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Synergies among social safeguards in FLEGT and REDD+ in Cameroon 2 3 Yitagesu T. Tegegne^{1,2*}, Sabaheta Ramcilovic-Suominen³, Kalame Fobissie², Ingrid J. 4 Visseren-Hamakers⁴, Marcus Lindner¹, Markku Kanninen²

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13 Abstract

Two key international policy processes have been developed to combat illegal logging and 14 15 promote the contribution of forests to climate change mitigation in developing countries: the European Union's Action Plan on Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT) 16 17 and its Voluntary Partnership Agreements (VPAs), and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change policy on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest 18 19 Degradation (REDD+). The implementation of these policies raises concerns about unintended adverse effects on the environment and local peoples' livelihoods. To prevent 20 21 such effects, both processes involve developing country-level safeguards, so that they 'do no 22 harm'. This paper presents (i) a comparison of the social safeguards of the FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ processes and an explanation of their commonalities and differences, and (ii) an 23 24 exploration of the potential synergies and the challenges to realizing them. The three main research methods used in the study were semi-structured interviews, content analysis of 25 26 policy documents, and focus group discussions with local communities and indigenous peoples in south and east Cameroon. Our analysis shows that whereas FLEGT-VPA includes 27 28 legality-based safeguards with legally binding monitoring and reporting obligations, REDD+ adopts a right-based approach to safeguards. Potential synergies between the two 29 30 approaches were identified. The synergies lie in the participatory nature of the process of 31 designing benefit sharing mechanisms, strengthening forest and land tenure, and defining the 32 criteria and indicators in FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ safeguards. However, realizing the synergies 33 is challenging, given the existing political economy of Cameroon.

34 **Key words**: policy implementation, participatory management, forest governance, tenure,

35 Cameroon

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36 1. Introduction

Deforestation and forest degradation are the key causes of an increasing reduction of the world's forest and important contributors to greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Achard et al., 2014), with illegal logging being an important cause of deforestation and forest degradation (e.g. through harvesting premature forest or harvesting more trees than legally allowed), thereby contributing to GHG emissions (Tacconi, 2007).

Two major international policy processes have been established to address the problem of 42 43 illegal logging, and of deforestation and forest degradation: the European Union's (EU) Action Plan on Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT) and the United Nations 44 45 policy on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD+). The FLEGT Action Plan focuses on the timber trade and the enforcement of forest laws and regulations 46 as a way to combat illegal logging (European Commission, 2003). Bilaterally negotiated 47 Voluntary Partnership Agreements (VPAs) with timber-producing countries that export to the 48 EU are a major component of the Action Plan (European Commission, 2003). REDD+ is a 49 multilateral initiative under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change 50 (UNFCCC) to reduce deforestation and forest degradation, as a way to reduce GHG emissions 51 from forest and land use. REDD+ is based on the concept of incentivizing developing countries 52 53 to reduce emissions in the forest and land-use sector (Angelsen et al., 2012). In parallel to the development of REDD+ under the UNFCCC, the World Bank's Forest Carbon Partnership 54 Facility (FCPF) and the UN-REDD Programme have been supporting developing countries in 55 their efforts to "get ready" for REDD+. FLEGT and REDD+ are two distinct policy processes, 56 57 operating under different design and implementation strategies. However, both aspire to bring about a positive change in governance (Angelsen et al., 2012; European Commission, 58 59 2003), and both face significant and similar challenges in implementation (Corbera & Schroeder, 2011; Ramcilovic-Suominen & Hansen, 2012; Visseren-Hamakers et al., 2012). 60

61 Despite the implementation challenges, there is a strong commitment to further the 62 development and implementation of the processes at the global, national and subnational 63 levels. This commitment of the two processes lie not only in the stated policy goals, but also 64 in the anticipation that their effective implementation will promote sustainable forest 65 management, generate non-carbon benefits, and address worries related to poor governance, land tenure, biodiversity conservation, effective participation, benefit sharing 66 67 and poverty alleviation (McDermott et al., 2012; Ros-Tonen et al., 2013). This is why stakeholders have pushed for the incorporation in these policy processes of so-called 68 safeguards, addressing both environmental and social issues (Jagger et al., 2014; McDermott 69 70 et al., 2012). While an emerging body of literature has focused on the interactions between 71 FLEGT and REDD+ more generally (Broekhoven & Wit, 2014; Ochieng et al., 2013; Tegegne et 72 al., 2014), a comparatively smaller amount of research has focused on the relationships among the social safeguards in those two processes (McDermott et al., 2012). This is 73 74 important, because in order to ensure that a country safeguard system is developed and 75 implemented efficiently, synergies with other safeguard systems of related processes in the

country should be explored (Jagger et al., 2014; McDermott et al., 2012; Rey et al., 2013).
Furthermore, consideration of the synergies among the safeguards of related processes can
avoid duplication of efforts and enhance economies of scale. Against this backdrop, this study
addressed the following questions:

What are the commonalities and differences between the social safeguard
 approaches of FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ in Cameroon, and how can these similarities and
 differences be explained?

83 84 • What are the potential synergies between the FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ social safeguards, and what challenges stand in the way of realizing these synergies?

It is hoped that the comparison of safeguard approaches will contribute to learning, 85 86 improvements and further guidance on the development and implementation of safeguards in the FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ processes. Moreover, before one is able to develop synergies 87 between related policies, understanding commonalities and differences and the reasons for 88 the overlaps are necessary (Duguma et al., 2014; Gehring & Oberthür, 2009; McDermott et 89 90 al., 2012). Such analysis is particular necessary to identify and inform relevant stakeholders 91 about aspects of environmental and social challenges where the processes can (not) work 92 together and why (Rey et al., 2013). The early lessons learnt in Cameroon can be beneficial to 93 the 15 countries that are currently negotiating or implementing a FLEGT-VPA and 94 participating in REDD+, and help in the development of the theoretical debate on social 95 safeguards.

Section 2 introduces the conceptual dimensions of social safeguards and section 3 presents
overview of the FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ processes in Cameroon and the research methods.
Section 4 presents the research findings and section 5 discusses the key findings of the study.
Finally, section 6 outlines the main concluding remarks.

100 2. Conceptual framework: Approaches to social safeguards

101 The concept of social safeguards in general has its origins in the World Bank's safeguards 102 policies and in the United Nations (UN) system in the 1980s (Hall, 2007). The World Bank's 103 approach – which was later also adopted by the Global Environmental Facility (GEF) – focuses 104 on doing no harm. This approach is also known as the mitigation approach (McDermott et al., 105 2012), so as to indicate its reactive – as opposed to proactive – nature. It focuses on 106 addressing adverse impacts resulting from investment and development activities (EMG-107 UNEP, 2010), and encompasses aspects such as working conditions, pollution, health and 108 security (Ros-Tonen et al., 2013). The UN's approach to social safeguards pursues the idea of 109 preventing undue harm (EMG-UNEP, 2010), thus taking a proactive stand. It puts greater 110 emphasis on the promotion of rights and social benefits, and is thus also referred as the right-111 based approach (McDermott et al., 2012; Ros-Tonen et al., 2013).

112 In addition to these two approaches, social safeguards have recently been revisited in the 113 policy discourse surrounding REDD+. Countries undertaking REDD+ activities are requested to 114 develop country-level approaches that enable them to respond to the requirements outlined

in the recent UNFCCC agreements concerning social and environmental risks. The provisions 115 of social and environmental safeguards in REDD+ are explained in a number of decisions. First, 116 117 the Cancun Agreement (1/CP.16) acknowledges the need to address national forest governance shortcomings and mitigate any potential adverse social and environmental 118 effects that could prevent REDD+ from achieving its long-term goals (UNFCCC, 2011). Second, 119 120 in 2011, the UNFCCC COP 17 in Durban set up a Safeguard Information System (SIS) for Parties to provide information about how all safeguards, as referred to in the Cancun Agreement 121 (appendix I), are being addressed and respected. Third, in 2013, UNFCCC COP 19 in Warsaw 122 included the safeguards in the Warsaw Framework for REDD+. Finally, two years later, COP 123 21 in Paris (Decision 17/CP.21) referred to the need for further guidance when 124 communicating how safeguards are being addressed and respected by REDD+ countries. The 125 SIS will make countries eligible for result-based payments, based on reporting on the delivery 126 of social and environmental safeguards. 127

Our conceptual framework consists of three parts. For the first part, namely our analysis of the character of the various safeguards, we use the following typology by Arhin (2014), which is more specific than other categorizations:

- Preventive safeguards refer to 'doing no harm' to local communities.
- Mitigative safeguards refer to minimizing the negative distributional impact of
 measures on local communities and their livelihoods.
- Promotive safeguards refer to 'doing something better' to provide opportunities and spaces for forest-dependent communities to contribute to decision making, improve their livelihoods and benefit from the measures.
- Transformative safeguards aim to pursue a radical shift in underlying assumptions and
 narratives to increase indigenous peoples' (IPs) and communities' access to and control
 of benefits.

The second part of our conceptual framework was developed based on the following bodies 140 of literature that analyse key social issues and risks in the context of natural resource 141 governance, including decentralization reforms, payment for ecosystem services (PES) and 142 community-based conservation (e.g. Awono et al., 2013; Blom et al., 2010; Chhatre et al., 143 144 2012; Chomba et al., 2016; Dunlop & Corbera, 2016; Hayes & Persha, 2010; Sunderlin et al., 2014). The following are the most prominent social risks and concerns associated with the 145 146 implementation of forest policies: (i) tenure insecurity (Awono et al., 2013; Cerbu, Sonwa, & Pokorny, 2013; Hajjar, 2014; Mbatu, 2015; Nkemnyi et al., 2016; Sunderlin et al., 2014; Willis 147 et al., 2016), (ii) inadequate avenues for local participation (Awono et al., 2013; Lawlor et al., 148 149 2013; Lesniewska & McDermott, 2014; Wodschow et al., 2016), (iii) inequitable benefit sharing (Cerbu et al., 2013; Lawlor et al., 2013; Lesniewska and McDermott, 2014; Mbatu, 150 151 2015; Sunderlin et al., 2014) and (iv) adverse impacts on local livelihoods (Eba'a Atyi et al., 152 2013; Lesniewska & McDermott, 2014; van Heeswijk & Turnhout, 2013; Wiersum & Elands, 153 2013).

Furthermore, based on the works of one of the authors of this paper (Fobissie et al., 2012; Fobissie, 2014), which focus on forest governance and social safeguards in Cameroon – we introduced an additional, important aspect to be considered in the context of social safeguards in REDD+: free, prior and informed consent (FPIC). Building on these literatures, we distilled the following core aspects of social safeguards:

- Free, prior and informed consent (FPIC) and participation: FPIC lays down the principle to secure the full and effective participation of IPs and communities prior to any proposed interventions (e.g. a REDD+ project). Participation was analysed using Arnstein's (1969) ladder of participation, differentiating between manipulative, passive, functional, interactive participation, participation by consultation, participation for materials incentives and self-mobilization.
- Forest and land tenure: Tenure was analysed using the concept of 'bundle of rights',
 which includes access, withdrawal, management, exclusion and alienation rights (for
 detailed definitions of these rights, see Schlager & Ostrom (1992).
- Social benefits and benefit sharing mechanisms (BSMs), including the impacts on local livelihoods: For BSMs, we applied the analytical parameters defined by Fobissie et al. (2014) and Lindhjem et al. (2011), who identified two dimensions of a benefit sharing arrangement: the vertical distribution of benefits between national and local stakeholders, and the horizontal sharing of benefits between and within a community. BSMs should be tailored to local conditions and needs and fulfil effectiveness, efficiency and equity criteria (see Assembe-mvondo et al., 2015; Chomba et al., 2016).
- The third part of our framework focuses on monitoring and reporting commitments. A safeguard system requires a verifiable compliance component to ensure its effectiveness. The compliance component of a safeguard system could include effective monitoring and reporting systems, dispute resolution mechanisms and non-compliance mechanisms. In this study, we paid particular attention to and compared the monitoring and reporting obligations under the FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ processes. The monitoring and reporting system is basically meant to provide information about how the safeguards are being addressed and respected.
- 182 3. Research design: case study and methods
- 183 3.1. Introducing the case study: The Cameroonian VPA and REDD+ processes
- Cameroon is renowned for its biodiversity and 42% of the country is covered by forest 184 (COMIFAC, 2013). However, the country is facing an increased rate of deforestation and forest 185 degradation, and recent studies have reported that it will soon experience even higher rates 186 of deforestation (Tegegne et al., 2016). Cameroon is currently engaged in both the EU FLEGT-187 188 VPA and REDD+. The processes are managed by two ministries: the Ministry of Forests (MINFOF) leads the VPA process, and the Ministry of Environment (MINEPDED) is responsible 189 for overseeing the REDD+ process. The VPA between Cameroon and the EU was signed in 190 191 October 2010 and ratified into Cameroonian law in August 2011. Several institutes have been set up to negotiate and implement the VPA process. The Joint Implementation Council (JIC) 192

was created to oversee the VPA implementation, and is composed of two bodies: Committé 193 194 Conjoint de Suivi (CCS) and the Council. The parties to the agreement decide who should 195 participate in CCS meetings. Cameroon has included civil society organizations (CSOs) and 196 indigenous peoples (IPs) and communities in recent CCS meetings. To guide and assess the 197 implementation of the VPA, Cameroon established a National Monitoring Committee (NMC). 198 This NMC has a fixed membership comprising representatives of the Prime Minister's office, 199 the National Assembly, five government ministries, CSOs, IPs, the private sector and people 200 who depend on communal forests. Cameroon has been in the implementation phase of the 201 VPA process since 2011; that is, it is developing a Timber Legality Assurance System (TLAS) 202 and methods of impact monitoring, and implementing transparency commitments.

Concerning the country's involvement in and efforts to benefit from REDD+, Cameroon has 203 been engaged in two main REDD+ initiatives: the FCPF (since September 2010) and the UN-204 205 REDD Programme (since November 2011), with the FCPF playing the main role in the national 206 REDD+ Readiness process. Cameroon's Readiness Plan Idea Note (R-PIN) was validated in 207 2008 and the national REDD+ Readiness Plan (R-PP) was approved by the policy board of FCPF 208 in 2013. Several institutes have been designed to follow up on the development and implementation of the country's REDD+ strategy. The REDD+ steering committee (the 209 decision making body for the REDD+ process) consists of 19 members, namely 14 210 representatives from the government, one from CSOs, one from IPs and one from the private 211 sector, and two representatives elected by MINNEPED. The Technical Secretariat is the 212 operational body of the REDD+ process. It is composed of the UNFCCC focal point, the 213 National REDD+ coordinator and a representative from the MINFOF. At the time of this 214 215 research, Cameroon was in the readiness phase of the REDD+ process, that is, it was assessing drivers of deforestation, working on capacity building, and elaborating the national REDD+ 216 217 strategy and Emission Reduction Program Idea Note (ER-PIN).

Several REDD+ projects and REDD+ related PES projects in Cameroon are at the development 218 219 or implementation stage. These projects offer on-the-ground platforms for testing and 220 learning activities that can be used to inform the design and implementation of national-level 221 REDD+ actions. After discussions with the proponents of various REDD+ and PES projects, we 222 decided to focus on two of the most advanced forest carbon PES projects, namely the 223 Community PES and Ngoyla-Mintom REDD+ projects. Both projects were developed in 224 accordance with the pro-community Plan Vivo system and standard for avoiding 225 deforestation and forest degradation. They were also implemented within the framework of 226 community forestry, designated by the 1994 forestry law of Cameroon. One of the projects 227 was developed by the Centre for Environment and Development (CED) and Bioclimate, and 228 implemented in two community forests: Nkolenyeng Community forest (which is dominated by Baka indigenous peoples) in the east, and Nomedjoh Community Forest (which is 229 230 dominated by Bantu-Fang farming peoples) in the south (Figure 1). The second project 231 (Ngoyla-Mintom REDD+ project) was funded by the European Union and implemented by 232 WWF Cameroon in four community forests dominated by Bantu peoples in the south of Cameroon. The general forest types at the two project sites are mixed evergreen and deciduous humid forests. However, the forests are under serious pressure due to numerous mining explorations, the development of the cross-border railway between Cameroon, Gabon and the Republic of Congo, industrial logging, and immigration linked to these economic activities (Willis et al., 2016). In this context of economic development, securing the full rights of indigenous peoples and local communities to have complete access to the forests and to subsistence farming is a major challenge.

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[Figure 1 about here]

241 **3.2. Methods**

The data collection for this study was carried out following a three-step approach. First, an extensive review of scientific and grey literature was undertaken, including official and policy documents related to FLEGT-VPA, REDD+ and safeguard approaches. An overview of the key policy documents reviewed is presented in Table 1. The literature review and document analysis were also used to develop questions for the subsequent steps, namely an interview survey and a protocol for focus group discussions.

248 Second, semi-structured expert interviews were conducted by the first author during a three-249 month stay in Cameroon in late 2015. Semi-structured interviews are suitable for gathering qualitative information about, for example, stakeholders' perceptions of processes. The 250 251 interviewees were selected from various types of organizations using purposeful sampling 252 techniques (see Table 2). The interviews were conducted face-to-face and were intended to 253 capture different aspects of social safeguards, as distilled from the conceptual framework. Each of the 35 interviews lasted for about 1 hour and was recorded with the consent of the 254 255 interviewee. In addition, two Skype interviews were conducted in February and March 2016 256 with important experts who had been abroad during the fieldwork. A standard list of 257 questions was applied consistently to all interviewees. All questions were open-ended to 258 allow the interviewees to express their personal experiences and perceptions of important 259 issues identified during the review of literature and policy documents, and follow-up 260 questions were asked for elaboration. Expert interviews were transcribed and analysed for 261 content. In addition, when common trends and responses emerged, they were analysed 262 through descriptive statistics to determine the numbers and percentages of the interviewees 263 sharing any given views and opinions.

264 Third, six focus group discussions (FGDs) with indigenous peoples (IPs) and local communities participating in forest carbon PES projects were conducted. Table 3 summarizes the basic 265 266 characteristics of the six sampled intervention villages at the project sites. The aim of the FGDs was to capture IPs' and local communities' expectations regarding FPIC and participation in 267 268 the PES projects, tenure arrangements and BSMs. FGD participants were purposefully selected (Bedford and Burgess, 2001). The groups comprised village elders, village chiefs, 269 270 representatives from the forest entity, and women, men and youth groups in the community. 271 The discussions were transcribed and analysed for content.

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273 Table 1. Overview of key policy documents reviewed.

Document title	Prepared by	Publication	Reference
		year	
Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade (FLEGT):	European Commission	2003	European Commission,
Proposal for an Action Plan			2003
FLEGT briefing notes: Forest Law Enforcement, Governance	European Commission	2007	European Commission,
and Trade			2007
FLEGT Voluntary Partnership Agreement between Cameroon	European Commission and	2010	Cameroon VPA, 2010
and the European Union	Cameroon		
Guidelines for developing legality definitions in FLEGT	European Forest Institute	2012	EFI, 2012
Voluntary Partnership Agreements			
REDD+ Readiness Preparation Proposal Cameroon	Ministry of the Environment, the	2013	MINEPDED, 2013
	Nature Protection and		
	Sustainable Development		
	(Cameroon)		
Operational Guidelines for Obtaining Free, Prior and	Ministry of Environment, Nature	2015	MINEPDED, 2015a
Informed Consent in REDD+ Initiatives in Cameroon Including	Protection and Sustainable		
Principles, Criteria and Indicators.	Development (Cameroon)		
The World Bank Operations Manual	World Bank	2005	World Bank, 2005
Guidelines on Stakeholder Engagement	World Bank and UN-REDD	2012	FCPF UNREDD, 2012
Readiness Preparation Proposal (R-PP)	FCPF	2010	FCPF UNREDD, 2010
Guidelines and Generic Terms of Reference (ToR) for an	FCPF	2010	FCPF, 2010
SESAs and ESMF			
UNFCCC Cancun agreement	UNFCCC	2011	UNFCCC, 2011
Cameroon ER-PIN draft document	MINEPDED	2015	MINEPDED, 2015b

Table 2. Expert interviews: categories and number of interviewees.

Categories of interviewees	Organizations	Number interviewed
National governmental organizations	Ministry of Forests (MINFOF); Ministry of the Environment, the Protection of Nature and Sustainable Development (MINEPDED)	10
International organizations (governmental and non-governmental)	Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR); Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ); World Bank; World Wide Fund for nature; International Union for Conservation of Nature; Wildlife Conservation Society; Environmental Investigation Agency	11
National Civil society organizations	National REDD+ and Climate Change Platform; Centre for Environment and Development (CED); Centre for Assistance to Justice and Animation for Development (CAJAD); Forest and Rural Development (FODER); Fondation Camerounaise Terre Vivante (FCTV)	14
National academic institutes	University of Yaoundé I; University of Dschang	2

278 Table 3. Basic characteristics of the six sampled villages in project sites.

	PES project ¹		REDD+ Ngoyla-Mintom Project ²			
Village	Nomendjoh	Nkolenyeng	Etekessang	Zoulabot	Messok-Messok	Ndimako
Total inhabitants	896	555	212	198	147	186
Ethnic groups	Mainly Baka	Bantu (92%), Baka (8%)	Bantu only	Bantu only	Bantu only	Baka only
Total forest area	1942 ha	1042 ha	3135 ha	3254 ha	1480 ha	_3
Main economic	Agriculture labour	Bantu: Agriculture, logging,	Agriculture, logging, gathering NTFPs. Hunting,		Hunting,	
activities	in Bantu fields,	gathering NTFPs.				agriculture labour
	Hunting, gathering	Baka: Agriculture labour in				in Bantu fields,
	NTFPs	Bantu fields, Hunting,				gathering NTFPs
		gathering NTFPs				

	Drivers of forest	Expansion of food and cash crops such as plantain, cassava and peanut. Timber exploitation, unsustainable exploitation of		
	loss	non-timber forest products (NTFPs)		
279	¹ National NGO – CED – is the leading proponent			
280	² WWF lead the REDD+ Ngoyla-Mintom project			

²WWF lead the REDD+ Ngoyla-Mintom project
 ³Ndimako is part of the community forestry of Etekessang

284 4. Results

285 The results are presented in three sections: (1) proposed social safeguards under the FLEGT-

286 VPA and REDD+; (2) monitoring and reporting requirements; and (3) similarities and

287 differences between the safeguards of FLEGT-VPA and REDD+.

288 4.1. Social safeguards under FLEGT-VPA and REDD+

The FLEGT Action Plan, VPA text (including its annexes) and implementing guidelines are very 289 brief when it comes to the definition, scope and objectives of social safeguards. The European 290 Commission (2007) states that key elements to consider in designing and implementing a VPA 291 are likely to include social safeguards, to minimize adverse impacts on local communities. It 292 293 is this aspect that has been adopted in the majority of negotiated VPAs, including that of Cameroon (see Cameroon VPA, 2010, Art. 17). The concept of social safeguards is not further 294 elaborated in any of the 11 annexes of the Cameroonian VPA. However, the need to consider 295 livelihoods is reiterated in several articles (see Cameroon VPA, 2010, Art. 2; 15 and 16). 296 297 Furthermore, the legality definition is another part of the VPA where safeguards are 298 highlighted (EFI, 2012). Cameroon's legality definition is framed around five criteria, including 299 social obligations such as compliance with employment, social security and labour laws and 300 social agreements.

Cameroon is an active member of the World Bank's FCPF programme and its R-PP outlines 301 302 the procedures for the development of Strategic Environmental and Social Assessment (SESA) (FCPF, 2010), and adopts preventive and mitigative safeguards. As stated in the R-PP 303 (MINEPDED, 2013, p. 83) the SESA 'is the approach that allows Cameroon to reduce as much 304 as possible or to eliminate the possible social and environmental impacts [...] during the design 305 and implementation of the REDD+ strategy or to offset them.' The R-PP discusses fundamental 306 307 questions, such as participation, BSMs and tenure. However, the R-PP does not clearly describe how SESA will be implemented, and it states that SESA will be based in part on the 308 criteria and indicators of the VPA (MINEPDED, 2013, p. 86). Table 4 compares and summarizes 309 the core aspects of social safeguards of the FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ processes. 310

Table 4. Comparative analysis of the social safeguards of FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ in Cameroon

Aspects of	FLEGT-VPA	REDD+
social		
safeguards		
FPIC	VPA text makes no reference to FPIC	Adopted and validated FPIC guidelines
	Indeginous peoples and communities	FPIC requirements have not been met
	have a pre-emptive right to refuse	in the field
	allocation and claim their rights.	
Participation of	Requires 'consultation' rather than	Consultation is the defining form of
IPs and	'participation', which does not by itself	participation
communities	ensure full and effective participation	Consultation of indigenous and local
	The CCS ¹ has included IPs and	communities is a right
	communities in recent meetings	
Land and forest	Promotes recognition of access or use	Recognizes user and access rights, but
tenure	rights; does not extend to full ownership	not full ownership
	rights for IPs and communities	Recognizes the conflicts between state
	There is no mention of IPs and	and customary right, but does not
	communities	provide any guidance
Social benefits	Acknowledges the need for vertical	Plan to develop vertical and horizontal
and benefit	benefit sharing but provides no guidance	benefit sharing mechanisms
sharing	Recognizes the need to consider the	The planned benefit sharing
	livelihoods of IPs and communities	mechanism will have effectiveness,
		efficiency and equity problems
Monitoring and	VPA has a legally-binding commitment to	The R-PP makes provisions for the
reporting	monitor and report	monitoring and reporting of social
commitments	VPA plans to meet the reporting	safeguards through the
	obligations by making the monitoring	institutionalization of SESA
	reports available online	

312 ¹CCS (Committé Conjoint de Suivi) is one of the two bodies of Joint Implementation Council of the VPA

313 process in Cameroon.

314 4.1.1. FPIC and participation

315 The full and effective participation of relevant stakeholders, including indigenous peoples

316 (IPs) and local communities, is essential for achieving effective and sustainable

317 implementation of FLEGT-VPA (Wodschow et al., 2016) and REDD+ (FCPF-UNREDD, 2012). All

318 stakeholders involved in, affected by or interested in the processes should actively engage at

all level of the processes. 'In order for REDD+ and FLEGT to achieve their policy goals, the

320 processes should have long-term planning and monitoring to ensure active participation of IPs

and local communities, who have an important role to play in sustainable management of

- 322 *natural resources*' noted an interviewee. The VPA text states that IPs and communities will be
- regularly consulted on the implementation of the VPA through the NMC (Cameroon VPA,
- 2010, Annex III (a, b)). Nonetheless, the VPA fails to specify the roles and powers of IPs and communities in decision making and the implementation of the VPA process. Sixty per cent
- of interviewees, mainly from CSOs, interpreted the use of the word 'consult' in the VPA text
- 327 to mean that only a weak level of non-state actors' involvement in the VPA process is

required. This could also imply that consultation is the defining form of participation during 328 329 VPA implementation in Cameroon, and hence not as many steps up Arnstein's (1969) ladder as it could be. An interviewee from a national CSO stated that 'what we are witnessing in 330 331 Cameroon's forest sector is the decreasing opportunities for multi-stakeholder participation 332 and an increasing influence of the state in the implementation of FLEGT-VPA and REDD+'. This 333 contradicts the expectation of IPs and communities. We found across the six FGDs that IPs and communities would like to have a partnership form of participation (in FLEGT-VPA and 334 335 REDD+ processes) that enables them to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with project proponents and the government. 336

The Cameroon REDD+ policy documents provide non-state actors with an opportunity to 337 338 participate in decision making. However, a closer look at the current composition of the REDD+ steering committee revealed the weak representation of CSOs and IPs during decision 339 340 making. Representatives from CSOs, IPs, the private sector and elected representatives make up only a quarter of the members of the steering committee, whereas decision making by the 341 committee is done through a majority vote (two thirds of the members), at the expense of 342 consensus (MINEPDED, 2013). As noted by the majority of interviewees (75%) and FGDs, this 343 offers non-state actors only a very slim chance of making their concerns heard, implying that 344 consultation is the defining form of participation during REDD+ implementation in Cameroon. 345 Such decision making may not help Cameroon to fully and easily address the Cancun 346 safeguards requirements and adhere to the FCPF and UN-REDD joint guidelines on the 347 participation of stakeholders (FCPF-UNREDD, 2012), which require the full and effective 348 involvement of IPs and communities. 349

Although the VPA process does not specifically require FPIC during the allocation of forest 350 concessions, in 2014 the Cameroon government elaborated and validated a national REDD+ 351 FPIC guideline document (MINEPDED, 2014). Thirty out of 37 interviewees (80%) and 352 353 participants in the FDGs stated that although the FPIC guide is a step towards the effective 354 attainment of decision making power by IPs and communities, its implementation remains an 355 important challenge. For instance, in 2015 the government failed to comply with its own REDD+ FPIC principles during the preparation of the Cameroon ER-PIN. This assertion 356 357 corroborates similar findings by Carodenuto & Fobissie (2015). During the fieldwork it was 358 observed that the requirement that FPIC should be obtained had not been met in the two 359 projects examined in this study. 'Most of the meetings during the project design did not take our traditional calendar into account and the meetings were not conducted in our indigenous 360 361 Baka language. The project proponents also failed to provide us with relevant information in advance' (an FGD participant in Ndimako village). That said, our analysis shows that 362 363 consultation is the most dominant form of participation in the design and implementation of safeguard systems of FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ in Cameroon. 364

365 4.1.2. Land and forest tenure

Clarifying land and forest tenure is crucial to identifying natural resource rights holders, who should thus participate in decision making processes, and those who are entitled to receive

FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ benefits. Tenure basically refers to the relationships, systems and rules 368 369 that determine rights to land and forest resources. Tenure rights can range from use right to 370 exclusion and alienation rights. Their position in the spectrum of tenure rights can greatly 371 affect the ability and motivation of IPs and local communities to manage natural resources 372 sustainably. In this light, the Cameroon VPA makes explicit mention of the need to recognize 373 and respect customary rights (see Cameroon VPA, 2010, Annex VIII). However, such 374 recognition is mostly limited to access or use rights, and does not extend to full ownership 375 rights for IPs and communities. This is because during the VPA negotiation there was an 376 assumption among Cameroonian stakeholders that the basis of the VPA would be in 377 conformity with existing national legislation, which at the time did not provide for ownership rights. It was therefore difficult for non-state actors to advocate for and have full ownership 378 379 in the VPA text. Furthermore, 21 out of 37 interviewees (55%) and participants in the FGDs asserted that the Cameroon VPA and REDD+ processes lack clear procedures for securing land 380 and forest tenure for IPs and communities. 381

The Cancan Agreement acknowledge the importance of tenure issues but there is no further 382 elaboration, referring only to national laws and sovereignty (See UNFCCC, 2011, Art. 72). The 383 Cameroon R-PP (MINEPDED, 2013, p. 47) also highlights tenure insecurity as a concern and 384 acknowledges the conflicts between customary and formal law. The R-PP (p. 45) states that 385 'the [country's] law governing land issues are clear: the laws take precedence over customary 386 right'. The R-PP mainly refers to 1974 land tenure and 1994 forestry laws, which do not 387 recognize customary rights to forest and land, and limit IPs and communities' rights to user 388 and access rights (Alemagi & Kozak, 2010; Assembe-Mvondo et al., 2014). Moreover, both 389 390 land and forestry laws attribute the ownership of valuable forest resources to the state (Mbatu, 2015) and do not specify whether carbon ownership is associated with rights over 391 392 trees. Thus, a significant amount of the country's forest carbon is state-owned. To address 393 the given inadequacies, the R-PP (MINEPDED, 2013, p. 63) proposes the development of a 394 national land-use plan and improvements to the existing land tenure law. Finally, whilst the VPA and REDD+ processes aim for the recognition of access or use rights, the FGDs in six 395 villages revealed that IPs and communities would like to have, in addition to access right, legal 396 rights of management and exclusion, which are considered necessary to sustainably use 397 natural resources (Schlager and Ostrom, 1992). 398

399 4.1.3. Social benefits and benefit sharing

The effectiveness of the FLEGT and REDD+ processes will depend on, for example, their ability 400 to equitably distribute benefits to the relevant stakeholders (Chomba et al., 2016; Dunlop & 401 402 Corbera, 2016; Somorin et al., 2014). The benefits can be shared between national and local stakeholders (vertical distribution) and between and within a community (horizontal 403 404 distribution). The Cameroonian VPA refers to benefit sharing mechanisms (BSMs) as a part of social obligations. A provision on how to develop a BSMs under the VPA is quite weak and is 405 not further elaborated in the Cameroonian VPA. An interviewee from a governmental 406 407 organization noted that 'Cameroon has a functioning forest revenue-distribution model 408 [called Annual Forest Royalties (AFR; Redevance Forestière Annuelle)] based on the 1994 409 forestry law and the same system will be adopted under the VPA process'. If adopted, this will 410 imply that the VPA is primarily targeting the vertical distribution of benefits. Twenty-six out 411 of 37 interviewees, mainly from CSOs and international organizations, expressed their fear 412 that the VPA could reinforce the effectiveness, efficiency and equity problems inherent in 413 AFR, which suffers from high transaction costs and has failed to achieve poverty reduction 414 and local development (Assembe-mvondo et al., 2015; Mbatu, 2015). The same group of 415 interviewees also said that although the implementation of the VPA itself will not bring new social benefits (e.g. make a contribution to local development) to IPs and communities, they 416 417 stressed that the VPA could improve compliance with the law and the relationship between logging companies and the communities. 418

Like the VPA process, the REDD+ process has not yet developed BSMs although it does lay out 419 420 some initial steps. The R-PP (MINEPDED, 2013, p. 76) presents two levels of payments: vertical 421 and horizontal distribution of benefits. The R-PP (p. 76) proposes basing the BSMs on the 422 experiences of other in-country revenue distribution models, notably AFR, which has contributed to the marginalization of IPs such as Baka forest peoples. In the same vein, the 423 424 World Bank's FCPF requires that distributions of financial benefits from its Carbon Fund 425 should occur in the context of a national BSMs, but exact arrangement are not specified (Cadman et al., 2016, p. 3). During all the FGDs, IPs and local communities blamed AFR for 426 427 bureaucratic red tape and poor governance. A participant in FGDs in Ndimako noted that when AFR incentives reach our village, the incentives have often been mismanaged by local 428 429 elite and traditional authorities. It is quite common for the incentives go to the Bantu farming 430 peoples and not to Baka indigenous forest peoples'. This assertion corroborates similar findings by Freudenthal et al. (2011). Finally, MINEPDED (2013) identifies IPs and local 431 432 communities as the primary beneficiaries of the REDD+ benefits, and also states that the 433 participation of stakeholders in decision making is indispensable, but does not identify the 434 form of participation. Thus, our analysis shows that the business-as-usual proposals for the BSMs under REDD+ and VPA processes in Cameroon will reinforce the injustices inherited in 435 the AFR and existing legal systems. Unless this situation is rectified, IPs and local communities 436 will have no motivation to actively engage in the processes. 437

438 4.2 Monitoring and reporting commitments on social safeguards

To ensure that it can effectively comply with the international safeguard standards, and 439 440 report that compliance, a country should assess the existing monitoring and reporting tools and procedures of other relevant processes and initiatives being implemented in the country. 441 Understanding the different monitoring and reporting procedures could help countries 442 identify common reporting guidelines, methodologies and best practices for gathering 443 information and reporting on compliances (Korwin and Rey, 2015). Here, we assess and 444 compare the monitoring and reporting obligations under the FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ 445 446 processes.

447 Under the VPA process, commitments to monitoring are more elaborate in comparison to 448 commitments to reporting. The VPA impact monitoring framework (which is under 449 development) will monitor the environmental, social and economic impacts of the VPA, and 450 thus the social safeguards (Tegegne et al., 2014). The Cameroon VPA mandates the JIC to 451 implement the legally-binding monitoring commitment and to undertake annual reporting on 452 VPA impact monitoring, including that on social aspects. It is assumed that when they are 453 available, the reports, documents and conclusions of the VPA impact monitoring will made 454 public on the internet. Moreover, Cameroon is the first Central African country to have an independent forest monitor, whose roles include strengthening the monitoring capacities of 455 MINFOF, improving existing monitoring tools and adapting the monitoring tools to the 456 requirements of the FLEGT-VPA TLAS (Brack & Léger, 2013, p.15). The VPA process recognizes 457 a continuing role for the independent forest monitor, listing the 'independent observation' 458 involving local civil society for monitoring and reporting on, inter alia, compliance with 459 existing regulations, which is of relevance to REDD+. 460

The REDD+ policy documents refer to both the monitoring and the reporting of social 461 safeguard related aspects. Cameroon's proposed solution to monitoring and reporting on 462 social safeguards in its REDD+ process is through the development of SESA. However, there is 463 insufficient detail about the criteria and indicators to be adopted in monitoring and reporting 464 on social safeguards in REDD+ in the country. Rather, it is assumed that indicator frameworks 465 for governance and social impacts developed in other national and international processes 466 and/or projects will be used. In this context, a direct linkage is made to the criteria and 467 indicators developed in the context of the FLEGT-VPA (MINEPDED, 2013). 468

469 4.3. Similarities and differences between social safeguard approaches

470 A comparison of the safeguard approaches of the FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ processes revealed 471 important similarities. First, there is similarity in the nature of developing benefit sharing 472 mechanisms, strengthening forest and land tenure, and monitoring and reporting. This is 473 because both processes in Cameroon (i) promise to conduct a multi-stakeholder approach, 474 (ii) rely on existing legal and institutional systems, and (iii) plan to develop criteria and 475 indicator based monitoring and reporting frameworks. Second, both processes consider the 476 preventive and mitigative roles of safeguards. Third, FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ share common 477 social concerns. During the interviews, three important social risks and potential synergies 478 were frequently mentioned, namely (in order of importance): i) strengthening the tenure 479 rights of IPs and communities, ii) improving forest governance, including the reform of laws 480 and stakeholder engagement, and iii) benefit sharing. However, the importance attached to social risks differed between the experts interviewed and the participants in the FGDs. The 481 latter ranked social benefits and benefit sharing as the most important concern, followed by 482 land and forest tenure and participation in decision making processes. Fourth, section 4.1 483 shows that both processes will lead to social safeguard mechanisms that are based on 484 outdated national laws, which do not recognize customary rights and limit the active 485 engagement of forest-dependent communities. The observed similarities in social safeguards 486

can be attributed to the common origins of safeguards and the overlaps in the policy goals of
 FLEGT Action Plan, FCPF and UN-REDD, and the general trend and pressure from CSOs to
 emphasize similar issues in all processes. The similarities can also be attributed to recent
 trends in bilateral and multilateral policy processes to develop and use criteria and indicators
 for monitoring, reporting and verifying results and impacts.

Our analysis also revealed important differences. First, in REDD+, social safeguard compliance 492 493 is a prerequisite for result-based incentives; under the VPA it is a legal obligation and linked to market access. Second, while the VPA mainly includes plans for the vertical distribution of 494 495 benefits, REDD+ considers both vertical and horizontal sharing of benefits. Third, membership 496 of IPs in the REDD+ steering committee is a right, which is not the case with the FLEGT-VPA 497 process. Fourth, and perhaps most importantly, although neither the FLEGT Action Plan nor 498 the VPA elaborates the details of social safeguards, several mechanisms and options are 499 under consideration in the REDD+ safeguards framework. The differences uncovered can be attributed to the different designs and approaches of the two processes. Unlike REDD+, which 500 501 is the result of a multilateral process, national and regional (EU) stakeholders define the scope of the VPA (see also Wodschow et al., 2016). During the VPA negotiations in Cameroon, 502 stakeholders regarded the FLEGT-VPA as an agreement aimed at improving governance and 503 504 alleviating poverty. In this context, and with a view to addressing the negative unintended effects that could arise, the article on social safeguards and commitment to VPA impact 505 monitoring was included in the Cameroon VPA agreement. REDD+ is different, as actors tend 506 507 to be concerned that it is not being developed to improve governance and reduce poverty, and so the focus is much more on including social safeguards. 508

509 5. Discussion

510 In this section, we discuss synergies in the social safeguards of FLEGT-VPA and REDD+, the 511 main challenges to realizing the synergies, and the policy implications of the key findings of

512 the study.

513 5.1. Synergies

Our analysis shows that although FLEGT and REDD+ originated in different environmental 514 515 governance arenas, there are potential synergies between the social safeguard approaches 516 of the processes. First, there is crucial synergy to be realized in the multi-stakeholder nature 517 of developing benefit sharing mechanisms, strengthening forest and land tenure, and defining criteria and indicators in relation to FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ safeguards. Realizing these 518 519 synergies will have the advantage of what Tegegne et al. (2014) and Ochieng et al. (2013) have referred to as 'transfer of commitments'. For instance, under the VPA, Cameroon 520 521 committed itself to undertaking a reform of regulatory frameworks to harmonize existing laws with the TLAS requirements; under REDD+, the country committed itself to clarifying rights 522 523 and mechanisms for sharing benefits. Thus, Cameroon can fulfil both commitments using the 524 resources from only one of the processes.

Second, FLEGT and REDD+ have features that could complement each other in addressing the 525 gaps in the protection of IPs' and communities' rights and benefits. The Cameroon VPA 526 527 promotes independent third-party monitoring and has been providing financial and technical 528 support for the participation of civil society in reporting and monitoring (Brack and Léger, 529 2013). Hence, CSOs in Cameroon have been carrying out 'self-mandated' monitoring and 530 reporting, identifying cases of illegal practices at the community level, and providing on-theground evidence that is crucial to ensuring the effective monitoring of forest governance and 531 532 compliance with forest regulations. These experiences of CSOs could provide important lessons for the inclusion of civil society in the design and implementation of REDD+'s social 533 safeguards and benefit sharing mechanisms. All these will go a long way to providing the 534 country's safeguards systems with legitimacy, effectiveness and credibility. 535

536 Third, the development of a legality definition in the context of the VPA includes a 537 comprehensive gap analysis of relevant national polices, laws and regulations. The results of 538 this assessment will be useful when developing the safeguard information system (SIS) for 539 REDD+.

Fourth, the VPA's transparency annex lays out the government's promise to make public information that is of relevance to the monitoring and reporting of REDD+ safeguards and the 'informed' principle of FPIC. In this context, one of the CSOs, FODER, is drawing on its FLEGT experience from the Championing Forest People's Rights and Participation (EU-CFPR) project to initiate discussions and propose the development of the REDD+ transparency guide in Cameroon. In addition, REDD+'s FPIC guideline could be used by VPA actors when engaging with stakeholders and allocating forest concessions.

547 Finally, there are synergies between monitoring and reporting tools and procedures, as well 548 as gathering baseline information on compliance (see also Ochieng et al., 2013). A crucial 549 purpose of VPA impact monitoring is to assess and report changes related to such topics as 550 the effective engagement of stakeholders, tenure and rights, and distribution of benefits 551 (Tegegne et al., 2014). VPA's TLAS also include several requirements for monitoring and 552 reporting on-the-ground legal compliance, independent third-party monitoring and 553 companies' social obligations. Much of this information is particularly relevant for REDD+ SIS.

554 5.2. Challenges to realizing the synergies

555 Despite the potential synergies, our analysis points to several challenges to realizing them. The first challenge is the lack of domestic political will in Cameroon to devote resources and 556 557 efforts to the synergetic implementation of FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ policies (see also Karsenty & Ongolo, 2012). The lack of political interest can partly be explained by the recent shift in 558 Cameroon's vision and political priorities towards becoming an emerging economy by 2035. 559 560 This vision pays little attention to environmental sustainability and entails, amongst other 561 things, the development of large-scale agriculture, investments in infrastructure and the 562 mining of minerals such as cobalt, diamonds, gold and iron ore. These developments imply a

decreasing importance of the EU timber market and the growing trade with Asia (Wodschowet al., 2016).

565 The second challenge is the complex vested interest of political and economic elites in the 566 country's existing governance system. 'Those who have interest in the existing system are those who are governing the system, so they would like to keep the status quo of contradictory 567 policy implementation and thus preserve scope for personal agendas' noted an interviewee 568 569 from an international organization. This sentiment echoes recent research on the topic: Carodenuto and Cerutti (2014), Foundjem-Tita et al. (2014), Nkemnyi et al. (2016) and Ongolo 570 571 (2015) observed that elites in Cameroon have a strong interest in maintaining an incoherent and uncoordinated status quo. Given these interests, seeking synergies between the 572 573 safeguard systems of FLEGT and REDD+ and any legal reforms in Cameroon seem unlikely. In 574 the same vein, any possible changes and reforms will likely not be useful in securing the rights 575 of IPs and local communities without addressing how the system favours the vested interests. 576 This limits the democratic space of IPs and local communities to exert influence on the final 577 outcomes of the policy processes. Vested interest is also a common obstacle to realizing 578 synergies in other countries participating in both FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ processes, such as 579 Ghana (Hajjar, 2015), Republic of Congo (Tegegne, 2016) and Indonesia (Brockhaus et al., 580 2014).

The third challenge is the lack of coordination – accompanied by conflicting interests – 581 582 between and within governmental agencies, national CSOs as well as global proponents and 583 donors of FLEGT and REDD+. Among governmental agencies, a crucial obstacle is the 584 conflicting leadership between the two implementing ministries: MINEPDED (overseeing the country's REDD+ process) and MINFOF (the main custodian of the country's forests). This 585 586 conflictual leadership calls into question the capacity of the VPA and REDD+ processes to operate effectively and serve as levers for safeguarding the right of IPs and communities. At 587 588 the international (and also the national) level, FLEGT and REDD+ are two separate processes under two disconnected proponents (e.g. the UNFCCC and the World Bank versus the EU). 589 590 Relevant policy documents of the global proponents lack cross-referencing on related instruments of the processes. For example, as noted by an interviewee: 'REDD+ actors in 591 592 Cameroon have focused on developing an MRV system. MRV is being constructed as a system completely separated from the FLEGT-VPA's TLAS and according to general criteria provided 593 by the World Bank, which do not make any link to the FLEGT-VPA TLAS.' In addition, the 594 synergy approach to policy processes is itself an emerging issue even at the international 595 level, and it has not yet found its way into national and subnational policies and strategies 596 597 (Duguma et al, 2014). Interviews support this viewpoint. 'Seeking synergies between FLEGT and REDD+ is very much an internationally driven agenda (in particular by the EU)' stated an 598 599 interviewee from a governmental organization. A further challenge is 'strong division and conflicts among national CSOs and intra-community between those favouring conservation or 600 601 conversion' noted an interviewee from CSOs. This sentiment corroborates similar findings by 602 Ongolo (2015), Alemagi and Kozak (2010) and Wodschow et al. (2016). Such competition

hampers the ability of non-state actors and hinders collective action to influence the policyelites and advocate for coherent policy implementation.

605 A fourth challenge is the lack of technical knowledge and information about the safeguards of FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ among stakeholder groups. Cameroon, just like many other 606 607 countries, is yet to generate adequate data and information to inform and report on the 608 development and implementation of a national SIS. Finally, there is no defined financial 609 mechanism for efforts promoting and implementing synergies at the subnational, national 610 and global levels. This may lead to a situation in which those involved will see it as a waste of 611 time, limiting their chances to get separate and more funding and not serving their personal 612 interest or that of their institution.

613 5.3. Policy implications

First, while country safeguard systems should build on existing governance arrangements to 614 615 respond effectively to safeguards commitments in a rigorous yet flexible manner, our analysis shows otherwise in Cameroon. The existing national policies, laws and regulations have 616 several weaknesses and are not supporting Cameroon in fully addressing the safeguard 617 requirements of UNFCCC, FCPF and UN-REDD. Cameroon has historically been characterized 618 by inefficient and weak governance institutions (Mbatu, 2015). In this light, we argue that 619 620 without effective dialogue and the reforms needed to meet the required social safeguard 621 commitments, there is a real danger that investments of UN-REDD, the World Bank and the 622 EU through the REDD+ and VPA processes will serve to reinforce outdated regulatory frameworks and could even result in human rights violations during REDD+ implementation. 623 624 It is therefore crucial that the ministries involved, REDD+ proponents, communities, CSOs, and international organizations and donors take appropriate steps to ensure that relevant 625 626 legislative and subnational and project-based actions are taken to reduce any potential 627 negative consequences.

Second, considering the current approaches to governance and legality, neither FLEGT-VPA 628 629 nor REDD+ will effectively address the key social concerns identified in this study: inefficient 630 stakeholder engagement, tenure insecurity and inequitable sharing of benefits. One of the 631 weaknesses of the FLEGT-VPA is that it bases its design on existing regulatory frameworks, 632 which is vital for national ownership and legitimacy (Lesniewska and McDermott, 2014; 633 Wiersum and Elands, 2013). According to van Heeswijk & Turnhout (2013), FLEGT is shaped 634 by state-oriented discourses that promote existing regulatory instruments that may not 635 necessarily promote sustainability and effective participation. In practice, however, this 636 approach has so far not worked well in Cameroon. An example is Cameroon's forestry and 637 land tenure laws, which aggravate the conflicts between customary and formal law (Mbatu, 2015; Nkemnyi et al., 2016). Alemagi & Kozak (2010, p. 558) also noted that the existing 638 639 regulatory frameworks in Cameroon have served to 'usurp property rights of forest 640 communities'. It is interesting to observe that REDD+ (whose design is not based on existing 641 national law) has not provided strong provisions to resolve problems associated with land 642 tenure and, more interestingly, has not discussed forest carbon rights, which appear to be

attributed to the state. The results of case studies in Cameroon also indicate that resolving 643 644 tenure insecurity under REDD+ and the current political economy of the country will prove 645 difficult (Cerbu et al., 2013; Nkemnyi et al., 2016; Sunderlin et al., 2014). During the six FGDs 646 in south and east Cameroon, IPs and local communities showed concern about tenure 647 insecurity and pointed out that addressing the tenure problem will be a challenging task. This 648 is because, for example, 'the existing tenure arrangement gives privileged access to forest 649 resources to powerful elites' (an FGD participant in Nomedjoh village). Assessing the 650 effectiveness of Cameroon's REDD+ policy strategy, Mbatu (2015, p. 54) states that "access and tenure in Cameroon's forests have been an issue of confrontation between the 651 652 government of Cameroon and its peoples for decades". The unresolved uncertainty about land tenure and ownership rights could erode the legitimacy of FLEGT and REDD+, and cast a 653 shadow of doubt over the rights of IPs and local communities to carbon ownership and their 654 active participation in the processes. Our analysis supports similar findings by Cerbu et al. 655 (2013), Hajjar (2015) and Movuh (2012), who concluded that without effective and inclusive 656 reform of tenure law and a change in incentive structures, FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ processes 657 658 are not likely to succeed.

Third, the two main tools providing guidance for the development of safeguards in the Congo 659 Basin (FCPF and UN-REDD) require that the rights and needs of IPs and local communities be 660 met to ensure the sustainable success of FLEGT and REDD+. Nonetheless, there is an 661 important discrepancy between the needs of forest-dependent communities and the 662 proposed safeguard approaches (Table 4). During the fieldwork, IPs and communities 663 explicitly mentioned the need to have management and exclusion rights and a mechanism for 664 the equitable sharing of benefits. They would also like to be grantor of FPIC and have 665 promotive safeguards in addition to the preventive and mitigative safeguards planned in the 666 667 policy documents of FLEGT and REDD+. As discussed in section 4.1, none of these needs and 668 expectations of IPs will be effectively addressed and respected during FLEGT and REDD+ implementation in Cameroon if the processes continue with the proposed plan for designing 669 and implementing safeguard systems. 670

Fourth, building a robust and flexible safeguard system that address the abovementioned 671 672 concerns will need careful thinking and planning that integrates multiple objectives, at both 673 the national and the international level. At the national level, policies and their interplay 674 across the ministries in charge of forests (MINFOF), REDD+ (MINEPDED), indigenous peoples 675 (MINAS) and regional planning (MINEPAT) will need to be considered. We argue that a 676 national safeguard system in Cameroon and other Congo Basin countries, such as the Republic 677 of Congo, Central African Republic and Democratic Republic of Congo, which are all engaged 678 in FLEGT, could build on subnational level experiences related to FLEGT and REDD+. A unique 679 opportunity is the emissions reduction program (ERP), which in some cases, like in Cameroon, 680 is focused on areas where logging and the FLEGT process are happening. In practice, this 681 means that both FLEGT and ERP issues affecting communities should be addressed. This

includes land use planning, consultation and participation, benefit sharing arrangements, andrespecting the rights of communities and indigenous peoples.

684 At the international level, Cameroon and other countries are expected to use data and 685 knowledge generated from the ERP, other REDD+ and FLEGT activities to design and develop a comprehensive national SIS, inform safeguard-related issues and policies over time, and 686 report to the UNFCCC and EU how safeguards are being implemented and respected. This 687 688 implies that the governments of Cameroon and other developing countries are expected to design ERPs that have a strong safeguard component that meets or exceeds the requirements 689 690 of not only World Bank safeguard standards but also the UNFCCC Cancun decisions on 691 safeguards, as well as safeguards issues linked to FLEGT. Otherwise, Cameroon, just like any 692 other country engaged in REDD+, will not be able to access REDD+ result-based financing 693 easily at the international level. With the discouraging carbon price in the carbon market, 694 coupled with an excessive supply of REDD+ credits and limited financing from the markets 695 and donors, REDD+ credits that have strong safeguards credentials may become more 696 attractive for buyers and donors. Furthermore, UNFCCC negotiations and subsequent 697 decisions on safeguards during COP in Warsaw (2013) and Paris (2015) sent a clear signal from 698 developed countries to developing countries that the implementation and respect of 699 safeguards remain a top priority and prerequisite for REDD+ payments.

700 5. Conclusions

701 This paper has presented a comparison of the social safeguard approaches of the FLEGT-VPA 702 and REDD+ processes and explored the potential synergies and the challenges to realizing 703 these synergies in Cameroon. The FLEGT-VPA adopts legality-based safeguards with legally 704 binding monitoring and reporting obligations, whereas REDD+ mainly takes a right-based 705 approach to safeguards. Consultation is the defining form of participation in both processes. 706 REDD+ proposes to develop both vertical and horizontal benefit sharing arrangements, 707 whereas the aim of the VPA is to primarily target the vertical distribution of benefits. Potential 708 synergies exist in the participatory nature of the process of designing benefit sharing 709 mechanisms, strengthening forest and land tenure, and defining the criteria and indicators in 710 relation to FLEGT-VPA and REDD+ safeguards. However, realizing the synergies is challenging 711 given the existing political economy of Cameroon.

Our analysis has also shown that the planned safeguards of neither FLEGT-VPA nor REDD+ will 712 in practice be able to effectively safeguard IPs and local communities. There is rather a real risk 713 that associated funding from the World Bank, UN-REDD and the EU will likely serve the vested 714 715 interests of powerful individuals in Cameroon. One possible solution to this problem is an overhaul of the land tenure and forestry laws. This conclusion is consistent with that of Mbatu 716 717 (2015) and Tieguhong et al. (2015). In this regard, a key synergetic point between FLEGT-VPA 718 and REDD+ safeguards is participatory governance reform to clarify the rights to land and 719 natural resources. Given the weak governance in Cameroon, it is essential that the FLEGT and 720 REDD+ actors, CSOs and donors take appropriate steps to ensure that such reform processes 721 adhere to the joint FCPF and UN-REDD+ guidelines on stakeholder engagement and serve the

interests of IPs and local communities, rather than powerful elites. In addition, the actors must listen to and act on the concerns and constructive proposals of IPs and local communities and ensure their active participation, according to the principles of FPIC. By so doing, a safeguard system and benefit sharing mechanisms that are regarded by stakeholders as effective and equitable can be developed, and this in turn will promote the sustainability and legitimacy of FLEGT and REDD+ processes. Finally, the insights from our analysis can support the development of a way forward for those stakeholders that are willing to realize

- and contribute to synergetic links between the FLEGT-VPA and the REDD+ safeguards.
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