their experiences while they were involved in the CBD process. One respondent shared his bitter experiences of
how the developing world was not in priority during the 1980s. The scholar (in response of my question about the IUCN’s role) provides written response as:

“Despite IUCN’s posturing as a global democratic organization, it is perceived as a western organization- its secretariat is still like an Anglo-Saxon boys club. I was associated with IUCN since 1986, during that period there were hardly 3 three southern souls at the secretariat. Even then they had sacked one, who was very good, and the organization (international youth federation for environmental studies and conservation, then a de facto youth wing of IUCN) that I was then working with called IUCN racist. I recall, in 1992 at the last PrepCom of UNCED, IUCN Director General wanted to address a meeting of the G-77, and G-77 had refused it outright. They knew quite well the politics of IUCN positions. Another instance: during the apartheid period, even as there was a UN resolution calling for the boycott of the racist South Africa in all fields including science and environment, South Africans (always whites) used to hold positions in IUCN and attend its meetings. In the IUCN’s unrestrained interest to court the corporate, they have now come to be associated with anti-environmental projects (egs. the Dhamra port project of the TATAs in India)”(Email response from one of the research participants from India July 2009).

Observations similar to this were made by several other interviewees from other Asian countries (Nepal, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Thailand and Philippines), Latin American countries (Chile, Guatemala) and Africa (Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe and South Africa). This situation still applies to the administrative sector in the IUCN headquarters, which is dominated by the European with one exception. Still it is important to note that IUCN HQ is located and funded in part in Switzerland. The fact is accurate in regards to its geographical manpower structure. H however, I would argue that it is no longer the Anglo-Saxon boys club, but the Anglo-Saxon club that it once was because the gender ratio in most IUCN offices is 40/60 (40% female and 60% male). The HQ and Asia office has been headed by influential women scientists. The Indian office gender ratio in July 2009 was 50/50.

Some of the respondents also suggested I read the article by Shahul Hameed Faizi, to understand how the IUCN once acted for the benefit of the western world. The article states:
“There has been an abysmal weakening of the negotiation position of the developing countries. This is disappointing especially when one considers the unusual strength maintained by developing countries in the CBD formulation negotiations. In retrospect, it was this strength that enabled the developing countries to totally reject the IUCN (The World Conservation Union) –drafted articles and the underlying notions such as States are simply ‘guardians or custodians’ of biodiversity (and not owners), payment of a levy to a proposed international fund for biodiversity use within their territory, placing the principal emphasis on access to biodiversity, and so on. In its clamoring for a convention on biodiversity in the late 80s, the key objective of the U.S. was to legalize free and open access to biodiversity of the Southern countries before they institute protective measures. It was indeed a remarkable achievement of the Southern negotiators that they were able to discard the IUCN draft articles and the notions contained therein that formed the broad Western negotiation position. It was the united and resourceful negotiations by the South that gave birth to a balanced CBD, eliminating the prospect of a treaty for subjugating the most important resource of the South (it is this North-South balance of the CBD that prompted the U.S., the original initiator of the convention proposal, to stay away from the treaty)” (Faizi, 2004:1473).

This passage is a good illustration of the IUCN’s global environment policy making process, whereas, most resolutions have been tabled by the western world for their benefit. From my observations, the main reason for this is the government and NGO members of the developing world did not receive sufficient information about the policy formation process. The IUCN informs all members about the World Conservation Congress using both print and digital media. The print media takes months to reach the destinations and the developing world still lacks the infrastructure of digital technology. Therefore, many developing country delegates had no idea how the congress operates and what they can contribute. However, the Indian delegates were aware of the underlying politics of the conservation and most were opposed to the motion.

On a global level and in the Indian context, the experts see the IUCN more as a funding agency for NGO for sustaining their activities at the micro-level. In this regard one of the participants mentioned that:

“the impact of IUCN is far less than calculated or expected. In many cases, investments made by the various organs of the IUCN have been used up to decorate paper tigers than
kindling interest in the youth to conserve the natural resources. Leave alone conservation efforts, we should identify first, what to conserve and what not. If you look at the policy papers, plan derivatives, and action plans it will be abundantly clear that we have missed the target by at least 90 degrees. Conducting of seminars and international workshops and facilitating doyens visit India for lectures may be good from the academic point of view, but at the grass roots, conservation efforts do not percolate. NGOs alone cannot do anything without a supporting State (every State in India has its own set of environmental laws, regulations and enforcement protocol). The Government, through its forest and environment departments does something, but, public involvement is much less. Enforcement of environmental laws is pretty difficult because every aspect of the environment is under the control or one department or the other (We have more than 30 government organs to answer to- before we propose a conservation effort). Even in the protected areas, many a time the conceived strategies go haywire for one reason or the other. Dedicated people are only a handful, quite unfortunately they are neither recognized nor appreciated. When we say that a particular geographical area has to be protected for conservation purposes, the mammoth task of providing alternative livelihood for at least 3000 families arises- that ends in an ever-winding spiral” (from an email response from one of the commission members from India 2009).

The above response articulates how developing world conservation organizations see the IUCN. It is noteworthy that the IUCN senior officials in HQ also provide similar observations.

The major misconception by NGOs is viewing the IUCN as a funding agency for conservation. Instead, it is a facilitator or collaborative organization that connects together people and organizations and helps prepare conservation strategies and policy instruments, with some projects in the field. In India, the layers of bureaucracy, legal mechanisms, as well as insufficient funds, made the entry of the IUCN meaningless (based on interviews).

**Nepal**

In this research the participants represent all categories of memberships such as current employees, ex-officials, leaders of the member organizations, commission members and government officials. Having the five decades long creditability of IUCN in country’s conservation strategy preparation and policy implementation, the government of Nepal, line agencies, NGOs, commission’s members, ex-officials and people who are concerned about environmental conservation issues, appreciate tremendously the IUCN’s role and contributions
to Nepal. To get the IUCN’s officials, member organizations, government officials and commissions members views about the role of IUCN in Nepal, I conducted few email interviews with experts, five face to face interviews with the IUCN officials working in the national headquarters in Kathmandu, and five NGOs leader of IUCN member organization including the regional councilor in Nepal. During my previous trip to Asia in 2008, I conducted additional interviews with several officials from Nepal Forum of Environmental Journalists (NEFEJ); Environmental Camps for Conservation Awareness (ECCA); International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD); National Trust For Nature Conservation (NTNC); Bird Conservation Nepal (BCN); Association for Protection of Environment and Culture (APEC) (IUCN-national members). While there, I also conducted interviews with two Government officials from the Department of National Parks and Wildlife Reserve (DNPWC) and with five other officials of forest Department.

Similarly, I also interviewed four ex-officials who are now working for ICIMOD, UNDP, Tribhuvan University, Nepal, and Arizona State University, USA respectively. Most of the research participants appreciated IUCN’s contribution and its role in policy development, conservation planning, and public participation in natural resource management. The research participants see IUCN’s strength in terms of its democratic system, value proposition and its network structure as well as some criticisms. Here is the summary of group discussion:

The strength of IUCN is their function – the voluntary function. People are there to work voluntarily, take the example of these so many doctors of respected fields. They have been constantly working for 25 years without any salary. If they send anything we are grateful. They find a lot of things, you know, yourself also. So that is one of the biggest strengths which have not been very well respected by the IUCN system. The other strength is, we think, young scientists who are very much attracted, who are entering into the system - they are very much interested in getting into the IUCN system. One of the things which IUCN should have done is put a lot of people into research – it has not done that, creating knowledge, bringing knowledge from one place to another. Take as an example now the impact of climate change. You don’t see anything very recent carried out by them. Even
how species are behaving, how food crops are behaving, how tree lines are moving – all these things are not being done. So they should put more emphasis on research we think (Group discussion Kathmandu 2009).

The respondents acknowledged the IUCN’s global, regional and national level functions which largely obtained by the commissions members, who contribute their knowledge and expertise to the IUCN free of charge. As a knowledge producing organization, IUCN and its officials, who work in the policy and program implementation levels, mostly have the highest level of academic qualifications and hold several years of experiences in their respected fields. This act as knowledge raises knowledge and helps the IUCN to create more creditability as a knowledge producer. The Nepali experts who participated in this research assert that in terms of knowledge production and network creation there is no competitor to the IUCN. However, in terms of utilizing the holistic approaches, Nepali scientists do not appreciate its efforts regarding collaborative and partnerships and state that it’s largely still based on the top-down relationships, designed by the regional and central headquarters.

Nepali respondents also appreciated the IUCN’s past contribution for the creation of conservation regime in the country. However, they were critical of IUCN’s administrative system and the role of IUCN’s country representative. Because according to them IUCN is not acting in accordance to its own mission statements and that its decentralized approach to conservation is not currently being practiced in Nepal. Instead, they think that in the name of decentralization it became more bureaucratic and centralized. Here is the summary of the respondent’s responses on IUCN’s bureaucracy (based on the group discussions with the IUCN ex-officials).

While we were working with IUCN Secretariat our feelings actually are of two types. Earlier, we did not have the regional office. That system was actually decentralized and run through the center, that is, based in Gland, and the Program, projects, whatever we had, we used to develop propositions, approach to journal, all we had was an IUCN flag. We used to
design the programs, used to send to the government and to the donors, and once the funding is agreed between the two parties, and that was automatically how it was, and then we had no problem of finance. That was a decentralized system of governance. Then what they did . . . while we were working it was a very effective system, but then they added another layer of administration, a regional office, and a regional director was appointed, and they are based in Bangkok now. Then that automatically increased the bureaucracy, and that means that now the resources you would like to create for the development of country office or secretariat, that has to go through IUCN regional office and whatever money is raised by the local country secretariat, that is actually administered an governed by that regional director. So what happened eventually? One of the reasons why we left IUCN then, we had a great belief in decentralization, and the regional director (RD) went there and the RD was talking up decentralization and we said in one discussion this is a good idea, but what you are trying to do is centralizing decentralization, so we did not like the way you actually work, we told her, and that had no effect at all, but you see now, because of that layer you see now a regional secretariat in all these countries (India, Bangladesh and Nepal, even in Pakistan we know) and they’re in a complete shambles, they’re not getting the desired amount of freedom. So one of the major experiences while we were still there . . . you know, in the name of decentralization there was centralization. And therefore secretariat activity was greatly hampered - upper-handed - by the regional director, and they created many units like wetland, forestry, unit for all sorts, which is rubbish because they have no impact. And they talk of regional program but what regional program means basically is centralization in Switzerland. So that is a problem. That is one thing. At that time there was not that much bureaucracy but then it became so bureaucratic and many people who had been there a long time ago also left IUCN, because of this imposed bureaucracy. The people who were interested were looking at the global Program, on socioeconomic policy, environment legislation, species survival – all those, they also left. The only people now remaining are people like us, in a different way (not an employee of the IUCN) but as Commission members. Our relationship with the Commission members is very much cosmetic only. It is very much cosmetic. When there is a need for a vote they ask us as members to come, or meeting also. To lobby to do something, then they ask us. There is no financial support, nothing whatsoever. In summary, the Secretariat system is very much bureaucratic and action at the local level is very low (focus group discussion during the World Conservation Congress –Barcelona 2008)

All respondents from Nepal mentioned that the major problem of IUCN is its complex bureaucracy (especial the top down approach-all policies made by HQ and for the country specific programs handled by the regional HQ). They also accept that the IUCN in Nepal is not able to reach out to main clients, its members and donors. This is because the Nepal country office has never been free to implement its priority programs without prior approval from the regional office. They note that this doesn’t mean that IUCN is not a good organization because
IUCN has helped Nepal to shape all of its major conservation policies and environmental conservation strategy as well as its environmental laws. The IUCN staff in Nepal have been friendly are certainly competent. They often repeated that they enjoyed working with the IUCN, but things need to be improved like or especially, in providing more freedom in program planning and implementation at the national level projects. The research participants were hopeful that in the coming days, IUCN can implement an improved bureaucracy and processes which may be able to serve members more as well as our partners and supporters. In this regard, one of the ex-country IUCN representatives from Nepal in July 2009 in the email response notes that:

“ICUN is a networking organization and it has three layers of members – secretariat, commissions and general members - often described as three pillars. He further wrote that the IUCN has excellent connection in the three pillars members, the commission members and the secretaries. There’s very good communication and coordination and support from each other. The question here is that most of our members are NGOs and mostly from the developing countries. These members are not very strong and they are not that much involved in the world governance process of IUCN although they vote on items every four years during the World Congress. But the way they have to contribute, the way they could contribute, that’s an assumption. And the Commissions, they are voluntary members. Certainly they are committed people but it doesn’t mean they can contribute all the time. Only a handful of country members could contribute. Most are quite inactive most of the time. To give you an example, we have thousands of IUCN members, but only 30-40 are active in task forces and activities. Most of them are just members. Now the problem is the Secretariat being the administrative arm of the union so they are the real pillar by which IUCN can function. So these three pillars are working well but this doesn’t mean they are functioning excellently. We need a better balance by which IUCN can function – most of the time the secretariat is more dominant than the other two pillars. We know this is obvious and they are good people and the experts, so that means they can really influence. The secretariat is working well but the other two pillars have good people who could influence the successful functioning of the organization. The Secretariat should understand the importance of the other two pillars is to try to build capacity and engage more with the governments [and wider community]. A better balance is needed between the three pillars to make a good foundation for the good union” (email response from one of the ex-country director -2009).
In terms of uniqueness all Nepali scientists (15 of them) accepted that the IUCN has functional, structural and bureaucratically advantages of being the hybrid organizations (here is the summary of responses of the focus group discussion).

For example- there are three or four major instances. One, it is a government system. It is a very unique organization, the way the governments, NGOs and other persons and organizations can be members. It is the only NGO in the world with government members! If properly mobilized we can reach out to the people very quickly. So how do we function, how do we mobilize our vast range of members? Second is there are thousands of people who believe in conservation, who believe in a better future, and a better environment. These people are contributing a lot and the more we are able to mobilize these people who are willing to contribute, the better the outcomes for conservation of species, including ours. Third is this mission and vision - so comprehensive, it captures almost every aspect, all the issues we are trying to influence. No other organization has such a wide range of people and networks who are coming to support such a cause. So it is a wonderful organization which has so many qualities, and the more we try to achieve, and the more effective, the better for the world (July 2009, Kathmandu).

All respondents from Nepal asserted that the Nepali experts understand what their country needs, what should be the focus areas, and how program should be developed and implement (here is the summary of focus group discussion).

They position that Nepal has unique history of forest conservation, wetland conservation and wildlife conservation. Of course IUCN has been critically important in policy formation, preparation of forest policy, conservation strategies, however, the people who work on behalf of the IUCN have been always Nepali scientists except Jeffrey McNeely, William Jackson and few other. In reality, whoever foreign experts work on behalf of the IUCN, firstly they tried to understand the cultural richness of Nepal in the conservation, therefore, they were successful. In recent years, after the establishment of regional office, the policy directives have been implemented according to the regional demands, particularly, with the emphasis on Pakistan and Bangladesh. However, Nepalese system of conservation is different in terms of culture, geographical variation and the awareness level of the general public. Nepali wants to have strong stake in the conservation mechanism.

In sum, the majority of respondents [from the government officials, the employees of IUC Nepal, ex-officials, NGOs leaders and the commission’s members] show their satisfaction with IUCN’s working structure and its instrumental role in constructing/ creating conservation
regimes in Nepal. In addition, they also acknowledge the IUCN’s multi-layered focus and areas of intervention and endeavor for the natural resources and nature-based social issues including sustainable livelihoods. The respondents also assure that, the organizational performance depends on the leadership role and its vision. The analysis also indicates that in the past the success of the IUCN in Nepal was not only due to its policy directives mandated by the council or world congress or the secretariat, but it was due to the focus of the government and the donor. In recent years Nepal could not provide the leadership which could bargain with regional directorate and headquarters to keep Nepal as the first priority country as the IUCN officials managed in Pakistan and Bangladesh. It is basically the instability in the government (as described in chapter seven).

The success of the organization to some extent depends on the role of leadership, who could make significant change in the ongoing system, but it is not happening in Nepal. In contrast, the program in Nepal has been shirking. However, the IUCN in Nepal is functioning as a collaborative and participatory organization by bringing all stakeholders together to resolve the ongoing environmental crisis, as a body of multiple tasks.

In principle the IUCN is supposed to function freely in the specified niche, however, it also lacks the freedom in making the own decision due to its dependency of multiple stakeholders interests (such as donor agencies, the government, members and the regional and headquarters). The IUCN officials themselves feel that the decentralized principle has not been implemented because of the bureaucratic system does not allow the in re-positioning IUCN in country level as necessary (interviews with officials in Switzerland 2009).

Pakistan
IUCN has recognized creditability in global as well as regional and national level conservation strategy formation. Having this creditability, the people in Pakistan highly appreciate its contribution. To get the IUCN’s officials, member organizations, government officials and commissions members views about IUCN’s role in Pakistan, I conducted three email interviews with past officials, thirteen face to face interviews with the IUCN officials working in the national headquarters in Karachi, one interview with head of the Islamabad office and two NGOs leader of IUCN member organization in Karachi. Surprisingly, whatever the question I asked, their responses were how IUCN changed the face of Pakistan how it involved in National Conservation Strategy (NCS) process and how it came to current position.

The only different response was from the women NGOs leaders. They told me that women are marginally involved in the government bureaucracy as well as with IUCN. However, they are also satisfied about the IUCN’s role in reaching out to the poorest of the poor regarding sustainable livelihood projects. With the question on how IUCN became successful in Pakistan, all of respondents noted that because of its working modality, policy interventions, funding mechanisms, and trustworthiness of the organization were all key factors. Every one of them told me that the success of the IUCN was due to its commitment to its mission, which is stated in every piece of IUCN’s publication. The mission is to influence, encourage, and assist societies throughout the world to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature. Its objective is to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable through supporting governments, NGOs, international conventions, UN organizations, companies, and communities. And to help concerned stakeholders to develop laws, policy and best-practice, by helping to implement laws, policy and best-practice by mobilizing organizations, providing resources
and training, and monitoring results (IUCN 2010). The case of Pakistan is one of the best examples of IUCN’s success in a specific country.

Similar responses were provided by the top management officials from IUCN headquarters.

The deputy director general stated that in expanding the IUCN’ role in Pakistan by saying:

Look at Pakistan – at the time when IUCN entered into Pakistan, there was no environmental laws, no environmental industry. There was a very strong forestry department but few forests, so IUCN helped set up everything, the laws, the systems, the policies. It has changed what it does over the years. Whether we still need 160 staff there in lots of those projects – you can have a look at that and decide yourself. Certainly the governance-political-historical situation in India is very different than Pakistan and very different than Bangladesh and very different than Sri Lanka, so you’ll see as you know already a fair bit, that the systems in those countries, their level of development, their capacity, are very different. And there are problems – Bangladesh’s problems, except perhaps for Bihar maybe, any relationship with anything in Nepal law, no – completely different problems. They have to have a different solution – a Bangladesh solution (face to face interview in Gland).

The other officials at HQ also provide the same success story of how the IUCN changed the environmental condition of Pakistan and how the leadership can make the difference in particular niche.

The respondents from Pakistan also gave similar responses. They mentioned that the success of IUCN in Pakistan is due to dynamism of its leadership. The respondents repeatedly noted that the IUCN Pakistan always selected the most capable field experts who have the capacity of tackling in any type of critical situation. This observation was also acknowledged by the Director General (DG) of IUCN. The DG states:

I think in a place where there is so much bureaucracy and so much organized civil society like India it hasn’t been that easy for us to find our niche [in Pakistan], naturally and we also haven’t had the leadership there. We had real leadership in the early days in Pakistan and everything depends on that. It’s just a question of luck – as it turns out, a Pakistani woman became very important in the IUCN world and she played a very strong role, well-connected through her family and all that. We haven’t had that kind of real leadership in Nepal, and Bangladesh either, and that’s really too bad for us (based on interview at IUCN HQ 2009).
Similar finding were found in previous research conducted by Anne Rademacher (2005) regarding the impact of leadership:

The Pakistan office functioned as a microcosm in several ways. It had multiple offices - a country office [in Karachi] and other program offices [in Islamabad and Peshawar], and so in some ways, this mirrors the situation in the region. The systems that worked for Pakistan to maintain its integrity as a whole were looked at as a base from which to launch the regional systems. That was not done blindly - these structures had been well thought-through and chewed over in Pakistan. The Pakistan human resources management became the base for Asia Regional human resources policies and procedures. These, in turn, were sent off to Headquarters. In many ways, they reutilized these as a useful tool for developing global systems and procedures. In that way, you have growth from country office to region to global” (Rademacher 2005:16).

The similar view was illustrated by the regional director (in face to face interview to Rademacher 2005). According to Rademacher (2005) the director stated that:

“You was basically drawing on all the resources, models and learning done to date within the Pakistan program. So when I was given the responsibility for managing this collection of country offices and individuals [as a regional organization], if I wanted to do certain things … the only way I could do them was by bringing my own resources from the Pakistan program, and my own people from the Pakistan program, to effect the changes. That overlap period was when I used all the capacities that had been built in IUCN-P to lay the foundation for the Asia region. And that is an important thing: if we want to see progression and links between capacity, [then it is clear that] if IUCN in Pakistan had not been as robust an organization, and a capacity-empowered organization, they would not have had the ability to [both nurture IUCN in Asia and maintain the country program itself] (cited from Rademacher 2005:16).

These account of IUCN’s success stories are linked with the power dynamics and leadership role (Shamir and Howell 1999) by enhancing the trust among national and international player of environmental governance in Pakistan. The theme of environmental governance relies on the involvement of stakeholders in the public in policy formation and implementation of those policy instruments to attain the perceived goal (Bulkeley and Mol 2003; Aksenova and Nedelkov 2002). The public participation mechanism has been the major strength of the IUCN in bringing related stakeholders together to address the global environment problem those are highlighted in the resolutions and framed by the council with the priority. The story of
the IUCN Pakistan is slightly different because the program policies formation process has been solely designed according to the local demand, especially the by the government of Pakistan as the state member of IUCN. The IUCN involves local partners and NGOs in the implementing phase. IUCN itself, however, plays the key role in program implementation, through its own mechanisms. Therefore the major conservation organizations those include several IUCN member NGOs and other conservation and development national and international organizations such as WWF which is older than, IUCN, and the Aga Khan Foundation. These organizations some time acts as a funding agency for local NGOs and IUCN, have separate projects and often conflict with IUCN for funding (base on conversation with NGOs leaders in Karachi). However, because of its history, its linkages and network of power, the IUCN Pakistan has not faced any criticism as it has been facing in India or Nepal.

The major strength of IUCN in Pakistan has been its contribution to the institutionalization of environmentalism as well as its help for enhancing the social capital through people participation. People participation is a complex process. According to Bulkeley and Mol (2003) people participation is:

- the growing complexities and interdependencies, new roles and positions of environmental states and environmental sciences, and the emergence of unstructured problems on the political agenda, participation is seen as crucial in any program of environmental governance…the participatory approach helps to bridge the gap between a scientifically-defined environmental problem and the experiences, values and practices of actors who are at the root of both cause and solution of such problems; participation helps in clarifying different, often opposite, views and interests regarding a problem, making problem definitions more adequate and broadly supported; participation has an important learning component for the participants which is reflected in the enhanced quality of, and the support for, environmental decision making; participation may improve the quality of decision making by preventing implementation problems, establishing commitment among stakeholders and increasing the democratic content (Bulkeley and Mol 2003:151).
This scenario of public participation in policy formation exactly fits with the working structure of IUCN in Pakistan except the last point “the democratic content”, because most often Pakistan has been facing the authoritative military rule and instability and violent conflicts within and beyond the broader. The IUCN has never changed its policy whoever comes into power. And it has been playing the role to reduce the conflict in the use and share of natural resources.

Summary

IUCN has been involved in preparation of mostly policy instruments, strategies, and empowerment of the conservation-related sectors in Pakistan, Bangladesh and Nepal. Its programs are based on its vision of empowering its members to conserve nature and natural resources. In relation to programs and project implementations, Pakistan has the largest IUCN activities in world, where it has completed more than 200 projects and currently operating five different offices with number of projects in each province. Similarly, in Bangladesh and in Nepal, IUCN has completed hundreds of projects over the years with some continuing today. Among the region, in Pakistan, Bangladesh and India projects are still increasing in number. However, currently, Nepal is failing to utilize IUCN expertise as it has in the past due to the political instability of the country from the Maoist insurgency, beginning in 1996. Among the four countries, only in India has IUCN’s role has been questioned. The other countries have been largely passive recipients, as indicated in the resolution process (which is very complex and bureaucratic process).

In the entire history of IUCN resolution formation, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Nepal are not visible. This is based upon my (content analysis of IUCN resolutions. India has been playing the significant role in knowledge formation [1948-2008]. In relation to conservation practice,
Nepal and India have strong ties among other countries in the region and research respondents also express the similar views. IUCN has been playing an important role in these countries. But with the current shift towards assisting the business sector in conservation-related projects, this has not been appreciated by many of its members from India and Nepal. In these two countries, the research respondents see IUCN as a temporary stakeholder of specific objective and could not be part of the conservation efforts over the long run. Whereas, the research participants from Pakistan and Bangladesh consider IUCN to be a part of their conservation system, embedded as the major conservation organization linked to government efforts. Indian scholars firmly mentioned that India supplies the intellectual capacity for IUCN’s work around the world. One respondent from India noted “There is nothing, however, that IUCN can give us that we cannot do ourselves.” [India experts in face to face interview Delhi 2009] The respondents from India also see the IUCN as political player of western hegemony over the developing world. Four IUCN Ex-Country Representative and one of the eminent scholars who was involved in the Convention of Biological Diversity process gave the example of why IUCN is not always appreciated by those in the developing world. This illustration very much fits IUCN’s global environment policy making process, where most of resolutions have been tabled by the west for their benefit. Among the four countries of this study, India holds a different view about the role of environmental conservation policy formulation and implementation process (Because of its established knowledge, sound conservation policies and institutional arrangements and Indian experts’ stake in the international conservation forums like IUCN. However, the other three do not have the knowledge base and lack the expertise required and therefore they still rely on the international agencies for development assistance and conservation planning.
And finally, as seen above, this chapter explores IUCN efforts to build programs designed to preserve and protect nature. This includes activities from policy development to program implementation. IUCN has been helping its members, by assisting and facilitating conservation programs with them. It is also helpful to the members’ states to obtain IUCN’s own global conservation mission (IUCN 2011). It has almost every conceivable component of organizational diversity. The findings show that IUCN evaluates itself and tries to match-up with the completed tasks rendering to the country specific socio-political environmental settings and creates localized projects as well as it continuously creates scientific knowledge within its organizational environment. Throughout the history, IUCN has been facilitating environmental conservation activities in the global scale and helping the national states to obtain the conservation goals.

The next chapter, Chapter Nine looks at the theoretical contribution of this research. It discusses various theories such as: green economy, governance, network, institution, stakeholder, and world polity. Further, it examines knowledge creation, and knowledge diffusion at IUCN for national and international program development.
CHAPTER IX
Discussion of Theory, Knowledge Creation and Diffusion at IUCN: National and International Programs

The chapters above provided an overall account of IUCN’s composition and organizational structure, organizational governance, importance of the resolutions and process, role of members, the world conservation congresses, the council, the commissions, and the secretariat. They further provide the overview of the stake of the members in the IUCN system, strengths and weaknesses, its role for conservation of nature. The case studies of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Nepal, unveils that IUCN acts as a neutral forum for governments, NGOs, scientists, business communities and local communities. It plays a critical role in finding pragmatic solutions to challenges in conservation and development (IUCN 2011) by creating policies with its partner members as well as with various international and national agencies. It applies its knowledge, action, influence, and empowering approach, working within country-specific legislative and bureaucratic structures. The chapters above also find that IUCN’s role is inversely related to the nations’ central governance capacities, especially as they relate to their individual histories and traditions of environmental policy development. They also unveil that IUCN has been instrumental in promoting environmental conservation globally. IUCN has been particularly effective in strengthening the capacity of the developing world to prepare conservation strategies and other policy instruments by involving the governments, its member organizations and other stakeholders in order to foster global policy formulation, and to ultimately cultivate an international environmental regime. It is engaged in co-production with nation-states and other international organizations to create national and global systems of environmental protection policies, actions, and structures. IUCN utilizes its advantages in information, action, influence, and empowerment, adding to its extensive networks for
biodiversity conservation, climate change adaptation, sustainable development, human wellbeing through use of the green economy initiative.

This chapter discusses the theoretical connections, knowledge creation and diffusion at IUCN for national and international program development. It aims to answer the broad research question i.e. to find out the way IUCN reaches its goals and fulfills environmental demands, while engaging nation-states in protecting their biodiversity. The chapter also provides linkages between IUCN’s missions while running twelve major supportive programs for environmental issues. This moreover adds to our sociological understanding of this globally important yet poorly understood IO, which is the overall objective of this research.

Greening the World Economy

Since 2008, global conservation movements have taken different paths with a special focus towards the Green Economic Initiatives (GEI) by the United Nation Environment Program (UNEP). The United Nations, one of the major stakeholders in global environmental governance, has been advocating for the integration of conservation and developmental themes as well as establishing collaborative platforms where all concerned stakeholders can contribute to the health of the planet.

A UNEP report released in December 2008 called for Global Green New Deal (GEND) and a subsequent policy brief to G20 heads of state urging them to turn the crisis into an opportunity by enabling a global green economy (GE) driven by massive job creation from a more efficient use of resources, energy-efficient building and construction, widespread use of clean and modern public transport, the scaling up of renewable energy, sustainable waste management, and sustainable agriculture that reflects the latest thinking in ecosystem management and biodiversity and water conservation (UNEP-GRID 2009:4). However the
concept of the GE is still maturing within the UN as well as in academia and global forums on conservation. In a document by UNEP (2010), it notes that the GE is an important concept in linking economic growth to the achievement of environmental sustainability. It implies the realization of growth and employment opportunities from less polluting and more resource-efficiency in energy, water, waste, buildings, agriculture and forests. It also demands the management of structural changes such as potentially adverse effects on vulnerable households and traditional economic sectors. The concept of a GE and its policy implications will be applied differently across the globe, reflecting national circumstances and priorities. However, for developing countries in particular, widespread opportunities exist to strengthen economic development, including poverty reduction as well as food and water security in developing countries, through improved environmental and natural resource management (UNEP 2010:5).

The Theory of Green Economy and IUCN’s Intervention through Thematic Programs

The GE system is also a complex phenomenon which aims to achieve a low-carbon economy, life cycle analysis, and resource efficiency. The GE theory especially captures the notion of the vulnerability of human welfare, which can be understood as the result of widespread application of an unsustainable model of economic development. With the linkages of the recent year’s economic and environmental crises, the UNEP urges cooperative efforts to address bringing the economy and environment together, under the notion that the environment is where we live, and development is what we all do in attempting to improve our lot in life within that abode. The two are inseparable (UNEP 2007:1). Along the same line, IUCN also emphasizes the urgent need for cooperative work. In its program plan for 2008-2012 it notes that there is an urgent need to re-align our economies with the basic principles of sustainability and to
bring our political representatives and society at-large to understand that true prosperity is only possible if economies effectively support – and do not undermine – environmental systems.

As is increasingly apparent from the effects of climate change, the resilience of the global economy is fundamentally determined by environmental factors and the capacity of societies to understand, manage, and adapt to natural processes. Unfortunately, the full values of wild nature and the benefits of sound environmental management are still poorly recognized and largely excluded from economic thinking. An important step in the transition to a more sustainable global economy is the fuller integration of ecosystem values in economic policy, finance, and markets (IUCN 2009:1).

Using this theoretical backing, IUCN enlisted the five core programs explained in the above section in order to move toward realizing a Green Economy. IUCN has long discussed the need for a GE, especially as environmental issues have chain effects. These situations also can be seen through the lens of diverse and complex impacts of climate change, water management, biodiversity conservation, and forest and land management (UNEP 2010:2).

As an information-based policy and program producer, IUCN’s programs and policies are based on the concept of the GE, while implementation is embedded in the basic principles of information (through policy intervention), action (through development of the programs and projects as per national need), and influence.

Theory of Governance, GE, and IUCN’s Role in Implementation

The UNEP policy directive on governance notes that the term ‘governance’ has been defined in many different ways, which vary according to the scope and locus of decision-making power (ECOSOC 2006). Government stands on three legs—economics, politics, and administration—whereas governance is the sum of the many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, manage their common affairs.

Governance engenders a number of perspectives and definitions which are closely linked with the concept of a green economy and IUCN’s efforts in mainstreaming environmental
governance principles. This definitional claim of Kahn and Zald (1990) is useful to examine the relationships between IUCN and its members including INGOs, NGOs, national governments, and private enterprises. It is an established notion that the global governance includes both nation-state and the non-state actors (INGOs, NGOs, Civil Society Organizations and private sectors (McKormick, 1999; Kauffman 1997; Schreurs 1997). In the social sciences, governance is also sometimes explained in Foucaultian terms (Baldwin 2003; Agrawal 2005), where government means less of the political or administrative structures of the modern state but rather the people’s internalization of the rules that leads to types of self-governance, that is governance without active external enforcement (Foucault 1991). Foucault’s work is notable; it philosophically illustrates the extensive social and political structures, including the state, bureaucracy, and professions that are utilized in framing the GE. It also describes how knowledge and power are utilized by a hybrid international organization such as the IUCN at the state and transnational levels. In the broader sense governance is a matter of resolving conflicts, finding common purpose, and/or overcoming inefficiencies between actors in situations of interdependent choice (Barnett and Duvall 2005:6).

There are various players in global governance that include: multilateral organizations, such as the United Nations; World Bank and Regional Development Banks; international associations, such as the European Union and the Commonwealth; inter-regional groups, such as South Asian Association Regional Cooperation, the Trans-Atlantic Partnership; regional bodies like the churches; international nongovernmental organizations IUCN, Greenpeace, World Wildlife Fund, Amnesty International etc.; national governments, of which there are approximately 230 in the world; and finally subnational governments like US states, Canadian provinces, and the German Länder etc. (Cable 1999 as in World Humanity Action Trust 2000).
As private actors in the arena of the global governance, IUCN uses its identity as a global environmental organization in resolving natural resource conflicts through the multilevel stakeholders’ involvement.

It is important to understand how knowledge and power are created within the frame of governance theory. Note that the power of IUCN’s information is largely employed beyond government principles, whereas the soft regulations it uses, such as resolutions and policy directives, are passed with democratic procedures at the meetings of the World Congress. Once they are passed they play a role as non-binding treaties or policy directives in the formulation of international and national policies and plans that helps IUCN to influence member-states. Furthermore, as IUCN positions itself it also influences governments and other environmental conservation-related stakeholders to take action to achieve conservation goals. IUCN manages its influence by means of its voting (NGOs, INGOs and government) members and the voluntary (experts of respected fields) commission’s members who lobby for conservation action and create a network, which ultimately creates a layer of power beyond the national boundary. Here, a chain-effect of power dynamics is at work in favor of IUCN’s stake because it’s working modality of neutrality though it only favors science and not territorial politics.

Having this strength, IUCN plays a critical role in providing decision makers with the knowledge and tools needed to embark on the path of conservation. Through its hybrid membership mechanism IUCN has created a broad constituency and has been able to mobilize its strength for shaping a sustainable future, which is articulated around the core program area conserving biodiversity. To maintain that niche, IUCN has been working in its four thematic program areas: changing the climate forecast, naturally energizing the future, managing ecosystems for human well-being, and greening the world economy. It has twelve programs in
order to achieve these goals, which are developed in the utilization of the multiple levels of governance. Furthermore, IUCN is one of the largest global organizations that do not have core funding. However, IUCN uses this problem as an opportunity to foster collaborative networks with funding organizations as well as with organizations that have resources but no expertise in the field. Through this collaborative approach and its reputation as a knowledge-based organization, it has created a global presence in policy preparation.

Governments, international organizations, and member-states accept that IUCN follows democratic norms and values in its self-governance in conservational governance as well. With this strength, IUCN also applies a results-based approach for greening the world and follows the principles of accountability and transparency. With this enhanced trustworthiness and legitimacy it is able to more effective engage and influence the conservational community and member governments in the formulation of environmentally friendly economic decisions and policy directives. Furthermore, these efforts have been reflected in targeted interventions in a range of key economic and business forums, such as the development of new green markets or the engagement of leading companies in business and biodiversity.

_IUCN’s programs in the lens of GE and Global Environmental Governance (GEG)_

Global environmental governance (GEG) is the sum of organizations, policy instruments, financing mechanisms, rules, procedures and norms that regulate the processes of global environmental protection. In the contemporary world, there has been an increase in the awareness of environmental threats. As a result numerous efforts have emerged to address them globally. Since environmental issues entered the international agenda in the early 1970s, global environmental politics and policies have been developing rapidly (Najam et al.2006:6). In the development of environmental policies the agencies of the United Nations have played the most
important roles. Similarly, from the nongovernmental sector, IUCN is only the IO who is involved in environmental governance policy formation.

IUCN works with multiple actors but it lacks the power to create binding agreements for global environmental governance. The success and failure of governance depends on the governments’ and other stakeholders’ commitments and mutual efforts to attain these goals. In the case of environmental management it has a chain of difficulties largely associated with public well-being. IUCN can help the preparation of the strategies, but cannot, however, help in implementation until or unless governments have the capacity and readiness to implement. The cause of ineffective Good Environmental Governance (GEG) is due to the lack of cooperation and coordination among international organizations; the lack of implementation, compliance, enforcement, and effectiveness; inefficient use of resources; and global governance outside the environmental arena. Other causes of GEG’s ineffectiveness can be noted similar to the analysis of Najam et al. (2006:24), such as the lack of leadership; developing country concerns; institutional fiefdoms; lack of political will; and the balance of national interests versus global environmental problems. They further note that developing countries have legitimate concerns about the state of the international system. They are already distrustful of the international system in general and are especially concerned about the rapid growth of environmental instruments and its possible impacts these will have on their economic growth. Although developing countries are not necessarily beholden to the status quo, they fear that any change will necessarily make things even worse. Likewise, the UN institutions that are the major responsible body to implement the governance principles are often loath to let go of any part of their authority even where overlap and duplication are obvious.
There is also a marked decrease in the importance attached to environmental issues by the international community. In this case the non-state actors like IUCN play roles in bringing all stakeholders together, but could not enforce them for binding agreements. Having this situation, IUCN passes resolutions utilizing its soft role and prepares its programs in such a way that it creates the moral ground for collaborative efforts in addressing complicated environment issues.

IUCN accepts environmental governance as a framework and means (adopted in the program design and policy implementation) by which conservation society (the member governments, its member’s organizations or related stakeholders) determines and acts on goals and priorities related to the management of natural resources. This includes rules, both formal and informal, that govern human behavior in decision-making processes as well as the decisions themselves. Appropriate legal frameworks on the global, regional, national, and local levels are a prerequisite for good environmental governance (IUCN 2010). In fostering the environmental governance principle, IUCN Environmental Law Program (ELP) has been operating various activities that contribute to laying the foundations for good environmental governance, in reference to the guidelines for applying the Precautionary Principle to Biodiversity Conservation and Natural Resource Management, prepared in 2005. The Precautionary Principle can be applied only in the situations where there is uncertainty; when there is a threat of environmental damage; and where the threatened harm is of a serious or irreversible nature (IUCN 2007).

The role of the precautionary principle is of particular relevance and importance in the context of conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity and natural resources. Its application helps to sustain biodiversity assets and ecosystem services that underpin all societies and economies, and can thereby contribute to poverty eradication; maintenance of a natural and
social environment supportive of human dignity, bodily health, and spiritual well-being; and the rights of indigenous peoples to their spirituality, knowledge, lands, resources, and livelihoods (IUCN 2007:3-4).

IUCN’s GEG principles are mostly based on the people-first approaches which include:

1) Humility and restraint, acknowledging human fallibility in the search for certainty, the limits of science, and the tendency to over-reach in the quest for human security and well-being;

2) Assuming the burden of responsibility for our actions, and therefore the need to justify our activities in the light of ethical principles, public accountability, and available knowledge, and not leave this task to others;

3) Promoting democratic processes of practical moral deliberation and decision-making in which citizens consider a plurality of often competing “goods,” and offer reasoned arguments on behalf of preferred courses of action that are fair and equitable for present and future generations;

4) Imagining new ways of living that are more liberating for humans and nature alike, and openly assessing all alternatives;

5) Preserving, at whatever costs are necessary, sufficient genetic diversity and resilient natural systems as will assure the indefinite evolutionary flourishing of life on the planet; and

6) Making the necessary transformations in personal, economic and social life that will realize a more just and sustainable future for all (IUCN 2007:4-5).

Ever since the publication of its World Conservation Strategy in 1980, IUCN has largely worked for global environmental governance. It has also lobbied for the principle of “respect and care for the community of life” and the values of just and sustainable living through its sponsorship and endorsement of the World Charter for Nature (1983), Caring for the Earth: A Strategy for Sustainable Living (1991), the Draft International Covenant on Environment and Development-DICED (1995 and 2004), and most definitively, in its endorsement of the Earth Charter of 2004 as “an inspirational expression of civil society’s vision for building a just, sustainable and peaceful world” (Earth Charter 2004:4) as well as its recognition as “an ethical guide for IUCN
policy” (IUCN 2007:1). Among them, the DICED shows how the planet could work together in global environmental governance (which is discussed in the different section). In conclusion, IUCN is the only non-state actor in the world environmental forum that has tried to create a global conservation regime.

In the case of IUCN, governance mostly relates to its efforts in providing a platform to create a frame for environmental governance that involves the principles of multi-stakeholder governance. Multi-stakeholder governance can be seen as the processes and partnerships between the state, the business sector, social and environmental NGOs, and other civil society actors that have become common in international environmental policy. In this case, global governance can be understood as the sum of the many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, manage their common affairs. It is a continuing process through which conflicting or diverse interests may be accommodated and cooperative action may be taken. It includes formal institutions and regimes empowered to enforce compliance, as well as informal arrangements that people and institutions either have agreed to be or perceive to be in their interest (Burger and Mayer 2003:50; also in Vallejo and Hauselmann 2004:3).

The foundation of IUCN’s philosophy with regard to relationships with nation states is neutrality. It refrains both from involving itself in the internal affairs of individual nations unless asked to do so and from taking sides in disputes between nations. When it does become involved in the affairs of or among nations, it defines its role in terms of its vision and mission: a just world that values and conserves nature, and to influence, encourage and assist societies throughout the world to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature and to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable.
Thus, IUCN’s authority in global governance derives from two factors: its authority as a generator and repository of scientific knowledge, and the degree to which nations respect and heed that authority. IUCN governs successfully, then, to the degree that social cohesion exists among nations to respect and heed objective knowledge. This is a form of global governing authority that the World Humanity Trust categorized as “private governance” in 2000, referring to IUCN as a “transnational pressure group.” In a public system the authority and regulatory power comes from the state, however, in the case of environmental governance which holds that for multiple stakeholders, non-state, or private governance systems, power is not given by the state but derived from the self-regulating policy. The environmental governance system is the establishment of objectives to resolve environmental problems with the collaborative efforts. Whereas, IUCN is playing an important role through the involvement of various stakeholders. It has gained legitimacy for creating the GEG framework. Legitimacy is a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions (Cashore 2002), which ultimately helps to enhance the sovereignty (Vallejo and Hauselmann 2004).

National sovereignty is, thus, enhanced through the interactions of IUCN because national sovereignty is affirmed every time that IUCN engages with nations. An ancillary effect of these interactions is the promotion of peace, as IUCN models respectful and peaceful engagement. They also play a mediatory role in building a scientific consensus by facilitating dialogue among knowledge-generating nations to establish facts about threats to the environment and the most promising responses to those threats.

IUCN’s engagements and activities help to establish realistic expectations for the degree to which global governance can be successful. Examples are IUCN’s role in establishing global
acceptance of the need for a global conservation strategy (1980), a care for the earth (1990), and a draft covenant for global environmental governance through binding treaties (1995).

Numerous other tools developed by IUCN advance the principles of GEG as well. Each of these has improved the global environment measurably—which is a measure of the effectiveness of global governance—even in instances in which some nations refrain from full implementation of the terms of the agreements.

Clearly, all nations benefit individually and collectively from global environmental conservation successes. Individual nations may feel that they “lose” through engagement with IUCN if they perceive themselves to be ceding power in the course of negotiations. This would be especially true of powerful nations such as the United States, India, Brazil, and China, which commonly voice concerns about their policymaking being unduly influenced by the concerns of less powerful nations when IUCN is involved. The ultimate success of particular efforts of IUCN, as well as the success of the organization itself in global governance, is subject to ongoing developments and study because measurement of the effectiveness of environmental policy can only analyzed in the long-term. The measurement of effectiveness of environmental policy is only possible at the national level.

*IUCN as an Organization of Multiple Networks*

Several studies suggest that the increase of environmental concern is both a local and a global phenomenon (Dunlap; Gallup and Gallup 1983; Brechin and Kempton 1994, 1997; Inglehart 1995; Escobar 2001). Globally, environmental concerns are becoming crucial aspects of political agendas that have global connections and networking. Actually, conservation movements started through group awareness, and personal and group networking. As Prell et al. (2007) note environmental applications of social networks have just started to emerge, and so far
have focused on understanding the characteristics of social networks that increase the likelihood of collective action and successful natural resource management. Further, they state that the resource management community is beginning to realize the importance of social networks.

Given the tools and concepts afforded by social network analysis, such networks can be studied with a great deal of analytical precision (Ramirez 1999; Dougill et al., 2006; Bodin et al., 2006; Crona and Bodin 2006; Newman and Dale 2004; Schneider et al. 2003 as in Prell et al. 2007:17).

The following, Table 21, summarizes these social network concepts in relation to resource management:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Network concept</th>
<th>Effect on resource management</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong ties</td>
<td>Good for communicating about and working with complex information and tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hold and maintain trust between actors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actors more likely to influence one another’s thoughts, views, and behaviors. Can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>encourage creation and maintenance of norms of trust and reciprocity Encourage the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>likelihood of actors sharing strong ties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hold redundant information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actors less likely to be exposed to new ideas and thus may be less innovative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can constrain actors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak ties</td>
<td>Tend to bridge across diverse actors and groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Connect otherwise disconnected segments of the network together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good for communicating about and working with simple tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New information tend to flow through these ties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not ideal for complex tasks/information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actors sharing weak ties are less likely to trust one another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can break more easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homophily</td>
<td>Shared attributes among social actors reduces conflict, and provide the basis for the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>transference of tacit, complex information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can also result in redundant information, i.e. actors have similar backgrounds and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>therefore similar sources of knowledge</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
As table 21 shows, there is trade-offs between the different network properties. It gives the notion that in any given network, it is possible for those working and engaging with stakeholder networks to make better informed decisions about how to engage them in meaningful deliberation. The global environment conservation movements are the best examples of networking. These movements can be related with both political and social networks. IUCN is one of the best examples of illustrating network theory in all of its levels of operations.

IUCN is basically a “union of unions” which operates through a chain of networks. One of IUCN’s strengths is that it includes states are part of the networks that give IUCN a neutral and convening power when gathering governments and civil society actors (IUCN 2010). IUCN makes its connections among states members, NGOs /INGOs members, commission’s members, and members of the secretariat respectively. IUCN provides an optimum environment for networking to achieve its goals of influencing, encouraging and assisting societies throughout the world. One of IUCN’s main goals is to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature and to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable (based on the
interviews responses). IUCN basically uses networks to create a social capital for its members, both organizations and individuals, and for communities that play major roles in the conservation of nature.

Fostering collaboration for protected area management is the major identity of IUCN. It helps to create conservation tools, the statuses, and categories of protected areas system. Through use of networks, IUCN brings conservation experts together to be able to address essential environmental issues with other stakeholders. IUCN fosters networks with application of various approaches and uses them to obtain its goal of global conservation.

IUCN uses its identity as “union of unions” and “network of networks”:

- By facilitating the exchange of (professional) information, ideas, skills, knowledge, experiences, expertise and materials;
- Through establishing links between scholars of different levels, disciplines, organizations and backgrounds;
- Through the utilization of communication tools by creating various list serves of conservation categories on the basis of focal groups fields of interests;
- By creating the platform for the scientific discussions through the organization of global and regional seminars, conferences and congresses;
- By providing the venue for the critical mass needed for advocacy, action and policy change;
- By providing members with a source of peer support, status, encouragement, motivation and professional recognition;
- By strengthening capacity of its member organizations through workshop and exchange programs;
- By providing interpersonal or intercultural relations and communication skills;
- By offering opportunities to access e.g. funds, training, and scholarships to its members and concern stakeholders;
- By recommending or referring individuals or organizations for the collaborative work in addressing the conservation issues;
- By offering eco-friendly marketing opportunities to a wider audience;
- By creating the conservation awareness of similar and shared concerns and common objectives;
- By helping the member states to find the resources to tackle the conservation programs and making the best use of (limited) resources and pooling them centrally;
- By creating the joint cataloguing / union catalogue;
- By creating the environment for the development of new leaderships and improving competence and capabilities;
• By creating the pool of knowledge which can be share within members as well as with the larger audiences who also can learn from each other;
• By supporting cooperative group work and team building;
• By avoiding the duplication of work and effort; and
• By creating various working groups of research, conservation, and action programs related to all ecosystems, flora and fauna. (IUCN 2008: 4; IUCN 2009:2 and in IUCN 2010:2).

Within IUCN system, particularly through its six commissions, it has been maintaining about 500 working groups, which gives a better chance for IUCN to solve common problems more quickly and effectively (Krolak 2005; Jain 2009; largely based on the interviews with IUCN HQ interviews June 2009).

IUCN make use of its extensively elaborate networks of members and scientist advisors. It has various levels of network processes. For example the HQ serves as the center of many networks. The chain of network begins from the local level ascending to national, regional and finally global levels. For example, in the process of program planning, HQ (through its country office) first consults at the local level stakeholders who are direct recipients of direct experiencers and who are able to identify the issues and analyze the available options to overcome those problems. IUCN would consult with its scholars for verification of the issues and options followed by the national level consultations within the particular state. Those issues and options would be later compiled on a regional level. Those pressing issues will make up a list that is sent to HQ with the most promising issues and the options to resolve them. In HQ the council goes over the issues and sets the priority and dissimilates back to the same channels to provide the further clarification or propose the new agendas.

Once this consultation process is complete, the problems and their proposed solutions will become guidelines for resolution of any similar issues facing IUCN’s other member countries. Those guidelines would include agendas for the resolutions, procedural norms, conservation management, and policy development. These processes apply to all programs’
development process, including international organizations (IOs) which have mediating roles. In
cases of urgent issues, the council can make immediate decisions and can authorize the
secretariat to prepare the policy to address them. However, it is a mandatory task of the
secretariat to inform others on the urgency of the program policies and collect the opinions of the
members if any of them has different views. The networking processes construct and connect the
concerns of IUCN stakeholders (as an international organization) that shapes a particular niche to
IUCN and holds legitimate power in creating conservation policies and implementation plan to
all levels of environmental governance.

IUCN applies this power of networking through its basic principles of knowledge, actions,
influence and empowerment. As part of its knowledge, IUCN develops and supports cutting-
edge conservation science, particularly on biodiversity and ecosystems and their direct effect on
human wellbeing. IUCN’s action plans are characterized by running thousands of field projects
around the world to better manage natural environments. IUCN’s influences decision makers by
supporting governments, NGO’s, international conventions, UN organizations, companies and
communities to develop laws, policies and best-practices. Finally, IUCN’s empowerment role is
achieved by mobilizing its member organizations (state agencies, NGOs), providing resources
and training, and monitoring results. In achieving its mission to influence, encourage and assist
societies throughout the world, IUCN attempts to achieve its goal of conserving the integrity and
diversity of nature and ensuring that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically
sustainable. Furthermore, IUCN adopts network approaches by utilizing policy frameworks
based on the directives authorized through the resolutions and the guiding principles of program
implementation. Instead a network approach builds on the valuable experiences gained from
commissions and members that are clearly reflected in IUCN’s Global Thematic Programs. The thematic programs are prepared on the basis of its value proposition. By value proposition:

IUCN focuses on the delivery of the ‘One Program’ concept, Program results and IUCN’s value proposition, the value proposition is based on the assumption that nature conservation is important both in its own right and because it underpins human well-being. The wellbeing has to attend through the engagement with its Members and with constituencies beyond the nature conservation community, including those engaged in development, politics and the private sector. In doing so IUCN utilizes its assets that is its Members, its networks of experts organized through its Commissions, and its staff within its worldwide Secretariat. On the basis of this strength IUCN has four values to share with the global conservation community (IUCN2010:2).

Table 22: IUCN’s value proposition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Providing credible and trusted knowledge</th>
<th>Convening and building partnerships for action</th>
<th>IUCN has local-to-global and global-to-local reach</th>
<th>IUCN influences standards and practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is known for providing a sound scientific base for conservation and sustainable resource management. It derives its value as a trusted source of knowledge from its expert commission networks, its members, and its worldwide Secretariat. It intends to improve its ability to produce and support the use of cutting-edge knowledge and to respond to emerging conservation and sustainable development issues.</td>
<td>Its unique structure and credibility provides the venue to convene a range of stakeholders to address important conservation issues. It brings divergent views together, builds consensus and promotes joint actions and solutions. It holds the reputation as an ‘honest broker’ allows us to involve the private sector and encourage the application of their knowledge and expertise for sustainable development.</td>
<td>As a global network organization, its role is to connect governments, civil society, NGOs, science and the business communities to improve conservation policy and action. It connects the actions of its various networks in the field with global policy work. It connects conservation issues and achievements to wider objectives such as security and poverty at the national and international level.</td>
<td>It is the only environmental organization with a seat at the UN general assembly. This provides IUCN members the ability to participate in global debate on environment and development. Its UN observer status is a powerful conduit for the concerns of its members at the international level.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IUCN 2010:2
In maintaining such networks IUCN uses its staff, member organizations, commissions’ members and other stakeholders in related fields and other international organization with conservation objectives (i.e. WWF, TNC, CI, ICIMOD; it also collaborates with UN agencies). At HQs the networks are supported through staff, including a network coordinator designated to manage the interaction between network members. The network coordinators work within global thematic groups that work under the supervision of global thematic directors. The duty of a network coordinator is to facilitate interactions with network members, the various thematic groups, commissions and commissions’ members within their field of expertise. In general, networks include several nodes from HQ to regional HQ, country offices and the core groups and thematic groups. Networks coordinate for planning, learning, communicating, monitoring, and fundraising to achieve general and specific goals related to specific niches of network members. Further through networks, it facilitates with the various stakeholders group to maximize their involvement in achieving the conservation goals from local to global levels.

As illustrated in the discussion and examples above, if networks are used wisely, as IUCN has been doing for the most part by linking local with global efforts and back down again, networks can help to achieve important outcomes in any area of global concern.

**IUCN and Stakeholder Theory**

Stakeholder theory is relatively new to social science scholarship. The theory was pioneered by R. Edward Freeman in 1984. He states that a stakeholder of an organization is by definition any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organizations objectives (Freeman 1984:48). Freeman used stakeholder theory to examine business relationships and argued that in the analysis of the linkage among partners it is necessary to include all those who may affect or be affected by a corporation (Clarkson 1995:1;
Freeman 1984; Freeman and Reed 1983). Similarly, Brenner and Cochran (1991:452) claim that stakeholder theory helps to understand "how organizations operate and help to predict organizational behavior". More recently, stakeholder theory has been utilized as a tool of investigation of the working relationships that holds the share in the subject of mutual interests. Stakeholder theory has been used to examine the system of the relationships and to understand the degree of relationships and their benefit (Mitchell et al. 1997). This helps to explore the relationships between organizations and stakeholders based on exchange transactions, power dependencies, legitimacy or other claims (Cummings and Doh 2000; Donaldson and Preston 1995, Mitchell et al. 1997).

Mitchell et al. (1997) have developed a typology for classifying stakeholders that is based on three relationships such as the power, legitimacy, and urgency:

“Power: the ability to make someone do something that would not otherwise have been done, the power of the stakeholder over the organization may be coercive (strength or threat), normative (legislative, the media) or utilitarian (holding resources or information),

Legitimacy: the generalized perception that the actions of an entity are desirable or appropriate in accordance with the socially constructed context and may be individual, organizational or social,

Urgency: the immediate need for action, determining the organizational response time when receiving requests from stakeholders, should consider time sensitivity (the need for speed in the organizational response) and the criticality (the importance of the request or the company relationship with the stakeholder in question), with this factor rendering the model dynamic” (Mitchell et al. 1997:878 as in Mainardes et al. 2010:14).

When stakeholders possess all three of the stakeholder characteristics, managers should respond to their claims (Mitchell et al. 1997). Regarding the usefulness of stakeholder theory, Doh and Guay (2004:4) note that, it is useful as both an instrumental and normative frame for assessing the role of the international nongovernmental organizations (INGOs) and NGOs in the policy framing, planning, and project implementation process in adopting stakeholder’s inputs in creating acceptable environmental standards. It also serves as a useful tool for understanding the
general rationale for INGO/NGOs involvement in preparing codes of conduct in project implementation. As an INGO, IUCN extensively illustrates stakeholder theory when it strives to achieve its conservation goals.

As I have noted numerous times, IUCN itself is a knowledge producing organization. It has a history of proposing concepts and then validating them through policy directives via multiple-level stakeholders’ involvement. Since 1995 IUCN has been trying to implement an international covenant on environment and development, with the most recent version published in 2010 [Draft International Covenant on Environment and Development, Fourth Edition: Updated Text-Environmental Policy and Law Paper No. 31 Rev. 3: jointly published by: IUCN, Gland, Switzerland; IUCN Environmental Law Program, Bonn, Germany; International Council of Environmental Law (ICEL), Bonn, Germany]. IUCN has produced policy directives based upon five core thematic areas and twelve major programs areas to achieve its objectives. Each of these directives contains components of stakeholder analyses, assessments and procedures for their involvement.

IUCN illustrates “stakeholder theory” as a management tool or as an instrument in stakeholder analysis. IUCN demonstrates this theory to examine individuals or groups affected by a certain reform or a change in process, or have the ability to impact, either positively and negatively on process change (IUCN 2009; Chapin et al. 2009; Dore et al. 2010)).

IUCN values the power and influence of stakeholders and provides the required support and makes necessary interventions to minimize the risk of conflicts within them. Largely, it uses four frameworks for structuring, analyzing and understanding the interests of diverse stakeholders, called the four Rs: Rewards, rights, risks, and responsibilities, which has been
considered useful tools in complex stakeholder management situation. Dore and Smith ((2010) define four RS as:

“Rewards: good negotiators always keep one thing at the front of their minds: rewards. These rewards range from the creation and sharing of benefits to the sharing and reduction of costs.

Risks: changes in the natural resource use, management and development invariably bring risk. But over time the nature and perception of that risk has evolved. In the past, most attention was given to financial risk posed to public or private investors. Decisions are often include a much stronger emphasis on the risks all actors assume, either voluntarily or involuntarily.

Rights: The legal standing and negotiate create the position of having a human right to natural resources or a resource service are important aspects for the consideration while doing stakeholder analysis.

Responsibilities: In addition to rewards, risks and rights, negotiations over water must also consider responsibilities. All stakeholders; whether citizens, transnational corporations or governments at different levels have various responsibilities” (Dore and Smith 2010:19-21).

Among the four RS, IUCN gives priority to the rights issue in its stakeholder analysis; whereas the Rights can be understood as norms and entitlements that create constraints and obligations in interactions between people or institutions. In the legal terms there are two types of rights that IUCN considers most in the search of public stakes in the natural resource management issue. The first type is procedural rights such as participation in decision making, acquiring information and accessing justice. The second type is substantive rights, such as to life, personal security, health, an adequate standard of living, education, freedom to practice culture and freedom from all forms of discrimination (Campese et al. 2009:2). Other cross cutting rights principles according to the United Nations (2003) include: universality and inalienability; indivisibility; interdependence and interrelatedness; equality and non-discrimination; participation and inclusion; accountability and rule of law and environmental rights (Greiber 2009).
IUCN applies the right based approaches (RBAs) in the issues where public wellbeing is connected in its programs. RBAs can be understood as integrating rights norms, standards, and principles into policy, planning, implementation, and outcomes assessment to help ensure that conservation practice respects rights in all cases, and supports their further realization where possible. IUCN establishes the relationships between rights and conservation and proposed that conservation can help realize rights through, among many other things, securing sustainable natural resources and ecosystem services to support human health and adequate standards of living. Likewise, conservation outcomes can be enhanced where people’s rights and access are secure, including collective rights to lands and resources (Borrini-Feyerabend et al. 2004; Oviedo and Griethuysen 2006; Castillo and Brouwer 2007). Certain conservation approaches and measures, however, can undermine or violate human rights, including those causing economic or physical displacement (Cernea 2006) from lands or resources important to livelihoods and culture (Holden 2007; Magole 2007; Dowie 2009); and cases of oppressive conservation enforcement measures, including around protected areas which raise concerns about personal security rights in conservation practice (Jana 2007; Paudel et al. 2007; as in Campese et al. 2009:7).

While applying a stakeholder analysis, IUCN also uses the principles of respecting rights:

- means refraining from interfering with people’s pursuit or enjoyment of their rights, for example through uncompensated or forced eviction;
- protecting rights which means ensuring that ‘third parties’ (including private businesses and NGOs) do not interfere with people’s pursuit or enjoyment of their rights; and
- fulfilling rights meaning creating an enabling environment for people to realize their rights respectively (Campese et al. 2009:3).

Furthermore, IUCN engages stakeholders on the basis of its commitments for the public participation in conservation of nature (IUCN 2010). This follows the basic five principles and framework of participation which include inform, consult, involve, collaborate and empower
respectively (Dore and Smith 2010; IUCN 2010). While using this participatory framework in the stakeholder analysis, IUCN tries to protect and enhance human, women, indigenous, and cultural rights (Greiber 2009).

The frameworks of public participation are also the frame for the stakeholders’ analysis in IUCN system. This stakeholder engagement process provides stakeholders with an opportunity to state their opinions, creates an opportunity for debate, empowers stakeholders’ decision-making, and ensures that stakeholders have a sense of ownership in the decisions taken. Being engaged means getting an opportunity to get informed, to learn and to deliberate. In this approach, stakeholders communicate not only with decision makers but also among each other (NATREG 2010; Mainardes et al. 2010:6). IUCN utilizes stakeholder’s analysis in all spectrums of its program areas with the additional principles of efficiency, inclusiveness, transparency, and effectiveness respectively, which helps develop a sense of ownership. It also provides support for the conservation and management of the natural resources, helps to link the conservation and development planning and provides the mechanism for communication among internal and external stakeholders.

IUCN identifies stakeholders through the use of various approaches such as collecting expert opinions through its multilayers networks, conducting the field research by using both qualitative and quantitative methods (using interviews and focus groups discussion, surveys, observations etc.), inviting the concerned stakeholders through the media, organizing workshops, seminars or area specific meetings and other events, and using secondary informants’ recommendations. In this process of stakeholder consultation, IUCN tries to understand the impact of change in policy, public reaction to the change, the power dynamics and influence and possibilities of desired supports from the stakeholders.
Through engagement with stakeholders, IUCN creates legitimacy in preparing policy directives and the programs to achieve its conservation goals. IUCN creates knowledge through combing empirical evidences and outcomes from its field-based programs. Through stakeholders’ consultations, IUCN explores the root causes of problems and uses that knowledge in its planning process. This exercise of IUCN solicits the views of citizens on proposed options, allows the development of alternative solutions, and provides an opportunity for the public to discuss and understand complex issues. Stakeholder consultation process enables for better quality decisions, creates common basis for harmonized actions. It also increases the legitimacy of the planning and decision-making process as it enables a dialogue and deliberation about the issues. It also helps to prepare models for conservation and the development processes, and ultimately helps to overcome any possible conflicts. This process creates a reliable identity to IUCN as an organization of public concern, which lays the ground for the public support to its programs of social empowerment. The process also helps the participating stakeholders by creating an ecofriendly environment, which is the ultimate goal of the process. The process is complex, time consuming and costly. However, IUCN utilizes its chain of networks and the scattered field staff to animate the process (IUCN 2010; NATREG 2010; DFID 2003).

IUCN follows a step by step process in stakeholder analyses with the understanding that this is a continuous process and needs to be reviewed in each stage in the project management cycle to ensure the participation of all those who are interested in the purpose of reaching stakeholder dialogue and concerted action (IUCN 2010:5) and with the consideration of the rights and the roles of the involved institutions.

Such institutions include:
the end-user residents in local communities affected by certain issues at the local level, governmental institutions at the governorate level (includes all government line agencies of related field),

- private sector institutions and other ongoing developmental projects around concerned field-governorate level, and

- Decision-makers in water, agriculture and environment related governmental bodies, parliaments, donors, NGOs (IUCN members) and media at the national level and international organizations of respected fields at the international level, as they appear in the course of the consultation processes.

Consultations follow a certain procedure which first clarifies the objectives of the analysis with the definitions concerning the problems, proposes the issues in a systems context through the questioning of stakeholders directly about their uses, interests and management of the resource. As a result information can be complemented by indirect investigation, through the observation of stakeholders’ actions and behavior, or evidence of this behavior. These consultations then identifies decision-makers and stakeholders through the process of acquiring information from key informants, information from focus groups, i.e. identified as a stakeholder group that is clearly of importance to the issue to be researched. Efforts then focus on working with those groups to identify others and through collection of secondary data, i.e. such information can be used at a rather generalized level to identify groups, e.g. in terms of age, gender, activities, geographic region etc. (Grimble 1998; IUCN 2010). Once these frames are established, IUCN identifies the stakeholder interests, agendas and finally, it identifies the patterns of inter-action and dependence (e.g. conflicts and compatibilities, trade-offs and synergies) and makes the policies and programs to overcome the identified problems (Holden 2007; Magole 2007; Dowie 2009; IUCN 2010).

While preparing policies and programs, IUCN analyses the environmental complexity such as the degree of ecological and production system of a particular niche, the degree of cultural and socioeconomic diversity among the technology users included in the system and the
stability of the system. In other words, IUCN holds the creditability of making application policy directives and the programs which can be implemented with minimal conflicts. IUCN develops an understanding among all concerned stakeholders (governments and NGOs) of the system and involves them in the decision making process which creates the legitimacy and power to use its tactics of action, influence and empowerment. IUCN goes one step further and uses situation analysis and a multi-stakeholder analysis framework to provide transparency and empowerment for the stakeholders, which helps to improve information sharing and capacity building.

The situation analysis approach provides a space for IUCN to build trust among the stakeholders as well as global audiences and helps to find common concepts to address problems. There are hundreds of exemplary cases of IUCN’s involvement in the process of stakeholder’s analysis, involvement, and empowerment (NATREG 2010; Markopoulos 2009; IUCN 2009, 2010). Furthermore, IUCN tries to involve multiple stakeholders with the purpose to avoid or postpone difficult decisions; facilitate making difficult decisions and make the strong claim to create policy directives, action programs and implement them. In terms of the use of this approach (as IUCN officials noted during the interviews and the document states), about 7 percent of the analysis were used to avoid or postpone difficult decisions. About 85 percent were used to make difficult decisions with only 8 percent of the IUCN consultation process were irrelevant to decision-making processes. This shows that the stakeholders’ consultation process does not always bring the desired outcomes.

IUCN assumes that the used tool is useful to achieve the forest governance goals and to obtain the information necessary to make the policy directives and programs. However, IUCN believes multi-stakeholder participation and action is a key approach in creating the multi-stakeholder engagement in national or regional forest governance reform initiatives. Here
engagement means a continuing process of building trust and partnership, reaching out beyond well-organized or traditional stakeholders (e.g. Forest Departments) to non-traditional groups such as the judiciary, customs and small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) and to weaker or unorganized groups such as pit sawyers, informal enterprises, and community forest managers respectively. IUCN attempts to deliver on its roles through the support of its membership in various ways, such as by playing role of a trusted convener and facilitator of multi-stakeholder processes, by supporting and adding value to member organizations in delivery of an agreed program of work and by using its commissions to provide specialist advice and guidance, or to implement specific actions (NATREG 2010; Markopoulos 2009; IUCN 2009, 2010). With the utilization of the multi-stakeholder participation approach, IUCN helps the governments and other involved parties to plan protected areas and integrate them into all sectors and through provision of strategic advice addressed to policy makers. The multi-stakeholder participation approach helps in strengthening capacity and effectiveness of protected area managers by providing guidance, tools, information and a vehicle for networking. All of this aids in creating the suitable environment to increase the investment in protected areas by persuading public and corporate donors of their value (this situation is application in all programs venues of IUCN) (IUCN-WCPA 2008).

IUCN not only involves the analysis of stakeholders to strengthen its ground of legitimacy, but also equally participates as one of the conservation participants from local to international forums. In both cases either as a participant or a facilitator, it contributes knowledge through monitoring the state of the world’s environment (including local to national), monitoring the species through IUCN Red List of Threatened Species, contributing to and supporting the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, and convening multi stakeholder events such as the World
Parks Congress or other forums. It also contributes to policymaking the world over by giving policy advice and technical support to governments, UN organizations, international conventions and other groupings such as the G8 and G77. It also helps in, assessing new sites nominated for natural World Heritage Site listing, by contributing technical assistance to prepare national biodiversity strategies and action plans and providing technical support for drafting environmental laws and natural resource management strategies. Finally it contributes to the changing world by taking active steps through the five core thematic programs (Biodiversity, Climate change, Sustainable energy and Green economy and Human well-being). These programs are shaped through twelve actions programs (business, economics, ecosystem management, law, forests, gender, global policy, marine and polar, protected areas, science and learning, social policy, species, water and world heritage) with its many partners and stakeholder across the globe. For example, IUCN has been working with the Water and Nature Initiative, a joint program with 80 partners in a five-year global action plan in 10 water basins. Similarly the organization has been engaged with the Forest for Life Strategy Program to promote wise management through guidelines for fire prevention and community management of forest resources, working with the corporate sector on energy and biodiversity, and mining and protected areas and facilitating Parks for Peace between countries in areas of conflict (McGinley 2009). These are just a few among a long list of collaborations.

As I have noted earlier, IUCN is a membership-based network organization, and it is quite unique in that both non-government organizations and governments are voting members. Its stakeholders are the states, their agencies, INGOs, NGOs, private or public enterprises, and the large number of experts and scientists that are involved with six commissions. The analysis of its position is also very complex because all stakeholders (in terms of memberships) do not
hold the same power votes. For example, governments have two votes and government agencies also carry greater weight in IUCN’s affairs. International Governmental and nongovernmental organizations also have two votes, whereas national NGOs have only one vote and commission’s members do not have voting rights at all. Therefore, in the any consultation processes including the stakeholder’s analysis, it automatically favors national governments. IUCN has a unique niche and experience for convening and facilitating multi-stakeholder processes particularly in the natural resource management sector. And finally, IUCN stakeholders possess different niches, articulating the effectiveness and the usefulness of stakeholder theory. Furthermore, these scenarios show that IUCN both uses and illustrates stakeholder theory. Given IUCN’s structure and mission it is designed to be collaborative with its many stakeholder groups. This makes directing IUCN difficult but also gives its actions critical legitimacy on the world stage as well as when it works with individual nation-states.

**IUCN as an Institution builder**

“Institutions are the rules of the game in a society or, more formally, are the humanly devised constraints that shape human interaction. Three important features of institutions are apparent in this definition: (1) that they are “humanly devised,” which contrasts with other potential fundamental causes, like geographic factors, which are outside human control; (2) that they are “the rules of the game” setting “constraints” on human behavior; (3) that their major effect will be through incentives” (North, 1981, 1990:3 as in Acemoglu and Robinson 2008:2).

Institutional theory examines the deep and flexible aspects of social structure. This theory analysis how institution processes effects on social behavior including in social structures, schemas, rules, norms, and routines, and how authoritative guidelines develop in society. It goes into investigation structure norms etc. and explores how they are created, diffused, adopted, and
adapted over the space and time; and how they fall into decline and disuse (Scott 1987, DiMaggio and Powell 1983, Oliver 1991). This covers two different types of institutional theories built from both political science and sociology. The reason of using the combined theory is based on the nature of IUCN which covers as organization of organizations, as social actor. Similarly, it can also be seen as a political actor that helps to create the “rules of the game” internationally on biological diversity conservation policy and related efforts. It also cover a large spectrum in the social context which include social networks, gender roles, legal system, politico-administrative system, and the state more generally—all of which interact with each other. Institutions can be either state or non-state. State institutions cover many aspects, such as the public provision of basic education and health services, public order and safety, and infrastructure (ADB 2002:2). In relating to the environmental management, institutions can be understood as the body of the environmental rules and regulator creator and maintainer. An institution constitutes important components of governance systems at levels of social organization ranging from the local to the global; whereas organizations are material entities typically possessing personnel, offices, budgets, a legal personality, and so forth. Organizations play important roles in the administration and management of regimes dealing with a wide range of topics (e.g., the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, the International Maritime Organization, and IUCN etc.) (Young, Schroeder and King 2002: xxi). In such case, international organizations such as IUCN, multilateral agencies, such as the Asia Development Bank, the World Bank, bilateral agencies like USAID, DFID, have been playing instrumental roles in the institutionalization of environment conservation laws, policies, norms and professional practices through explicit arrangements, such as treaties and conventions, that regulate behavior (Choo
2005:41) as well as by creating the policy governments as well as with other international organizations (IOs) (Gemmill and Bamidele-Izu 2002).

IUCN also organizes training for its members and involves in the reform of public and environmental institutions including the environment related administrative reforms (ministry of forest, wildlife, environment or any agency the respected government appoints as the focal member of the IUCN). When requested by governments, IUCN would also be involved in the reform of bureaucracies and civil services that improve the internal rules and restraint mechanisms that promote public-sector efficiency. It also helps its member governments to empower their local communities through their local or subnational governments and provides them with opportunities to be heard and to participate in public decision-making institutions and processes (IUCN 2010; ADB 2002; Gemmill and Bamidele-Izu 2002).

IUCN also supports its members to participate in the international forums particularly in the process of environmental policy negotiations (such as Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species; Ramsar, CBD, World Bank GEF etc.). As I have already mentioned, IUCN also helps its members states to implement conservation programs (IUCN has many of such programs jointly operated with its members). In addition it influence the international forums by holding site events to share and expose its conservation mission, IUCN has been operating such events all most all international environmental forums held so far throughout the history-(Rio Earth Summit in 1992, Johannesburg Summit on Sustainable Development in 2002; Durban 2011; Copenhagen 2011) and so on (Charnovitz 1996, 1997; modified from Gemmill and Bamidele-Izu 2002:8 based on the interviews and observations).

IUCN tries to avoid the uncertainty by applying innovative policy directives, actions, influence and empowerment tactics, and by spreading of innovation tools. IUCN gains its
strength and legitimacy as a knowledge producing institution and also improves its performance as an organization of the organizations by following the isomorphism process (DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Chavleishvili 2011). Isomorphism attempts to reflect a process that explains the organizational homogenization processes and how organizations adopt or change its structures and practices to match norms, expectations, and practices within its existing environment.

In summary, IUCN as an organization and institution builder has been creating conservation knowledge typically through the establishment of ‘set of rules generated through its cumbersome resolution processes and practices. IUCN helps to guide the world conservation community through the formalization of the international agreements that stipulates the ways in which nation-states should cooperate and compete with each other. As an international organization, IUCN has been able to inspire and bring people in concert to achieve their combined conservation goals.

Conservation Commons

IUCN has been creating a unified platform to tackle the issues of international, transnational, national and local commons issues over the decades. For example The World Conservation Congress at its 3rd Session in Bangkok, Thailand, November 17–25, 2004, approved the principles of knowledge sharing of the Conservation Commons through its resolution 3.085, which mandated the establishment of the Conservation Commons forum. Theoretically, the principles of the Conservation Commons utilizes the ‘governing the commons’ concept of institutional theory elaborated by Ostrom (1990), where she states that any group that attempts to manage a common resource (e.g., aquifers, judicial systems, pastures) for optimal sustainable production must solve a set of problems in order to create institutions for collective action. There is some evidence that follows a small set of design principles create institutions can
overcome these collective action problems. Ostrom’s thesis on ‘governing the commons’ is challenging Garrett Hardin’s Tragedy of the Commons Theory (1968) and the role of property rights. Ostrom attempts to understand how groups can create rules to manage commons lands. Organizations can be part of the creation and enforcement of rules. In her recent work titled “Understanding Institutional Diversity” Ostrom and Hess (2006) elaborate how institutions are formed, how they operate and change, and how they influence behavior in society has become a major subject of inquiry in politics, sociology, and economics (Understanding Institutional Diversity 2006). Similarly, Stiglitz (2006) argues that global institutions (such as the UN, the IMF and the World Bank etc.) help to increase the global common good (with includes natural resources) and help developing countries more fairly through globalization. In this case organizations that take on certain values and perspective that are so well established that they have major impact on society. IUCN has been utilizing this notion through its existing networks of members and by creating the new network with the involvement of the verities of stakeholders including governments, NGOs, INGOs, private sectors, academia and UN agencies related to millennium development goals at global and regional and local levels. Through this network IUCN formulates the collaborative efforts for conservation of common with the application of different type of environment governing mechanism.

As mandated by the resolution 3.085, the Conservation Commons, support for this initiative is presently drawn from verities of stakeholders and interested parties who share similar goals of ensuring the sustainable use of biodiversity while conserving the integrity of biodiversity for future generations. It is important to note that IUCN has been taking the lead in creating the partnership. At the present time, there are 28 national and local NGOs, 29 INGOs, 6 government agencies, 11 academic and research institutions, 5 intergovernmental agencies and 8
private industrial agencies as members of the Conservation Commons network (Barrow et al 2007). In managing this network, IUCN has been utilizing the new institutional approaches, particularly in creating the conservation regime not only with the application of procedural legal frame but also considering the role of the cultural and social customary institutions over natural resource management, conflict management, justice and in other areas of global concern.

In summary, this chapter elaborated how IUCN and its programs illustrate several theories. To obtain these broader and complicated questions, the chapter reveals the theoretical scenario of the thematic programs setting in IUCN system, which is in-large based on the emerging theory of green economy. As an International organization, IUCN makes explicit arrangements, negotiates among international actors to prescribe, proscribe, and/or authorize behavior related to conservation regime creation for its members as well as other stakeholders of public concern (Koremenos et al. 2001; Mathison and Bhandari 2010). As a utilizer of science, action and empowerment tactics it influences the global conservation community by providing the exemplary cases by creating policies, programs through implementation.

This chapter investigated the major component and theory behind of the Green Economy (GE) and explored the interconnection with IUCN’s programs in achieving the Millennium Development Goals and Human Wellbeing. Global governance is a concept that has been used in almost any example where actors from the international level engage nation-states in nation-building efforts or related shared governance issues (Kahn and Zald 1990). The term has been used to illustrate so many different types of engagements that it has loss any precise meeting; it has become an uncritical term (Hewson and Sinclair 1999, Douglas 1999, Murphy 2000). The IUCN has been utilizing this frame in a way that it has created IUCN value as a major non-state actor in global governance. As an INGO and a network of networks, IUCN utilizes the multiple
networks; stakeholder theory for the international conservation policy formation; to strengthen
the social wellbeing in the implementation of policy directives IUCN also holds the identity as
the institution of institutions and helps the national states to create new institutions by following
the tools of new institutional theory to create the “Principles of the Conservation Commons” as a
new institution of network. In addition IUCN as an organization of knowledge producer and
manager, it has been able to make strategic influence, to envisage its vision “a just world that
values and conserves nature” (Conservation Commons 2012:1). However, there are some
shortfalls, such as IUCN has not been able to fully incorporate members’ concerns both in the
policy formation phase all the way to the program implementation stage (Abensperg-Traun, et al
2011). Members value IUCN’s value proposition, however they also take IUCN as a competitor
for project funding. IUCN needs to create a more trustworthy environment to manage its identity
as membership-based hybrid conservation organization.

The following concluding chapter summarizes the key findings of this research and its
contribution to the literature and theory. It ends with a brief recommendation for IUCN’s future
direction.
CHAPTER X

CONCLUSION

In this chapter I review the major findings from my dissertation research. I will first very briefly summarize IUCN and what I have learned about its role as a major international organization dedicated to protecting the world’s biodiversity. I will then re-examine the two major research objectives presented in chapter 1 drawing upon the literature and data presented throughout this dissertation. In particular I will focus on how different bureaucratic strengths and weaknesses affect what IUCN can or cannot do in each of the study countries. I will then move on to what I see as the most important theoretical contributions coming from my research. I conclude with several policy recommendations about the future of IUCN as a major international organization.

The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) is an international organization and the largest and arguably the most important network in the world dedicated to protecting the biodiversity richness of the planet. It is a union of unions or a network of networks with scientists from all over the world playing critical roles in making IUCN a major knowledge-producing organization in the conservation of nature. With its headquarters in Gland Switzerland, IUCN has offices in more than 45 countries and runs hundreds of projects around the world. As you know, I focused mostly on its operations at headquarters and in the four south Asian countries of Bangladesh, India, Nepal, and Pakistan (see chapters 4, 5, 7 and 8).

IUCN’s vision is achieving a ‘world that values and conserves nature’ and its mission is to influence, encourage and assist societies throughout the world to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically
sustainable. IUCN helps its members and the world community to find pragmatic solutions to the world’s most pressing environment and development challenges. IUCN supports scientific research. It manages field projects all over the world. It brings governments, non-governmental organizations, United Nations agencies, companies and local communities together to develop and implement policy, laws, and best practices. It is a uniquely hybrid international organization, meaning it has both governments and non-government organizations as voting members. As noted in chapter 4, funding for its programs comes through two major sources: (1) framework agreements (unrestricted funding from donor agencies) and (2) voluntary contributions of members as well as nonmember organizations and individuals. Major donors are governments, multilateral agencies and conventions, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), foundations, private sector and individuals. IUCN has maintained a unique organizational identity and strength by fulfilling its value proposition to: (a) provide a credible, trusted knowledge to its members, (b) convene and building partnerships for action, (c) reach global-to-local and local-to-global, (d) and influence IUCN’s professional standards and practices (IUCN 2009:6). IUCN is an organization that creates global conservation strategies, country-specific strategies, and even conservation strategies for specific ecological niches. In its conservation program building, IUCN has a clear but complex system. In its program building phase, it engages with three or four characteristics at once. One is that it looks at its own policies. These policies are generated by members through the resolution process at its global meetings, World Congresses. The policy themes are normally proposed by member states, member NGOs and INGOs. The policies can only be approved if the government delegations vote for them. If nation-states do not support the resolution, it cannot become policy. In policy the preparation phase, IUCN (including its member states and member NGOs) uses literature such as the UNEP Geo-reports, the
Millennium Assessments, publications by the World Resource Institute, and so on – all recent documents about what is going on regarding the environment in the world environmentally. It does the same with each of the world’s geographic regions. It analyzes information gathered to assess the global situation and to identify current issues of concerns that require to be addressed. IUCN then drafts a hypothetical program and it takes it to each of its regions. Members from each of the nations by regions engage in discussion of the concepts behind such a program. The nation-state and its members can choose any topic that is within that Program, and they can propose other aspects that might be relevant, but they’re not supposed to go outside the Program without good reason, so they have to demonstrate to Headquarters that the program will work. For example, in the case of four countries of this research, each country constructed programs around its own national interest (see chapter 4).

IUCN rarely engages in polemics within the conservation community (which comprises both state and non-state actors) because of its stand as a neutral forum for governments, NGOs, scientists, business and local communities to find pragmatic solutions to conservation and development challenges. IUCN strives to achieve its global mission, which is to influence, encourage and empower societies throughout the world, to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature, and to ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable.

With science-based knowledge, IUCN supports governments, NGOs, international conventions, UN organizations, companies and communities to develop laws, policy and best-practice, through empowerment. From this path, IUCN helps in the implementation of laws, policy and best practices by mobilizing organizations, providing them with resources, training, and monitoring their results (IUCN 2008; 2010).
In the country specific cases considered here, IUCN’s entry into Asia was based on its vision to empower the world for conservation of nature and natural resources. IUCN began its conservation efforts in Asia first in Nepal, starting in the 1960s, and then extended to the other countries who invited it for assistance.

Among the other Asian countries, particularly, for Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan, IUCN has been involved in almost all environmentally-related issues. In addition to the involvement in conservation regime creation, it has also empowered these countries through its major program themes, such as environmental governance; landscape restoration, rehabilitation and management; environment, peace and security; development, economic growth and environment; and climate change, energy and ecosystems. Within these themes, it has been operating its largest programs in Pakistan, with five offices, one in each province, and has completed hundreds of projects. A similar situation exists in Bangladesh. However, the Nepal program has been shrinking in recent years due to the Maoist takeover of the country and the political instability that has caused.

In the case of India, IUCN’s presence is relatively new, especially in regards to on-the-ground project implementation. IUCN India has six projects with two of them focused on regional issues (water and coastal area management) and the rest on biodiversity and livelihood. The entry of the IUCN into India is different than the other three countries. Basically, IUCN has been invited to India to work on several efforts, including trans-boundary conservation issues, livelihoods and landscapes strategy (LLS), mangroves for the future (MFF) initiative, the water and nature initiative (WANI), and to create cooperation with other countries on issues where national, regional, and global conservation concerns converge (IUCN 2008:1). (see chapter 8).
IUCN’s roles in the conservation of nature are critically important, particularly for Pakistan, Bangladesh and Nepal in protected area management (in conservation regime creation), and principally by helping in the formation of conservation strategies, policies, and by empowering the countries in creating conservation regimes. In the case of India, IUCN’s direct program began only in 2007. However, its presence can be seen much earlier on policy recommendations related to water resource management. Among four the countries, Nepal, Pakistan and Bangladesh have been largely the recipients of IUCN’s value proposition. However, India’s stake has been more mutual, with IUCN providing its expertise to India and Indian scientists helping IUCN to extend its mission at the global level. Indian government officials as well as the NGO community and scientists do not look to IUCN as a policy driver or for program delivery. Rather, they see IUCN as an international conservation actor for program deliberation. In other words, Indian expert view IUCN, simply a project implementing organization. The research participants from India repeatedly stated that India has never invited IUCN to assist the country in framing its conservation policy directives. In the other three countries of this study, IUCN has been a major partner in the preparation of almost all conservation related policies and programs and has been helping to implement them.

As in its original position of knowledge development among the four countries, India has been always among the best in preparing its own policy directives. It takes part in international conservation forums and presents its agendas through resolutions. My research results show that India’s presence in the world conservation stage is not due simply to its geographic size and the rapidly growing population, but also because of its long tradition in knowledge-building in emerging conservation issues. This finding is supported by India’s involvement in IUCN’s resolution motion process (see chapter 8). The lack of policy contributions through IUCN
resolution by Bangladesh, Nepal, and Pakistan, these countries instead draw significant global attention and have been more likely to acquire funding for conservation and development programs. It demonstrates that either, Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Nepali scientists have been reluctant to propose the resolutions to the IUCN World Congress or they lack the expertise in doing so.

From my interviews, the respondents, in this case from Pakistan and Bangladesh, were fully satisfied with IUCN’s efforts and greatly appreciated the country as well as the regional leadership. Nepal’s respondents appreciated the IUCN’s role in creating conservation regime, but were not satisfied with the regional leadership because (according to them), in recent years the IUCN has not initiated any new projects and also has not taken any action to renew any of the ongoing projects. The India case is different. Here some of the leaders of large NGOs had doubts about how significant the impact of IUCN could be in that country. They raised some very important issues which also arose at the IUCN World Conservation Congress meetings. The major issue was about IUCN’s position as a major conservation organization shifting its management style to more of a business model. The business model is depicted under the business and biodiversity program (BBP) of IUCN (see chapter 4). BBP is a collaborative program with the large industries and business organizations. IUCN has been working with business organizations. However, it has not accepted business organizations as members. The large numbers of conservation organization (including from India) do not favor including business organization as member of IUCN. Indian experts also view IUCN as a western hegemonic organization and they do not accept IUCN intervention in any policy or program planning for India (interview July 2009).
Among the four countries of this study, India holds a different position on the role of the international organization. Because of its established knowledge, sound conservation policies, and institutional arrangements, Indian experts have considerable influence at international conservation forums like those run by IUCN. However, the other three countries lack this expertise and still rely on the international agencies in the development and conservation planning. As a result, these countries are more open to any international organizations who are working in there (see chapter 8).

In the process of my research I uncovered several organizational weaknesses of the IUCN. The most important of these was its cumbersome governance process given its democratic nature and rapid growth, especially over the years 1996 to 2011, which has outstripped its financial resources. The financial difficulties have moved officials to work collaboratively with corporations and other market-based organizations. Business organizations provide two types of funding to IUCN (1) project base and (2) policy base. Project base funding are for the environmental friendly management of industrial site (like Drarma Dam Project) and policy base funding is supporting to the policy level staff at the IUCN offices. The business sector sends their staff to the IUCN office as out posted staff. They help IUCN in the day to day operations. In this way IUCN gets free labor from the industrial sector. This has caused considerable controversy among IUCN’s members, particularly among its vast networks of volunteer scientists (see chapter 5 and 6). The members argue that IUCN is providing a green image to some of the world’s most polluting business organization.

The various internal and external evaluations reports noted that the key challenges facing IUCN today derived from its complex governance structure, the growth and the decentralization of the Secretariat, problems with financial resources and growing external competitions from
more agile, but less democratic global conservation NGOs, such as World Wildlife Fund, Conservation International, Friends of the Earth and national NGOs like Development Alternative of India, Bangladesh Rehabilitation Assistance Committee (BRAC), Bangladesh etc. along with a diminished focus on biodiversity conservation.

The critical part is a tension around IUCN’s democratic/ participatory foundation – a foundation that gives the organization tremendous international legitimacy also makes it cumbersome to manage through HQ, especially as IUCN tries to compete with its far less democratic competitors such as CI, TNC, etc. Legitimacy, however, is central to how IUCN functions. To change its democratic processes would fundamentally change the organization, depriving the world of a critical organization on conservation issues.

Its members have very deep expectations that IUCN should maintain its identity as an organization dedicated to the conservation of nature. The notion of partnership with business sector is a challenging issue within the IUCN system. The research respondents from my visits to Amman, Barcelona, Gland, Bangkok, Karachi, Dhaka and Kathmandu and other parts of world (who responded by emails), also repeatedly mentioned these same major challenges before IUCN. Additional strengths and weaknesses are summarized below.

The study identifies the following major strengths and weaknesses

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<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
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<td>Unique membership structure</td>
<td>Lack of clarity and consensus in mission</td>
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<td>Networks of experts in the Commissions</td>
<td>Poor communication and collaboration across Union</td>
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<td>Technical expertise in IUCN</td>
<td>Ineffective governance and decision making</td>
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<td>Reputation and credibility of IUCN</td>
<td>Rapid growth has overwhelmed management capacity</td>
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<td>International scope</td>
<td>Secretariat is too big and competitive with members</td>
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<td>Ability to influence governments</td>
<td>Inadequate support to and engagement with members</td>
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<td>Knowledge products</td>
<td>Membership criteria and selection</td>
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<td>Uneven activity across regions</td>
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To address IUCN’s weakness, most if not all external reviews and recommendations from the world conservation congresses, its networks of scholars, as well as its members and independent researchers have made four recommendations. They include: (1) strengthen the union as a global bridge-building network; (2) communicate conservation knowledge more effectively; (3) increase the secretariat’s effectiveness, and (4) secure additional and diversified funding. These recommendations are also reflected in “A 2020 vision for IUCN” which is a strategic plan of sorts for IUCN’s next nine years. Most if not all of my research respondents also endorsed these recommendations and repeatedly pointed out that if these strategies materialized then IUCN will be able to attain its broader goals to influence, encourage and assist societies to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature, and ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable (IUCN 2008).

Review of Research Objectives

In chapter 1, I presented the major objectives for my research. The first set of objectives focused on exploring IUCN’s role in international and domestic policy formation and on-the-ground action programs. The second objective was to examine how IUCN as an IO and as a networked-based organization maintains itself as an organization. The key research findings are discussed around several key theories, such as network theory, institutional theory, stakeholder theory, governance theory, and the very recent application of theorizing around a green economy (see chapter 9). This research has added to the academic literature firstly by contributing to a small but growing body of work on the sociology of international organizations. IOs, especially IGOs, have long been the subject mostly of political science. It attempts to apply a fuller sociological imagination to the study of IOs by examining one of the largest and most active
nature conservation organizations in the world. To date there has been no scholarly examination of IUCN or its work as an organization. Second, the research has explored how IUCN actually has gone about building biodiversity conservation programs with individual member nations (see chapter 8). IUCN’s environment has changed, especially with the rise of other conservation actors such as World Wildlife Fund, Conservation International, and The Nature Conservancy, among other major global conservation organizations. There is considerable criticism of these organizations for their lack of democratic values and working too closely with large commercial organizations (See MacDonald 2008, and Chapin 2005). IUCN’s advantage over these organizations is its more democratic processes. It has greater legitimacy because of its chain of conservation networks.

This study also shows how IUCN, as an international organization (IO), goes about building nature protection programs in states with different capacities. A summary of the major research findings include:

IUCN engages the states in a nation-building activity, specifically around nature protection by-

- bringing people and organizations together to resolve critical issues, by deploying scientific knowledge to support conservation and sustainable use;
- forging links between the policy and practice of conservation which strengthens the capacities of countries and NGOs to manage resources in a sustainable manner and developing the capacity of local NGOs is also an important contribution to the development of civil society;
- building environmental awareness, through its high quality publications and capacity building activities with members and partners; and
- advocating the importance of the environment at local, national, regional and global levels, and in many fora and sectors of society where this issue is new on the agenda, and
as a science based organization, which analyses and disseminates information on conservation and development.

IUCN does not work against any government or agency but rather attempts to play a collaborative role to develop mutual understanding to address global environmental issues like biodiversity, deforestation, and climate change. The uniqueness of IUCN is that it is the only international organization that has governments and NGOs, as voting members. It is the only environmental organization that has been granted ‘observer’ status at the United Nations. IUCN is the only scientific body to have six full-fledged commissions and it is governed by a Council whose members are drawn from all over the world and who serve on a voluntary basis. Only its Secretariat, which serves as a full-time administrative office, has paid professionals. IUCN has been helping governments formulate policies and has implemented programs accordingly. It has also contributed to debate on vital issues related to the state of the global environment (IUCN 2010).

Critical to this dissertation was looking at country differences in terms of state bureaucracies and the nature of IUCN engagement. IUCN has engaged each of the four nations very differently due to their respective bureaucratic capacity and ecological conditions. Firstly, the country differences were measured by examining its performance on measures of governance [voice and accountability; political stability and absence of violence; government effectiveness; regulatory quality; rule of law and control of corruption]. Secondly, the differences were measured by examining the countries’ competitiveness [on the basis of three frames and twelve pillars: Basic requirements; Efficiency enhancers; and Innovation and sophistication factors]. Thirdly, the differences were evaluated by examining the countries’ institutional competitiveness (which has 21 indicators). And fourthly, the countries’ differences were measured by looking the
environmental performance (environmental burden of disease; environmental health; water resources for human health; air quality for human health; air quality for ecosystems; water resources for ecosystems; biodiversity and habitat; forestry; fisheries; agriculture; and climate change etc.). Additionally, the countries’ differences were also examined by evaluating each country’s efforts for advancement in environmental conservation, biodiversity, quality of protected areas, public participation in conservation, and natural resources conflict management (see chapter 7). The specific findings of this research reflect on the efforts of the respective countries and also provide an opportunity to evaluate success or failure of the IUCN’s presence in each country.

On the governance performance measurements, India is positioned best among the four, followed by Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan. Similarly in political stability and absence of violence, Pakistan is the worst in the world, followed by Nepal, which ranked 8, and Bangladesh 10, among the worst in the world. India is in a better but not great position, ranking only 17th. In the case of government effectiveness, India is the best among the four, followed by Pakistan, Nepal and Bangladesh. Similarly, in the regulatory quality and control of corruption category, none of the countries ranked well. Among the four countries, India ranked best, followed by Nepal, Pakistan, and Bangladesh (it ranks only 11, listed as among the worst in the world context). The analyses of the governance performance show that among the four, India’s situation is either stable or improving incrementally and shows that India has a stable government and strong bureaucracy (see Chapter 7).

Similarly, the competitiveness index also reveals similar results. For example, on the Global Competitiveness Index, India stands at 51st rank in world context; Bangladesh is at 107th, Pakistan 123rd, and Nepal at 130th. Likewise, in the basic requirements category of
competiveness, Pakistan belongs to the lowest rank at 132 among 139 nations, and last among the Asian countries, followed by Nepal with a rank of 125 and Bangladesh 114 respectively. Similar results for competitiveness are found on efficiency enhancers and innovation and sophistication. Again only India ranks in a good position; however the other three are not in a position to compete with developed and emerging development economy countries (see chapter 7). These results clearly indicate that among the four, India is the best performing country and Nepal’s position in terms of competitiveness level is the lowest. Likewise, the institutional competitiveness, as measured by examining 21 different variables (see chapter 7), shows as well similar results. In all variables, India is the best performer and holds the strongest bureaucratic system.

In summary, the study demonstrates clear differences and shows that India has a strong bureaucracy, in terms of both governance performance and competitiveness. However, Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan have weak governance and also lack competitiveness. These weak nations provide contexts which allow for a strong influence of international organizations in terms of overall socio-economic development and environmental conservation movement.

The IUCN has a long presence in the region; however in terms of programs Nepal was the first country, to invite the IUCN to help with its environment conservation policy formation during the 1960s, followed by Pakistan in 1982, Bangladesh in 1989 and India in 2007 respectively. However, in the formation of global policy, India has been active with IUCN since its inception in 1948. India has been serving in the highest posts and also helping the IUCN to frame it as one of the largest network and knowledge generating organizations through its involvement in the six commissions.
It is obvious that India does not need IUCN for its environmental management, because it has strong knowledge capabilities in environmental management. As seen in chapter seven, there has been no deforestation in the last decade in India because of its strong policy and policy implementation structure. However in the other three countries forests are still diminishing (see chapter 7). The IUCN’s engagement with Nepal, Pakistan and Bangladesh helped these countries to develop conservation policies and to implement on-the-ground conservation projects. IUCN’s entry into India, however, was to manage thematic programs which cover several countries (see chapter 8).

As discussed at the beginning of this chapter, the entry of the IUCN in India is different than other three countries. It has different strategies.

The IUCN India strategy states that:

In consultation with its members and partners, IUCN prepared a country strategy, which seeks to build synergies among the IUCN community in India, Asia, and across the world. Its implementation will strengthen India’s conservation efforts, not only at home, but also abroad. The strategy sets out six conservation priorities, each of which requires specific improvements in knowledge, in capacity, and in governance at the local, sub-national, and national level (IUCN 2006:9).

These are general vague but essential principles in addressing the degrading natural resource and resolve the trans boundary environmental challenges. Achieving these goals depends on various factors, because India is not a passive recipient of policy and programs like Nepal, Bangladesh and Pakistan. IUCN in India has already begun to face criticism due to its Business and Biodiversity Program (BBP) with the Associated Cement Companies Limited (ACC), which is branch of Holcim and The Dhamra Port Company Limited (DPCL) (see chapter 8). Here tension exists not only between developers and environmental groups, but also among local and international environmental organizations and individual experts around differing approaches, processes, and uses of information. The IUCN India program is still in the beginning
stages, therefore, it is too early to say whether or not it has made a significant impact on the conservation of nature and natural resources in India, as it has in the other Asian countries and elsewhere.

Many of the research participants shared their bitter experiences of international organizations not favoring the developing nations. How larger audiences would respond to this thesis remains unknown and could be an agenda item for further research. It is also important to conduct further research on whether other international organizations are acting appropriately in addressing the socio-economic and environmental problems of developing nations.

A Discussion of Theory

In presenting the findings from this research on IUCN, I drew upon several theories, including governance, stakeholder, institutional, networks and green economy.

Governance theory: “Governance is ultimately concerned with creating the conditions for ordered rule and collective action. The outputs of governance are not therefore different from those of government. It is rather a matter of difference in process” (Stoker 1998:19).

Through governance theory, I have discussed the power structure of IUCN, following on state and non-state members. States’ voting power is twice that of non-state agencies. More specifically, with the utilization of governance theory, I examined IUCN’s bureaucracy and its influence on environmental governance in global or country-specific environmental policy formation, as well as the complexity of governance within IUCN (see chapter 2 and 9).

Stakeholder theory: Stakeholder theory refers to a broader set of social responsibilities faced by any organization. Stakeholders are those individuals or groups who may affect or are affected by the organization or community (Freeman 1984 and 1994; Clarkson1995). In the case of IUCN the stakeholders are states, government agencies, INGOs, NGOs, private or public enterprises, and the experts and scientists involved with the six commissions.
Institutional theory: Institutional theory examines the deep and flexible aspects of social structure. This theory analyses how institutional processes affect social behavior including that in social structures, schemas, rules, norms, and routines, and how authoritative guidelines develop in society and are diffused within society (see chapter 2 and 9). This notion applies to the IUCN largely because it serves as institution of institutions, follows the rule of game and creates the conservation rules and regulations. It has also created a number of networks, which include its members such as member-states, member NGOs /INGOs and UN agencies, as well as other conservation organizations to pursue better conservation of our global commons (see chapter 9).

Network Theory: Networks are often viewed as the locus of innovation of knowledge and technology (Powell et al. 1996; Stuart et al. 1999; Ahuja 2000; Owen-Smith et al. 2002). They can create trust and increase tolerance in situations of unwanted consequences (Piore and Sabel 1984; Uzzi 1997), and often inspire conformity in thought and action (Galaskiewicz and Burt 1991; Mizruchi 1992). I have attempted to employ some of these claims of network theory to see how the IUCN makes use of its own very elaborate networks of members, scientists, and advisors, and to uncover how important headquarters is in the network processes. The networks in the IUCN system are used to make strategic arrangements which affect management and policy development, both within its jurisdictions and with other organizational activities and nature-building programs in member countries (see chapter 2 and 9).

Green Economy theory: Green economy theory tries to capture the notion of the vulnerability of human welfare caused by the degradation of the global environment, which can be understood as a result of the widespread application of an unsustainable economic growth (Bhandari 2011). The green economy is one of thematic areas of IUCN. So far, IUCN is the only international
organization which has been implementing the principles of green economy on-the-ground at the project level (chapter 4, 8 and 9).

Overall the findings seem to both support and amend the findings from research by Michael Goldman and Steven R. Brechin. Michael Goldman’s well received work on the World Bank, *Imperial Nature* (2005), placed in sharp focus the power and global influence of this important international governmental organization. Drawing upon the theoretical frameworks of Michel Foucault’s power/knowledge and Antonio Gramsci’s notion of cultural hegemony, Goldman shows in great detail that the Bank’s global influence comes from both its ability to define the narrative through the construction of its policy statements, in this case around a framework of neoliberalism/ free markets, to construct the Bank’s notion of sustainability. The Bank then possesses the financial resources from its lending program to implement that narrative. To aid in promoting its vision, the World Bank trains officials from its member and recipient governments to accept these definitions of sustainability and then use the same narratives when requesting these loans.

While IUCN too is an international organization and engaged in policy development, IUCN proceeds in a much more democratic and participatory manner. This is the case both in creating policies as well as in their implementation. The World Bank derives its power through its lending programs for development. It attempts to create legitimacy through exercising that power as described by Goldman. IUCN’s power comes more from its legitimacy based upon its bottom-up participatory approaches to policymaking as well as through its much more democratic governance structures linked to its many hundreds of voluntary scientists.
These findings complement some of Steven R. Brechin’s work (1989; 1997) that found different international organizations (World Bank, FAO, CARE, Inc.) had very different strengths and weaknesses which lead to very different types of outcomes related to their tree planting efforts in the developing world. Brechin concluded that more comprehensive development outcomes would require international organizations to collaborate more closely to maximize their strengths and overcome their organizational constraints.

As noted already, IUCN power comes not from controlling large sums of resources that are used in economic development projects/loans but rather through its legitimacy as a much more collaborative/participatory organization utilizing its strengths by engaging multiple stakeholders in its more participatory decision-making processes. IUCN power comes from [value proposition—see chapter 9]. Similar to Brechin’s conclusion, IUCN is a very collaborative organization. Through engaging its many stakeholders, IUCN attempts to leverage the strengths and weaknesses of its many partners when implementing its on-the-ground programs in order to develop consensus in the creation of global policies. The World Bank is very powerful because it is a major donor agency for the developing world. It prescribes country policies before lending money to the specific country. IUCN also offers conservation policy for the developing world but it cannot require to any government to use or implement its policies. IUCN can only make recommendations to governments while the World Bank can twist arms by refusing to provide loans to some countries unless they follow the Bank’s directives. This brief discussion confirms the varied nature of international organizations requiring the need for even more sociological analyses of them.

I conclude this chapter and the dissertation by presenting several policy recommendations regarding IUCN.
RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the research responses, reviews of the external reviews of various years, and on the basis of research participants’ opinions, I suggest that the following recommendations could improve IUCN’s presence as an international conservation organization.

These recommendations include:

- Strengthen the Union as a global bridge-building network:
  - by revitalizing its membership relations and enable its commissions to meet new challenges; by developing and applying a new constituency policy and strategy that will guide the union’s organizational evolution until 2020; by ensuring access to the latest scientific developments (through members, commissions and partners) in order to be able to deliver credible science-based conservation; and by ensuring the culture change as needed so that each component of the union (members, commissions and secretariat) is contributing to the delivery of an integrated program of work (the ‘one program’ concept).

- Communicate conservation knowledge more effectively. IUCN needs to use the full potential of the latest technologies to generate and disseminate its knowledge; which can be attained by evolving its information technologies and information management systems to allow it to connect more effectively with its own community and with the outside world; and by influencing to the broader political and economic environment, building on the knowledge and experience of every part of the IUCN community.

- Increase the Secretariat’s effectiveness. With the acceptance of its size and complexity IUCN requires a core team of dedicated people working solely in the interests of the Union for which it needs to make a significant changes to its management systems to enable the organization to meet the expectations of its Members, commissions and partners to remain
relevance in a rapidly changing world; need to strengthen its presence in various parts of the world to ensure connectivity with problems on the ground; for which the secretariat should have the appropriate technical, collaborative and multi-cultural talents to adequately serve IUCN’s mission.

- Secure and diversify funding to continue the ongoing conservation efforts at local to global level by strengthening the fundraising ability to provide the Union with the additional funding it needs on a sustainable basis; the need to move from fundraising for local field project implementation to resource mobilization for policy and program development, networking and Membership support; and need to build up a sufficient reserves to provide security against risks and to undertake activities in new frontier areas (based on the research responses, reviews of the external reviews of various years, own participant in the strategy preparation process IUCN 2008: I-iv).

Once again, IUCN’s main assets are its members, its networks of experts organized through its commissions, and its worldwide secretariat. The way in which an organization uses its assets to deliver added value through its products and services is called a ‘value proposition’; which is gained by providing a credible, trusted knowledge; by convening and building partnerships for action; by utilizing a global-to-local and local-to-global reach and through influencing the standards and practices. These propositions make the Union distinct from others in the conservation and sustainable development arena and enable it to demonstrate leadership and ensure it has influence at many levels (IUCN 2009:6). It just to needs to be more focused in managing its network of the networks. Yes, it has several challenges but those challenges are not out of reach and unmanageable.
The overall situation poses two major contrasting issues in theorizing the intuitional process. First, what theory shows could not reflex even with the organization that makes the theory; second, what organization show in the face not necessarily represent in the program avenues. Members are the strength, identity and the public face of IUCN; however, either secretariat not well equipped to disseminate the information to the members or members are not in position to understand the communication. This situation needs further research to unveil why IUCN and its members have gaps in their knowledge. In addition, In terms of the role of international organizations, it is hard to evaluate because of the lack of transparency within the governance system and also within the mechanism of the international organizations. Most of the research participants shared their bitter experiences of many international organizations not favoring the developing nations. Some of the research participants also saw IUCN as a political player of western hegemony in the developing world; what larger audiences say in this thesis is still unknown and could be the agenda for further research. It is also important to conduct further research to evaluate other international organizations’ actions to address the socio-economic and environmental problems of developing nations.
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Annex 1. THE KEY TERMS DEFINITIONS REPEATEDLY USED IN THE DISSERTATION

- **Biological diversity**: It comprises genetic diversity, the variation between individuals and populations within a species, and species and ecosystems diversity, to which some also add functional diversity (WRI 1994:147 in Escobar 1998:54). Biological diversity is the key to the maintenance of the world as we know it (Wilson 1993:19 in Escobar 1998:54).

- **Civil Society**: It refers to the arena of un-coerced collective action around shared interests, purposes and values. In theory, its institutional forms are distinct from those of the state, family and market, though in practice, the boundaries between state, civil society, family and market are often complex, blurred and negotiated. Civil society commonly embraces a diversity of spaces, actors and institutional forms, varying in their degree of formality, autonomy and power. Civil societies are often populated by organizations such as registered charities, development non-governmental organizations, community groups, women’s organizations, faith-based organizations, professional associations, trades unions, self-help groups, social movements, business associations, coalitions and advocacy groups (LSE 2004).

- **Climate Change**: Climate change is a long-term shift in the statistics (patterns) of the weather (including its averages). For example, it could show up as a change in climate normal (expected average values for temperature and precipitation) for a given place and time of year, from one decade to the next (NOAA 2010).

- **Competitiveness**: It is defined as the set of institutions, policies, and factors that determine the level of productivity of a country (World Economic Forum 2010:4).

- **Conflict in natural resources**: For violence to occur there should be someone able to extract economic profit from the situation. Access to specific natural resources is a factor that can motivate actors to use violence as means of control (diamonds, oil, timber wars) When looking at the process behind violence it is essential to identify players with an incentive for violence. They need to access resources that facilitate mobilization and expansion of violence. However, society is not powerless when confronted with conflict. Institutions, particularly political institutions and civil society can work to defuse situations, or they can fuel discontent through poor governance, corruption and inefficiency (as in UNEP/GRID 2005).

- **Conservation Commons (CC)**: the principles of the CC utilizes the ‘governing the commons’ concept of institutional theory elaborated by Ostrom (1990), where she states that any group that attempts to manage a common resource (e.g., aquifers, judicial systems, pastures) for optimal sustainable production must solve a set of problems in order to create institutions for collective action; there is some evidence that following a small set of design principles in creating these institutions can overcome these problems.

- **Forest area** (percentage of land area) the total land area covered by forest. Forest land spans more than a half a hectare with trees higher than five meters and a canopy cover of more than 10%, or trees able to reach these thresholds in situ (ESCAP 2010:189).

- **Globalization**: at its simplest, refers to a shift or transformation in the scale of human organization that links distant communities and expands the reach of power relations across the world’s regions (Held 2004:1).

- **Governance**: It is a simple concept at heart: good governance is good government. The concept relates to the quality of the relationship between government and the citizens whom it exists to serve and protect (ADB 1998:16).

- **Green Economy (GE)**: GE can be defined as an economy that results in improved human well-being and reduced inequalities over the long term, while not exposing future generations to significant environmental risks and ecological scarcities (UNEP 2010).

- **Institution**: A cluster of rights, rules, and decision-making procedures that gives rise to a social practice, assigns roles to participants in the practice, and guides interactions among occupants of these roles (UNDP 1997)
• **New institutionalism**: a school of thought that explores the role of social institutions as sources of governance personality (IDGEC Glossary-Young, Schroeder and King 2002: xxii)

• **Institution building**: the creation, development and linking of certain functions to accomplish specific tasks within institutions (UNDP 1997:55-59)

• **Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI)**: The 2010 United Nations Development Program Human Development Report introduces the MPI. This new international measure of poverty complements income-based poverty measures by reflecting the multiple deprivations that people face at the same time across 104 developing countries. The MPI identifies deprivations across health, education and living standards, and shows the number of people who are multidimensional poor and the deprivations that they face on the household level (OPHI 2010).

• **National Parks and Protected Areas**: "Natural area of land or sea, designated to (i) protect the ecological integrity of one or more ecosystems for present and future generations, (ii) exclude exploitation or occupation inimical to the purposes of designation of the area and (iii) provide a foundation for spiritual, scientific, educational, recreational and visitor opportunities, all of which must be environmentally and culturally compatible (IUCN, 1978, 1988, 1997, 2002).

• **Nongovernmental Organization (NGO)**: private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services, or undertake community development (world Bank 2010)

• **Organization**: a group of people joined together to achieve a specific purpose. Typically, an organization has personnel, offices, equipment, a budget, and, often, legal personality (IDGEC Glossary-Young, Schroeder and King 2002: xxii)

• **Performance Measurement**: it is an ongoing process of ascertaining how well, or how poorly, a government program is being provided (World Bank 2010:1)

• **State**: The set of political institutions whose specific concern is with the social and political organization and management, in the name of the common interest, within a determined territory

• **Sustainable Development**: “Development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It contains within it two key concepts: the concept of "needs" (Brundtland Commission, 1987). Sustainable development entails passing on to future generations an equal or preferably enhanced stock of economic, natural, social and human capital (World Bank 2007 as in Bell, et al. 2009).

• **The Human Development Index (HDI)** is a composite statistic used to rank countries by level of "human development" and separate developed (high development), developing (middle development), and underdeveloped (low development) countries. The statistic is composed from data on life expectancy, education and per-capita GDP (as an indicator of standard of living) collected at the national level. The HDI has been used since 1990 by the United Nations Development Program for its annual Human Development Reports (Allvoices 2010).

• **Wetlands**: They are the “areas of marsh, fen, peatland or water, whether natural or artificial, permanent or temporary, with water that is static or flowing, fresh, brackish, or salty, including areas of marine waters, the depth of which at low tide does not exceed 6 meters”, and which may include “riparian and coastal zones adjacent to the wetlands, or islands or bodies of marine water deeper than six meters at low tide lying within” (Ramsar 1996).
Annex 2. The Questionnaire Frame for Interviews:

This research’s major question is: How does an international organization, specifically the International Union of Conservation of Nature (IUCN), go about building nature protection programs in states with different capacities? This study will explore the efforts of this significant international organization as it engages its biodiversity conservation activities in India, Pakistan, Nepal and Bangladesh.

As the nature of this research firstly, we will seek responses from the IUCN council, which comprise the President; the Treasurer; the Chairs of IUCN’s six Commissions; three Regional Councilors from each of IUCN's eight Statutory Regions (Africa, Meso and South America, North America and the Caribbean, South and East Asia, West Asia, Oceania, East Europe, North and Central Asia and West Europe); a representative of IUCN's Host Country - the Swiss Confederation; and five additional Councilors chosen by Council on the basis of diverse qualifications, interests and skills (IUCN 2008). We will try to conduct face to face interviews if they agree (if possible); otherwise we will try to get their response through email or by phone. The council is the governing body of the IUCN, which adopts the policy recommended by the World Congress which held’s in every four years (the last Congress was in October 2008, in Barcelona, one of us has been participating world Congress since 1996). Likewise, other research participants will be Director General, Deputy Director General and twelve units heads IUCN secretariat (bureaucratic body) in Gland Switzerland, who actually execute the organization. We will also try to get views of junior staff of the HQ, who actually maintain the relationships with member organizations as well as with the individual commission’s members. In addition to the people currently working with IUCN we will also conduct the interviews with the people who left IUCN and working somewhere else. Likewise we will also try to conduct interviews with the past Councilors, as many as we can get in touch.

Secondly, we will conduct the interviews with the country directors (of four countries), units’ heads of each country offices and with the staff who are involve to run the country projects. Thirdly, we will conduct the interviews who are based in the field or project sites. There are two types of people IUCN field staff and the local people who are benefiting from the project. IUCN works closely with the governments, therefore, government officials particularly from the ministry of environment will be other participants of this research. Mostly interviews will be open ended; however, we have prepared the following questions to frame ourselves.

Finally, we will also conduct interviews with the IUCN member organizations and with the commission’s members in four countries mostly through emails. We have formulated eight major participants and framed the following tentative questionnaires:

1. **Questionnaires for the personnel who govern the IUCN (member of the council which President; the Treasurer; the Chairs of IUCN's six Commissions; three Regional Councilors from each of IUCN's eight Statutory Regions like Regional and chairs of six commissions):**
   How would you describe IUCN’s role in global conservation?
   What is it good at?
   What does it need to do better?
How does IUCN differ from other conservation organizations, like CI, TNC, WWF, FFI, etc.?
What are the advantages and disadvantages of those differences?
Does IUCN address different issues? If so, what are they? Or does IUCN simply approach the same issues differently? If so how?
How does IUCN engage or coordinate with governments in issues of conservation?

2. Questionnaires for the personnel who deal with the global scenario (Director General, Deputy Director General and twelve units’ heads IUCN secretariat (bureaucratic body).
   a. How IUCN does organize its global programs to achieve its goals?
   b. What are the major problems and issues in formulating global programs/Regional/country programs?
   c. How would you characterize’s IUCN’s role in global conservation?
   d. Would you characterize IUCN’s role as “bridge builder” among the governments, International organizations and other Non-Governmental organizations? If so, why? If not, why not?
   e. How does IUCN identify the critical global problems?

3. Questions for the executive office bearer in regional and country level (such as Regional director and Country directors or other officials).
   a. How is your regional/country office structured?
   b. Who are the major stakeholders in regional/country level conservation development?
   c. How do you engage conservation program development in your country or region?
   d. How does the process work?
   e. How would you characterize the role of regional and country IUCN offices?
   f. How are your efforts similar to or different from HQ in Gland?
   g. What are the special challenges your office face compared to HQ in Gland?

4. Questions to the IUCN member organization (Head of the NGOs or their representatives from the following national NGO members of):
   **Bangladesh**: Centre for Advanced Studies, Bangladesh Environmental Lawyers Association


a. Why your organization was interested to become IUCN member? When your organization became member?

b. How you make use of your IUCN’s membership?

c. Do you feel that as member organization you are contributing to achieve the IUCN goals?

d. What do you hope to accomplish?

e. What benefit you get being IUCN members?

f. How you co-ordinate with IUCN headquarter as well as the country offices?

g. Do you run any IUCN’s programs? What are your roles in IUCN programs?

h. How is your relationship with IUCN and with other IUCN member organization as a whole as well as within the country?

5. Questions to the Commissions members (commissions members are mostly experts in their field, which includes scientist, university professor etc.).

a. Why you are interested to be a commission member?

b. Since how long you are the member of IUCN commission?

c. As a scientist of specific field, what you think about the bureaucratic system of IUCN?

d. What role you have been plying to achieve conservation goal?
e. Are you happy with the IUCN’s policy and programs at global scale as well as at country specific?
f. There are several other international and national organizations in your region and countries. How you rate IUCN?
g. In your opinion what role IUCN is playing?
h. What are the strength and weaknesses of IUCN?
i. At personal level what benefit you are enjoying?

6. **Questionnaires for the personnel who worked for the IUCN and retired and working somewhere as University faculty members or in the other organizations or spending retired life.**

   a. How you describe your experiences working with IUCN?
   b. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the organization?
   c. What major issue does IUCN need to address as an organization?
   d. What major issue does IUCN need to address as a major player in conservation?
   e. What were the major challenges?
   f. What approach does IUCN uses in engaging with its staff?
   g. How are decision made?

7. **Questionnaires for the local people who are benefited from the project (NGOs leader, village leader or local government official).**

   a. Who brought this program?
   b. Who made the decision?
   c. How you or your community is benefiting from the IUCN’s program?
   d. What change IUCN program brought in your community?
   e. What is your expectation with IUCN?

8. **Questionnaires for the junior or project site IUCN staff.**

   a. What is your role?
   b. How you are coordinated?
   c. How decisions are made?
   d. How often you are asked for your opinion about the plan and program of the IUCN?
   e. What is the procedure of communication with project site personnel?
   f. How your expectations are addressed?

9. **Questionnaires for the government officials of following government agencies:**

   **India:** Ministry of Environment and Forests (state member), Attappaddy Hills Area Development Society, G.B. Pant Institute of Himalayan Environment and Development and Indian Institute of Forest Management (state agencies);
   **Bangladesh:** Ministry of Environment and Forest;
   **Nepal:** Department of National Parks and Wildlife Conservation;
Pakistan: National Council for Conservation of Wildlife, Ministry of Environment (state member), National Institute of Oceanography, Northern Areas of Pakistan, Planning and Development Department, Civil Secretariat FATA, Planning and Development Department, Government of Punjab, Planning, Environment and Development Department, Government of the North-West Frontier Province and Sindh Wildlife Department (six government agencies)

1. When your country became member of IUCN? And why?
2. How your ministry / agency have been engage with IUCN?
3. What are the benefits of the memberships of IUCN?
4. How and what way you are benefiting from IUCN?
   How do you co-ordinate with IUCN headquarter as well as the country offices?
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