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REDD+ and its actors in Zanzibar: The Potentials for Equitable Benefit Sharing

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International Development Studies

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Declaration

I, Mahamed Yakub Abdile, declare that this thesis is a result of my research investigations and findings. Sources of information other than my own have been acknowledged and a reference list has been appended. This work has not been previously submitted to any other university for award of any type of academic degree.

Signature……..

Date……

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List of abbreviations

CBOs Community Based Organizations

CCB Climate Community and Biodiversity

CCBA Climate Community and Biodiversity Alliance

CDM Clean Development Mechanism

CFM Community Forest Management

COFMA Community Forest Management Area/ Community Forest Management Agreement

CO_2 Carbon dioxide

CSO Civil Society Organization

DFNNR Department of Forestry and Non-renewable Natural Resources

DoE Department of Environment

GoZ Government of Zanzibar

GHGs Green House Gases

HIMA Hifadhi ya Misitu ya Asili- Conservation of Natural Forests

IGA: Income Generating Activities

IRA Institute of Resource Assessment

IUCN International Union for Conservation of Nature

JUMIJAZA Jumuiya ya uhifadhi wa Misitu wa Jamii Zanzibar- The Community Forests Conservation Association of Zanzibar

JBIC Japan Bank for Internaional Cooperation

JECA Jozani Environmental Association

MoFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
NGENARECO	Ngezi-vumawimbi Natural Resource Conservation Organization
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NOK	Norwegian Kroner
NRM	Natural Resource Management
PD	Project Document
PFM	Participatory Forest Managment
RED	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation
REDD or REDD+	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation
SCCs	Shehia Conservation Committees
SEDICA	South Environmental and Development Conservation Association
SUA	Sokoine University of Agriculture
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VCCs	Village Conservation Committees
VCS	Voluntary Carbon Standard
VCU	Varified Carbon Unit

Abstract

Climate change and its possible negative effects are increasingly recognized as some of the critical challenges the world is facing today. The debates on how to tackle the problems of climate change have been escalating and still are among the controversial issues continuously discussed in international platforms. It is estimated that deforestation and forest degradation may account for nearly 20% of the global emissions. Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation (REDD+) is one of the mechanisms designed to tackle the hazards from the world`s changing climate. The idea behind REDD+ is to create a financial value for the carbon stored in forests, offering incentives for developing countries to reduce emissions from forested lands and invest in low-carbon paths to sustainable development.

Apart from mitigating climate change problems, REDD+ as a mechanism, has pro-poor approaches which attempt to improve the lives of the poor forest dependent communities. Special attention is given to the most vulnerable groups such as the women. Studies on REDD+ projects, both in Africa and elsewhere, suggest the importance of local community participation in the decision making process in order to increase fairness and equity in the benefit sharing process.

Developing countries in the south are important actors in the implementation process of the climate change mitigation mechanisms. Tanzania is one of the African states, where REDD+ pilot projects have been implemented. As part of its contribution to the global climate changes mitigation efforts, the government of Norway funded nine REDD+ pilot projects in Tanzania. Eight of these nine pilot projects were implemented in mainland Tanzania while the ninth one was on the Island of Zanzibar. This REDD+ pilot project called HIMA, in Ksiwahili, Hifadhi ya Misitu ya Asiali', meaning Conservation of Natural Forest lasted for four years. It began in April, 2010 and ended in December, 2014. The project was implemented in both Unguja and Pemba islands.

This thesis, using the pilot REDD+ HIMA project as a case study, explores the potentials for equitable benefit sharing in future REDD+ and other similar climate change interventions in Zanzibar. In particular, the study investigates the potential roles of JUMIJAZA in ensuring equitable benefit sharing. The findings of this study are based on data

collected using qualitative research approaches (semi-structured individual interviews and focus group discussions) and reviewing project related documents.

Based on its findings, the study argues that despite being a very young organization with limited capabilities and experiences, JUMIJAZA is a legitimate representative of the various SCCs which has the potentials to serve and defend the interests of the people in the respective Shehias.The findings of the study also show that the organization has a number of potentials including the acceptance from the community and the government; the full awareness of the SCCs about the importance of the forest conservation and the recently finalized validation process, which grants the certificate to sell the carbon. In addition, its legal status and its approved byelaws give JUMIJAZA extra acceptance and acknowledgement from the international community and the donors. Based on this, the study further concludes that JUMIJAZA is an entity that has the potentials to ensure equitable benefit sharing in future REDD+ and other similar interventions in Zanzibar.

Key words: Representation, Legitimacy, Benefit sharing, Carbon right holders, Equity.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

Reduced Emissions from deforestation and forest degradation (REDD+) is one of the mechanisms designed to tackle the hazards from the world`s changing climate. REDD+ policies and interventions are among the most prominent of recent attempts to mitigate climate change (Agrawal et al. 2011). There have been many international conferences held to discuss the problems of global warming and climate change and to propose mitigation measures. One of these is the Copenhagen conference, which produced the agreement to set up a mechanism to enable the mobilization of financial resources from industrialized and rich countries who contribute a major part of the carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions to the atmosphere (Mustalahti & Rakotonarivo 2014).

At the Copenhagen conference, the world leaders had set aspirational goal of limiting global temperature increase to 2 degrees Celsius; a process for countries to enter their specific mitigation pledges by January 31, 2010; broad terms for the reporting and verification of countries' actions; a collective commitment by developed countries for $30 billion in new and additional resources in 2010-2012 to help developing countries reduce emissions, preserve forests, and adapt to climate change (Diringer 2009).

REDD+ as a mechanism is also an effort to create a financial value for the carbon stored in forests, offering incentives for developing countries to reduce emissions from forested lands and invest in low-carbon paths to sustainable development (Mustalahti & Rakotonarivo 2014).

REDD+ is expected to have multifuctionality-effect in gains such as climate change mitigation (reducing the level of CO_2 and other GHGs emissions), a contribution to sustainable development by alleviating poverty and strengthening indigenous people's rights and securing biodiversity (UN-REDD 2015). The mechanism`s activities are meant to serve as an environmental governance reform that would help the poor and enhance the local communities` rights, needs, and responsibilities, thereby allowing them to actively participate in the decision making process (Awono et al. 2014).

However, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (2014), Karsenty (2011), Ribot and Larson (2012) argue that governance failures, such as corruption and elite capture may cause risks to the rural communities` livelihoods in terms of access to benefits of natural resources, especially when there is a lack of effective participation of local communities. Karsenty (2011), further argues that REDD+ could threaten the lives of the local poor communities if certain conditions are not fulfilled. The conditions include secured land tenure reform, benefit-sharing arrangements, equity and decentralization in forest resource management, leading to more responsibility for rural dwellers (Karsenty 2011).

Developing countries can play an important role in the large-scale climate change mitigation effort from the global community. Studies conducted indicate that there is little recognition of the role of local communities in the implementation process of projects like REDD+ in Sub Sahara Africa (Awono et al. 2014). Nevertheless, progress has been accounted in some countries like Tanzania where local communities and indigenous people have rarely enjoyed official control over state and forest use (Lawlor et al 2010 as cited in Awono et al. 2014).

Tanzania is one of the African states, where REDD+ pilot projects have been implemented. As part of its contribution to the global climate changes mitigation efforts, the government of Norway funded nine REDD+ pilot projects in Tanzania. Eight of these nine pilot projects were implemented in mainland Tanzania while the ninth one was on the Island of Zanzibar (Deloite 2012).

1.1 Objectives and research questions

REDD+ interventions have been designed in such a way to address the needs of the forest dependent communities while mitigating climate change. REDD+ has pro-poor approaches which attempt to improve the lives of the poor forest communities. Special attention is given to the most vulnerable groups such as the women. Studies on REDD+ projects, both in Africa and elsewhere, suggest the importance of local community participation in the decision making process in order to increase the benefits to the poor as well as the legitimacy and sustainability of the projects (Dyngeland et al. 2014; Fernanda Gebara 2013). Nevertheless, there are growing concerns that conflicts and inequalities may arise in cases of governance and institutional failures such as corruption and possible elite captures in REDD+ intervention areas (Awono et al. 2014).

Based on the above, the overall objective of this research was to investigate the potential for equitable benefit sharing of future REDD+ revenues in Zanzibar. This is done by in particular exploring the following research questions:

1) The establishment of JUMIJAZA:
    a. What are the reasons given for the establishment of JUMIJAZA?
    b. What were the processes behind the establishment of JUMIJAZA?
    c. What is the formal role and set up of JUMIJAZA?

2) The expectations towards benefits from REDD+ in Zanzibar:
    a. How do the various actors in Zanzibar perceive the potential for future REDD+ benefits?
    b. How are REDD+ benefits defined?
    c. How are carbon right holders/REDD+ beneficiaries defined?

3) The role of JUMIJAZA:
    a. What is the potential role of JUMIJAZA to ensure equitable sharing of future benefits from REDD+ in Zanzibar?

1.2 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is organized in the following manner. Chapter two consists of the background of the study, which gives a detailed information on the history of REDD+ in general and in Zanzibar in particular. It also provides an overview of Zanzibar`s forest resources and the community forest management systems in Zanzibar. Furthermore, the chapter describes the REDD+ HIMA project and finally introduces the Community Forests conservation Association of Zanzibar (JUMIJAZA), which is the focus of this thesis.

Chapter three presents the conceptual framework that guided the analysis and discussion of the findings of this study. In this chapter, contextual definitions of the key concepts used in this study are given. Chapter four contains the methodology of the study. It explains about the main research approach employed, the data collection and analysis techniques used, how the entire field work has been accomplished, and ends with the ethical considerations and the limitations of the thesis. Next to the methodology section is the findings and discussion part under chapter five while chapter six concludes the thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 Background of the study

2.1 The history of REDD+

Climate change is increasingly recognized as one of the critical challenges the world is facing today. The debates on how to tackle the problems of climate change have been escalating and still are among the controversial issues discussed in international platforms. There have been many international conferences which resulted in a number of commitments and modalities on how to find a better solution for the world`s climate change (UNFCCC 2008).

In 1997, an international agreement on climate change, known as, the Kyoto Protocol was adopted by both developed and developing nations in Kyoto, Japan. This protocol had put a heavier burden on the developed countries because of their high levels of greenhouse gas emissions into the atmosphere. The developed nations had agreed to reduce their emissions by investing in developing countries through the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) as a way of mitigating climate change. The CDM was designed to promote afforestation and reforestation projects in developing countries so that the greenhouse gas emissions from the developed countries would have been offset (UNFCCC 2008).

However, some equatorial rainforest countries led by Papua New Guinea and Costa Rica claimed that the afforestation and reforestation projects of the Clean Development Mechanism were not sufficient strategies to combat climate change. They wanted the inclusion of additional strategies to reduce deforestation. At the UNFCCC`s COP 11th held in 2005 in Montreal, Canada, Papua New Guinea and Costa Rica submitted a proposal entitled Reducing Emissions from Deforestation in developing countries (RED). The proposal got widespread support, from not only the developing nations, but also from developed countries, NGOs and donors (Abidin 2015). It was in this conference from the idea of Reducing Emissions from Avoided Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD) first appeared and became prominent (Mustalahti & Rakotonarivo 2014).During the following two years, different parties and observers submitted proposals and recommendations on how to use REDD projects to the Subsidiary Body on Scientific and Technical Advice (SBSTA). In consideration of these proposals and recommendations, in 2007, at the 13th COP in Bali, the parties had reached an agreement with action points. The action points included the

importance of carbon reductions from deforestation and forest degradation (REDD) (Mustalahti et al. 2012).

In 2008, new topics such as forest conservation, sustainable management of forests and the enhancement of forest carbon stocks, in developing countries became part of the REDD agenda at the UNFCCC meeting, in Poznan. The inclusion of these new areas into the previous negotiations introduced the concept of REDD-plus or REDD+(UNFCCC 2010). In 2009, the 15th session of the COP took place in Copenhagen, Denmark. From this conference, the parties acknowledged REDD+ as a mechanism that could play an important role in the climate change mitigation efforts. They also recognized the need to establish a framework for carbon emission reductions, which includes REDD+. From then on, REDD+ started to be used by the international community as a new alternative tool against climate change (UN-REDD 2010).

Reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation (REDD+), as a mechanism, still remains one of the latest international efforts to solve climate change and is negotiated under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) (Pistorius 2012). [1]The plus (+) sign makes it to go beyond simply deforestation and forest degradation, and addresses the role of conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks. Its implementation approach is to create a financial value for the carbon stored in forests by offering incentives for developing countries to reduce emissions from forested lands and invest in low-carbon paths to sustainable development (UN-REDD 2015).

2.2 REDD+ in Zanzibar

Zanzibar is part of the United Republic of Tanzania (UTR) but is administered by an autonomous government. Zanzibar consists of two major islands, Unguja and Pemba. In addition to the two main islands, there are also about 50 small islets which surround Unguja and Pemba (J.Hamad 2009). The islands lie in a north-to south direction from 4˚50'S to 6˚30'S and in east-west direction from 39˚10'E to 39˚50'E and between 30 to 50 km off the shore of the Tanzanian mainland in East Africa (J.Hamad 2009; Silima 2010). The islands cover a total

[1] + = conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks.

land area of 2, 654 km2. Unguja covers 1,666 km2 and Pemba covers 988 km2 (DoE 2010). Figure 1 below shows the geographical location of Zanzibar and its surrounding areas.

In response to the increasing risks of the global climate changes, which have often threatened sustainable livelihoods and economic development, the government of Norway launched an International Climate and Forest Initiative in 2008, with a global commitment of up to NOK three billion annually towards REDD+ efforts at international and national levels (Cordero Salas 2014). Tanzania was among the tropical countries targeted for the implementation of the large-scale climate change mitigation efforts from the global community (Awono et al. 2014). As a result of this, in April 2008, Norway and Tanzania signed a Letter of Intent on a Climate Change Partnership. The priorities of this collaboration between the two governments were assisting REDD+ pilot operations in the field, capacity building, national strategy development and implementation. The two parties had jointly agreed to support a number of initiatives, including nine NGO REDD+ pilot project. Eight of the nine pilot projects were implemented in mainland Tanzania while the ninth one was in Zanzibar (Deloite 2012).

During the initial process, Zanzibar was not well represented in REDD+ negotiations, research, or agreements in Tanzania. However, Zanzibar was included and got its representative at the national REDD+ Task Force as the mechanism`s development strengthened and expanded. As a result of this, the [2]`Isles` got only one REDD+ pilot project (Andersen 2012). This REDD+ pilot project named HIMA project, in Ksiwahili, Hifadhi ya Misitu ya Asiali', meaning Conservation of Natural Forest lasted for four years. It began in April, 2010 and ended in December, 2014. The project was implemented in both Unguja and Pemba islands. As will be elaborated in section (2.5), the objective of the project was to pilot and test pro-poor Community Forest Management (COFM) and REDD+ over 27,650 ha of forest, comprised of 22,650 ha of upland forest and 5,000 ha of mangrove forest on Unguja and Pemba Islands. The project also intended to successfully scale-up COFM and REDD+ approaches in at least 60,000 ha of forest in Zanzibar beyond the pilot phase (CARE & JUMIJAZA 2014).

[2] Isles = Unguja and Pemba

Figure 1. Location of Zanzibar

Source: Department of Environment of Zanzibar, 2009

2.3 Forest Resources of Zanzibar

Zanzibar has a variety of natural forests which can generally be categorized as high forests, coral rag thickets and mangrove forest patches (Silima 2010; Zanzinet 2004). Mangroves are one of the most beneficial forest resources in Zanzibar, and provide high quality construction materials and firewood. Mangroves also protect seashores against waves and help the

sedimentary stability of the coasts, and provide important breeding sites for fish and other marine animals (Terra-Global 2010).

As other coastal forests, the forests of Zanzibar harbour a high number of endemics and thus make the Isles to be regarded as an important part of the global biodiversity hotspots and the Eastern Africa Coastal Forests Ecoregion. The most significant endemic plant species and subspecies within the Zanzibar forests include *Aloe pembana, Erica mafiensis* and *Dypis pembana*(Silima 2010; Terra-Global 2010).

Besides the hardwood species and bushes which are the main sources of the construction materials and firewood (economical advantages), there are other natural forest in Zanzibar which could have another significance. For example, the beauty of Zanzibar is contributed by a variety of palm species such as Coconut (*Cocos nucifera*), *Areca catechu* (**Mpopoo**), *Elaeis guneensis* (**Mchikichi**), Raffia palm or *Raphia farinifera* (**Muwale**), *Phoenix reclinata* (**Ukindu**), and many more. There are also many species of medicinal significance, some with ornamental value, and others available for a multitude of uses (Zanzinet 2004).

As in most developing nations, forests in Zanzibar play a significant role in serving the welfare of the state and its citizens, preserving the stability of the landscape and environmental stability. Forests in Zanzibar contribute to the national revenues and provide subsistence living to many poor individual households. Besides being a source of supply of building materials, energy and other subsistence living, forests are also important factor for ecological balance. Forests provide habitat for numerous faunal and floral species, check soil erosion, absorb the carbon dioxide and purify the air, protect the ground and surface waters, provide opportunities for recreation for local and foreigners, as intangibles (Kombo 2010; Silima 2010).

Despite their significance to the state of Zanzibar and its citizens, forest resources are facing a serious exploitation pressure. According to Leskinen and Silima (1993), out of 98,329 ha of coral rag forest about 530 hectares are cleared or destroyed each year. For instance, coral rag forests and mangroves are heavily exploited to meet the high demand for poles, fuel and non-wood products (Kombo 2010). Both Terra-Global (2010) and Kombo (2010) agree that the current drivers of deforestation include: shifting cultivation for

agriculture and fuelwood extraction, fuelwood gathering, charcoal, conversion to settlements, human-caused wild fires, and timber for local use in construction, furniture, and boat building. As the population in Zanzibar continues to grow, the number of people relying on charcoal and firewood as their main source of energy for cooking will also increase.As a result of this, deforestation rates are expected to increase (Terra-Global 2010).

2.4 Community Forest Management in Zanzibar

Community Forest Management (CFM) consists of a range of efforts designed to involve people who live in and around forests in forest management decisions (Molnar et al. 2011). By allowing local communities to participate in matters concerning to forests, CFMs are expected to help conserve biodiversity and ecosystem services and contribute to poverty reduction and economic development (Bowler et al. 2010).

Zanzibar's Forest Policy and the Poverty Reduction Strategy (also known as MKUZA in Kiswahili) reflect the need for Community Forest Management (COFM) to combat deforestation and reduce poverty (CARE 2010). According to the national forest policy of Zanzibar, the goal of the policy was derived from the principles of sustainability and welfare of the people. It reads as "Protect, conserve and develop forest resources for the social, economic and environmental benefit of the present and future generations of the people of Zanzibar"(RGZ 1999, p2). Specifically, Zanzibar`s Forest Resources Management and Conservation Act no. 10 of 1996 (34 & 35) states that "the purposes of Community forest Management Areas are to give local communities or groups with a means of acquiring clear and secure rights to plan, manage and benefit from local forest resources, on a sustainable basis, in order to help meet local needs, stimulate income generation and economic development, and enhance environmental stability" (RGZ 1996, p32).

Zanzibar has significant forest areas (more than 60,000 ha) that could potentially benefit the local communities if managed through the COFM. As per policy, the COFM basically provides a legal structure for community groups and government to both own and manage forests and woodlands for their own objectives/benefits. However, despite a favorable policy environment for the implementation of pro-poor COFM, deforestation and forest degradation in the community forests is on increase and COFM practices in Zanzibar still remain a challenge (CARE 2010). The implementation of COFMs in Zanzibar has not been

fruitful in both benefiting the local communities and reducing deforestation and forest degradation because of the following reasons:

a) Insecure forest land tenure and less focus on sustainable management and good governance in existing COFM sites

The implementation of COFM in Zanzibar has not gone beyond a few sites. Institutional and forest land tenure arrangements for COFM as well as the roles and responsibilities of various key stakeholders need a thorough review and both have been major stumbling blocks to enhancing the implementation of COFM as a national approach across the islands. The National Forest Management Plan (2009-2020)[3] of Zanzibar states "The uncertainty over land tenure has, to some extent, negatively affected community/farm forestry development. Thus, the Land Tenure Act of 1992 and related legislation aims to address some of these problems, especially the insecurity of tenure by individual farmers and the lack of clarity of community management initiatives through the process of land adjudication (RGZ 1992).

In order to fully engage local communities in forestry activities, it is important to determine and define land ownership. If the communities are not feeling ownership, then it will be difficult to achieve the goals of COFMs. This has resulted in weak implementation of community forestry arrangements and reducing leakage outside the control of both the community and Department of Forestry and Non-Renewable Natural Resources (DFNNR). Women's limited participation in governance structures makes them unable to claim their rights and benefits, and could lead to them being excluded further, as could also happen with the poor. There are varying approaches to COFM in Zanzibar since there is no one officially institutionalized COFM manual derived from legislative guidelines. Adequate institutional arrangements and procedures are required to secure coherent formulation of Community Forest Management Agreements (COFMAs) and their implementation.

b) Inadequate incentives for local communities to engage in COFM

The limited understanding of the potential of COFM and the predominantly conservation oriented COFM approach act as disincentives for communities to engage in forest

[3] Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Environment. 2009. National Forest Management Plan (2009 -2020) of Zanzibar.

management. Opportunities for acknowledging community rights to harvest forest products to meet basic forest product needs, and for forest based income generating/micro-enterprise development have not been captured adequately (CARE 2010). Building and strengthening sustainable utilization principles based on forest resources assessment in all existing and new COFMA sites have the potential to create a strong incentive for communities to engage in the COFM process, as benefits become tangible. In addition, the potential of carbon sequestration adding financial resources through REDD+ carbon finance to COFM has not yet been realized in Zanzibar or in East Africa (CARE 2010).

c) Limited capacity of community-based institutions and local governments to deliver quality forestry support services and influence forest policies

Although Zanzibar has a favorable policy framework for the implementation of pro-poor COFM, this has not yet been fully translated into practice. The understanding that COFM entitles communities to be not only protectors but also decision makers in forest management has to be developed. Forestry support services through the Department of Forestry and None-renewable Natural Resources (DFNNR) and local governments which aimed to introduce COFM as a power sharing strategy needs a new interpretation of the roles and responsibilities of various government actors. Prior to the commencement of the REDD+ pilot project (HIMA), there were 37 Village Conservation Committees (VCCs) on both Unguja and Pemba islands, which have been formed by the villages through facilitation of the DFNNR with support from various projects. Both the VCCs and their umbrella bodies, i.e. Jozani Environmental Conservation Association (JECA); South Environmental and Development Conservation Association (SEDCA) in Unguja and Ngezi-Vumawimbi Natural Resources Conservation Organization (NGENARECO) in Pemba Islands suffered from low capacity to deliver forest extension and advocacy services. For example, women were represented on VCCs and the umbrella bodies, but their culture had prohibited them from speaking out and challenging male dominated norms.

The bodies (JECA, SEDCA & NGENARECO) also had not enough capacity to protect and promote the rights and interests of local forest users, particularly women, to become agenda setting actors and, hence, influence policy formulation and implementation both at local and national levels. Consequently, local communities have little information on their rights under the existing forest policy and a ‘common voice’

and mechanism to demand their forest rights and to hold government and other service providers accountable.

d) Weak communication and limited access to information and experience sharing among COFM practitioners and policy makers

Despite a good number of experiences in Zanzibar and mainland Tanzania, the lessons learned have not always been shared and valuable information remained dormant. A platform for COFM learning and experience sharing does not exist in Zanzibar preventing the scaling-up of COFM.

e) Heavy dependence of Zanzibari population on forest goods and services

Over 90% of population in Zanzibar (both rural and urban) depends heavily on traditional biomass fuels (charcoal and firewood) as their main source of energy for cooking (Magessa 2008). The 2007 energy balance survey indicated that 95% of the energy sources came from biomass, with petroleum products contributing 3% and electricity 2%, while demand for wood fuel in Zanzibar town is about 1.5 million cubic meters per year. The extraction of charcoal and firewood from the forest to meet the growing demands (as the population continues to grow at the rate of 3.2% per annum) and conversion of forest land to agriculture are the root causes of deforestation and degradation in Zanzibar (Magessa 2008). MKUZA confirms that the scarcity of reliable, affordable and efficient energy services in Zanzibar is increasingly becoming a constraint for implementing development programs. Improved forest management, on-farm tree planting for charcoal and firewood supply, and a household energy switch from charcoal/firewood to other alternative sources, particularly in urban and peri-urban areas, can provide long lasting potential remedies to the problem.

2.5 The REDD+ HIMA Project

Zanzibar`s natural forests continued to experience high rates of deforestation and degradation due to the poor performances of the COFMs. As mentioned in section (2.2), Zanzibar received one of the nine REDD+ pilot projects in Tanzania. The HIMA project, in Ksiwahili, Hifadhi ya Misitu ya Asiali', meaning Conservation of Natural Forest was a four year REDD+ pilot project implemented in Zanzibar between April 2010 and December 2014 by CARE International in collaboration with Department of Forestry and Non-renewable Natural

Resources (DFNNR), the US-based company Terra Global Consulting (Terra), the department of environment (DoE) of Zanzibar as well as three community forestry NGOs / CBOs- JECA,SEDCA and NGENARECO (Deloite 2012; NIRAS 2015).

CARE International, one of the nine NGOs engaged in piloting REDD+ projects in Tanzania, led the implementation HIMA in Zanzibar. On March 24, 2010, The Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) and CARE Internation in Tanzania had signed a contract which granted financial assistance not exceeding NOK 38.78 million to implement HIMA (CARE & JUMIJAZA 2014).The central approach of the project was the promotion of forest protection in 45 decentralized community forest management areas (COFMAs) and the creation of alternatives to overconsumption of, and dependency on forest products for local livelihoods (NIRAS 2015; Terra-Global 2010).

2.5.1 The scope of HIMA project

HIMA project covered 29 sites in seven districts of Unguja (South Unguja, North B Unguja and Central Unguja districts) and Pemba (Wete, Micheweni, Chake Chake and Mkoani districts) islands, Zanzibar. The project intended to enhance the progress achieved thus far in developing sustainable community forest management programs in Zanzibar. In order to test pro-poor COFM and REDD+, it targeted 27,650 ha of forest (22,650 ha of upland forest and 5,000 ha of mangrove forest) (Deloite 2012). The project also aimed to scale up a successful COFM and REDD+ approaches in at least 60,000 ha of forest in Zanzibar beyond the pilot phase (CARE 2010).

2.5.2 Partners of HIMA project and their responsibilities

During the implementation of the project, CARE International had worked closely with a number of institutions.The partners were the DFNNR, the DoE, Terra Global Capital and three local organizations- JECA, SEDCA and NGENARECO (Andersen 2012; CARE 2010; Deloite 2012). The following section contains a little account of each of these partners.

a) Department of Forestry and Non-Renewable Natural Resources (DFNNR)

The project was implemented in strong partnership with the DFNNR, which works under the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Environment in Zanzibar. It is a regulatory body responsible for the development of the forestry sector and advises the government on all

matters related to forest resources management, formulation of forest policies, implementation and enacting forestry laws. In 1995, DFNNR developed the National Forest Policy and in the subsequent year enacted the new Forest Legislation which altogether provided directives and legal backing for the active participation of local communities and civil societies to engage in the management of forest resources in Zanzibar (RGZ 1996).

In HIMA project, DFNNR had a number of important roles including responding to needs for national level policy and legislative change, facilitating COFMAs to include the development of new and the review of existing COFMAs to make them gender sensitive and pro-poor, supporting leakage control measures, participating and helping carbon baseline and monitoring, building the capacity of the umbrella organizations of VCCs.

b) Department of Environment (DoE)

The Department of Environment (DoE) under the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Environment in Zanzibar advises the government on all matters related to environmental conservation, management and services and is also responsible for formulating policies, including REDD+ policies (DoE 2010). The responsibilities of DoE in the implementation of HIMA were setting REDD+ priorities for Zanzibar, as well as formulation of REDD+ policies utilizing experiences and knowledge generated by HIMA Project; creating greater public awareness of REDD+ policies, standards and procedures; participation in monitoring and evaluation of REDD+ initiatives.

c) Terra Global Capital

In close collaboration with Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA), Institute of Resource Assessment (IRA), DFNNR and DoE, the role of Terra Global was to provide support for carbon development and monetization of carbon credits from the project. The specific technical assistance provided by Terra Global includes:

- Carbon feasibility assessment for the project under the Voluntary Carbon Standard (VCS)
- Development of the required REDD+ methodology for the VCS
- Preparation of the VCS project document (PD), including all remote sensing analysis and carbon modeling
- Support for monitoring requirements under the VCS

- Input on mechanisms for income distribution
- Carbon monetization including; carbon rights transfer, in-country carbon contacts, financial proformas, and marketing of carbon credits
- Capacity building of local partner organizations, notably the DFNNR, DoE, SUA and IRA

d) The Local umbrella organizations of VCCs

There were three subsidiary partners who worked with CARE International and the DFNNR throughout the implementation of HIMA. These three umbrella organizations- JECA, NGENARECO and SEDCA were established by DFNNR with CARE facilitation during the implementation of previous projects in Zanzibar. These organizations had a history of working relationships with CARE and DFNNR and their set up gave ideal conditions for HIMA project, as they were established intermediaries between the Government of Zanzibar (GoZ) and communities. These organizations were close to the communities due to their composition of elected village representatives through the VCCs. They had a well-established working relationship with the DFNNR and participated actively throughout the design process of the project, having a commitment to COFM principles.

Among the three organizations, JECA had an experience in dealing with the equitable distribution of benefits from the management of Jozani Chwaka Bay National Park and received small grants from various sources to facilitate livelihood support projects at community level, and also community capacity building activities. NGENARECO supported the implementation of COFMAs in Pemba in collaboration with DFNNR, and they also worked with CARE in facilitating processes for supporting women and girls. In HIMA, NGENARECO gave support for the development of new COFMAs for Pemba, conducted community level capacity building work and capitalized on gender mainstreaming experiences to input into COFMA development processes and benefit sharing. Another important partner in the HIMA project was the non-governmental organization of the South Environment Development Conservation Association (SEDCA). SEDCA cooperated with CARE, and was part of the HIMA project in the same way JECA was and received funding through the project.

2.5.3 Goal, Purpose and Outputs of HIMA project

Goal

The goal of the project was to reduce greenhouse gas emissions from deforestation and forest degradation in Zanzibar, and generate carbon income which would provide direct and equitable incentives to communities to conserve forests in a sustainable manner.

Purpose

The purpose of the project was to promote a pro-poor and gender equitable approach to community forest management in Zanzibar, including the piloting of carbon financing for Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and forest degradation, which would in turn provide forest-dependent communities with secure property rights, equitable rewards for ecosystem services and other livelihood benefits.

Outputs

In order to achieve the goal and purpose of the project, HIMA had planned to deliver five outputs. The following table will summarize these five outputs with their related activities.

Table 1: Summary of HIMA outputs and activities

Output #	Indicator
1: 12 new Community Forest Management Agreements (CoFMA s) developed (covering 10,650 ha of forest area) and 17 existing CoFMA s (covering 17,000 ha forest area) reviewed and improved through the development and application of effective and equitable COFM strategies.	1.1: Conduct priority REDD-COFM studies in Zanzibar, including in-depth analysis of relevant existing policies, legal and institutional arrangements. 1.2: Develop pro-poor gender sensitive COFMA manu for Zanzibar 1.3:Undertake review of 17 existing COFMAs with the objective of making them more sustainable, pro-poor and gender sensitive. 1.4: Develop COFMAs for 12 new sites covering 5,650 ha of upland and 5,000 ha of mangrove forests.

	1.5: Clarify and formalize land and forest tenure arrangements for women and men in the communities undertaking pro-poor COFM. 1.6: Develop scaling-up plan/strategies to scale-up COFM and REDD program across Zanzibar and beyond.
2: Strengthen DFNNR, DOE and other relevant government institutions and CSO/local NGO's REDD+ and climate change capacities.	2.1: Undertake gender differentiated institutional capacity assessment of DFNNR, DoE and selected local government institutions. 2.2: Support and facilitate selected DFNNR and DoE staff (men and women) to attain relevant academic training courses related to COFM and REDD+. 2.3: Conduct training courses for men and women in DFNNR, DoE and selected local government institutions. 2.4: Support establishment of 'REDD Unit/Cell' within DFNNR. 2.5: Strengthen capacity of community based institutions to manage carbon derived financial transactions.

3: VCS and CCBA validation secured and marketing arrangements developed based on national aggregation that maximizes benefits to men and women in the communities whilst ensuring environmental integrity.	3.1: Plan for, and conduct baseline and biomass inventory to establish forest carbon and emission baseline, including impact of climate change and its implications for Zanzibar. 3.2: Develop carbon feasibility assessment for target project areas to determine eligibility under VCS and CCB and provide input into the final project design. 3.3: Collect in-country data and perform analysis for development and validation of the Project Documents (PDs) under the VCS and CCB. 3.4: Identify and establish an appropriate aggregation entity and assist it to development management experience to support project oversight and sales of carbon. 3.5: Manage VCS and CCB validation and marketing of credits to international buyers on behalf of the aggregation entity (seller)

4: Replicable, equitable and cost effective measures to reduce degradation and deforestation and to control leakage designed and implemented.	4.1: Conduct an assessment of forest resource use by women and men in target communities, including leakage risk assessment. 4.2: Support establishment of woodlots, on farm tree planting, and agroforestry to reduce leakage. 4.3: Identify and support sustainable gender sensitive income generating activities/micro-enterprises that increase revenue to local forest users (women and men) and have the potential to reduce leakage.
5: Monitoring, evaluation, documentation and advocacy processes supported, with particular emphasis on social equity, and experience/lessons disseminated to a wider audience.	5.1: Design and implement a gender/well being sensitive project M&E system. 5.2: Design and implement gender analysis and social impact assessment to assess impacts of COFM and REDD+. 5.3: Conduct a carbon value chain analysis to identify value accruing to different actors/stakeholders and opportunities to increase benefits to men and women in the communities.

Source: HIMA – piloting REDD+ in Zanzibar through Community Forest Management, 2010.

2.5.4 The relevance of the HIMA project for building national and local REDD+ readiness in Zanzibar

The four years piloting phase of HIMA project ended in December, 2014. As mentioned in section (2.5.1), the project aimed to cut greenhouse gas emissions from deforestation and forest degradation and generate carbon income as direct incentives to communities to conserve forests for future generations. Furthermore, the project had to go beyond the piloting phase and lay the foundation for national and local REDD+ readiness in Zanzibar.The project operated on both islands by working with different stakeholders ranging from government to

local communities, and created at the end of the four-year period a carbon project to sell verified carbon units (VCU) on the international market.Terra Global, based on its role as a partner in the HIMA project,conducted the preparation of the carbon project description (PD) according to the verified carbon standard (VCS) and climate community and biodiversity (CCB) standard (NIRAS 2015; Terra-Global 2010).

HIMA was relevant and has contributed to building REDD+ readiness in Zanzibar. The project had implemented a number of significant activities. The protection of forest areas adjacent to communities as well as the creation of alternative sources for wood was relevant for reducing carbon emissions in Zanzibar. Furthermore, testing the distribution of incentive cash benefits to the communities through the aggregate entity JUMIJAZA , the engagement and capacity building of NGOs, Shehia conservation committees (SCC), DFNNR and the establishment of COFMA aggregate unit JUMIJAZA (*Jumuiya ya uhifadhi wa misitu ya jamii Zanzibar)* were also relevant for the preparation and readiness to work on REDD+ issues in Zanzibar (NIRAS 2015).

2.6 The Community Forests Conservation Association of Zanzibar (JUMIJAZA)

The Community Forests Conservation Association of Zanzibar, in Kiswahili Jumuiya ya uhifadhi wa Misitu wa Jamii Zanzibar, abbreviated as JUMIJAZA, is an umbrella organization established in 2013 (JUMIJAZA 2013b). It is an Aggregate entity composed of the various SCCs in Unguja and Pemba. The idea to set up JUMIJAZA came as a result of the question "which institution should be responsible for the management of potential REDD+ carbon credit business in Zanzibar after HIMA phases out?".

CARE International, with its long experience in implementing HIMA and other related projects, had found out the need to establish an umbrella organization that could unite the efforts of the various SCCs which were scattered and difficult for coordination (CARE & JUMIJAZA 2014). CARE believed that such aggregate could manage potential REDD+ carbon credit business better than any other institution as it consisted of the various SCCs. In addition to this, the communities in the Shehias were confident in having an institution that represents them (CARE 2010; CARE 2013; JUMIJAZA 2013b).

As the popularity of the idea got stronger, CARE organized a number of conferences in which representatives of the different stakeholders of the project attended. Representatives from the SCCs, CARE staffs, staffs from DFNNR and members of the three local NGOs were present at these

conferences. After long discussions and debates the delegates from the SCCs elected the general assembly and executive committee of JUMIJAZA (JUMIJAZA 2013b).

2.6.1 Legal Identity

JUMIJAZA, as umbrella NGO, is legally registered under Zanzibar`s civil society act of 1995,and has its own constitution approved in Sepember, 2013(CARE 2013). In addition to this, JUMIJAZA has a formal legal recognition in the REDD+ Agreement entitled "Agreement for the Carbon Development, Carbon Rights and Benefits Sharing with Respect to Emission Reductions for the HIMA REDD+ in Community Forest Management Areas, Zanzibar". This agreement has been signed by the DFNNR, JUMIJAZA, CARE and Terra Global Capital and provided the aggregate entity with a legal documentation indicating that the project has been undertaken with the full consent of the carbon owners. In this agreement, the DFNNR, on behalf of the Government, had agreed to transfer and assign all emission reductions generated from the project to the JUMIJAZA. The responsibilties transferred included the sales of those credits, the management and the distribution of the revenue from carbon credit sales (Terra-Global 2010).

2.6.2 Objectives

JUMIJAZA, as an aggregate unit under which all the various VCCs are united, has many responsibilities and duties to fulfill. Hence, the umbrella has set a number of objectives it strives to achieve.

(a) Play a leading role to coordinate and represent Shehia Conservation Committees (SCCs) and communities in all forest conservation development related matters, including carbon credit development, forest management, alternative livelihoods and other best conservation practices.

(b) Promote cooperation and mutual goodwill among forest dependent communities through sharing of experience.

(c) Encourage proper utilization and equitable distribution of resource available from community forests to improve the socioeconomic condition of deprived sections of the community and

(d) Coordinate with Government agencies and other different non-governmental organizations, to establish networks among interest groups and to promote interrelationship between SCCs and related institutions.

2.6.3 Organizational Structure

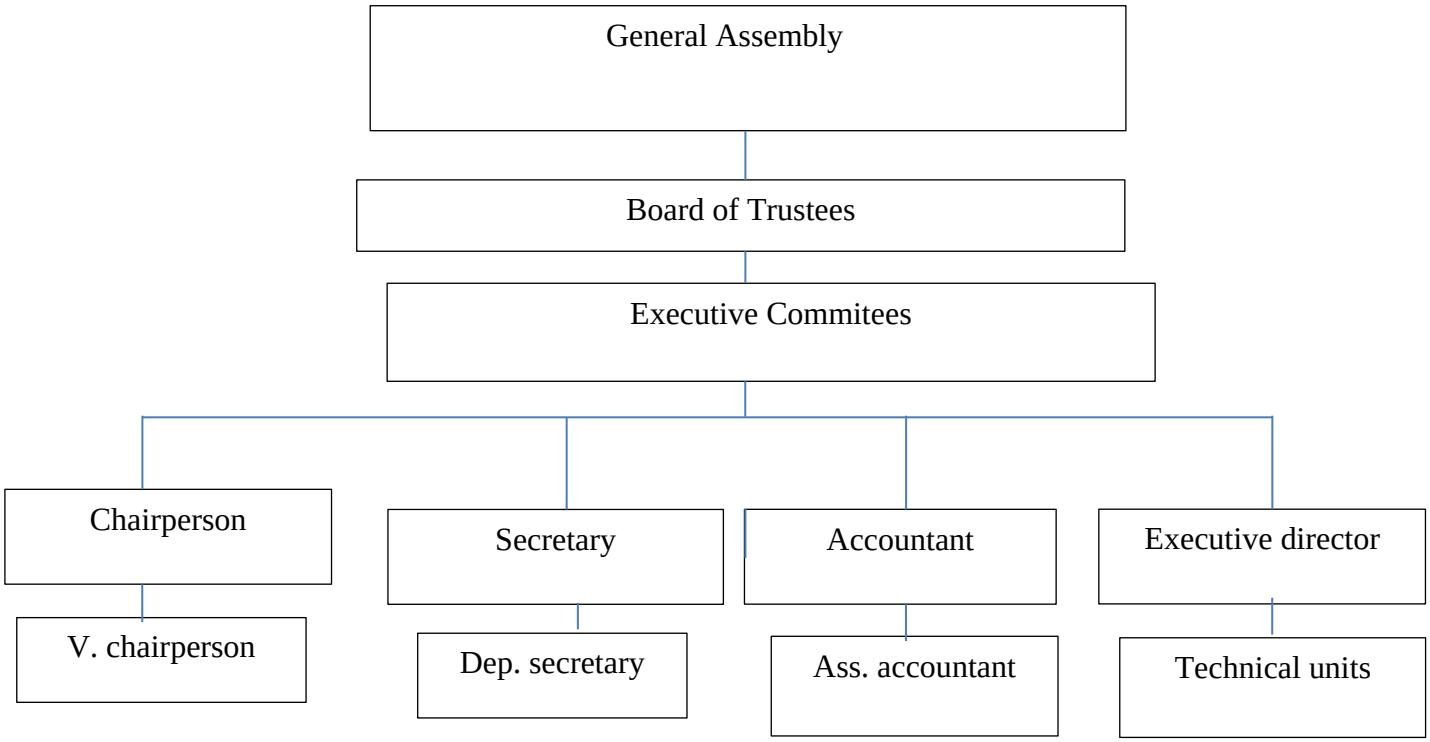
According to its constitution, JUMIJAZA, as shown in the figure below, is supposed to have three organs: The General Assembly consisting of elected representatives (one from each Shehia conservation committee), a Board of Trustee composed of three to five persons elected by the general assembly and nine Executive Committee members. The executive members are the chairperson; the vice chairperson; secretary; deputy secretary; accountant; assistant accountant; executive director and heads of technical units (JUMIJAZA 2013a).

Currently, the chairperson; the vice chairperson; secretary; deputy secretary; accountant; and assistant accountant are fully functioning while the executive director and the technical unit staff have not been recruited due to lack of budget. The executive director will work under the guidance of the executive committee and he/she, based on terms of references provided, will be responsible for the general and active management of the affairs of JUMIJAZA, including the provision technical advice on all matters related to carbon marketing (JUMIJAZA 2013a).

The general assembly is responsible for electing the leadership of JUMIJAZA, the members of the board of trustees, approving budgets, annual activity and audit reports. In addition to this, the general assembly approves the annual programme plan and budget of JUMIJAZA, the vision, mission, policy, strategic plan and future programmes. It has also the mandate to amend and revise the constitution of JUMIJAZA as per requirement.

The core responsibilities of the board of trustees include developing JUMIJAZA`s vision, mission, policy, ad strategic plans. The board is also in charge of supervising all policy related issues and technically assisting in fund raising activities. Furthermore,the board will strengthen the public relations with other relevant organizations and provide advice to the members of the executive committee on carbon sales transactions (JUMIJAZA 2013a).

Figure 2: Organogram of JUMIJAZA



Source: The constitution of JUMIJAZA, 2013

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter presents and defines the central concepts that guided the analysis and discussion of the findings in this thesis. I used a grounded theory approach (see section 4.4) for analyzing the data I collected in this study. Hence, I segmented and coded the raw data. After coding, I identified four central concepts as relevant and suitable for guiding the analysis and discussion of the findings in the later stages of the thesis: (1) Representation; (2) Legitimacy; (3) Equitable benefit sharing and (4) Carbon rights holders. In addition to these, in the context of this study and throughout the findings and discussion chapter, I used certain concepts interchangeably. For example, local community is the same as SCCs and the concepts organization, umbrella, institution and entity are the same and intended to describe JUMIJAZA.

3.1 Representation

The concept of representation has multiple definitions in the social science literatures. There is no one agreed upon definition of the term among the scholars. Each one defines the term and gives his/her meaning by applying it to some specific context or situation. The Oxford English dictionary defines the term as `the action of speaking or acting on behalf of someone or the state of being so represented.

However, in the literatures concerning the involvement of the public in the decision making process, representation is popularly conceptualized based on its desired objectives.The consensus, here, is that the type of representation that is desired can be attained if the values, attitudes, and socioeconomic characteristics of those involved in the public involvement process(the representatives) correspond to those of the general public(those who are represented) (Wellstead et al. 2003).

Beckley (1999), for example, believes that those who are in charge of public offices should be the representatives of the desired target population, the most vulnerable and needy groups of the general population. Furthermore, other researchers have also emphasized the importance for a direct correspondence between public involvement processes and representation while Knopp and Caldbeck (1990), on their part, expressed their doubt on the

reliability of the relationship between the representatives and those represented. They stated that "it is not enough to assume that volunteer organizations or public interest groups will adequately or fairly represent the total spectrum of public values"(Knopp & Caldbeck 1990, p15).

The involvement of local communities in the decision making processes on issues affecting their lives, such as forest management, has become prevalent in many parts of the developing countries. The local community involvement takes place through community forest management (CFM) initiatives which consists of efforts to involve people who live in and around forests in forest management decisions (Bowler et al. 2010).

In the last two decades, there has been a paradigm shift in conservation and natural resource management (NRM) away from direct state control towards approaches in which local people play a much more active role (Shackleton et al. 2002). These reforms have been supposedly intended to increase resource user participation in NRM decisions and benefits by restructuring the power relations between the central state and communities through the transfer of management authority to local-level organizations (Bowler et al. 2010; Shackleton et al. 2002). Academicians, environmentalists, and some funding organizations have been forwarding the importance of local community involvement in the protection and management of their natural resources such as forests (Agrawal & Angelsen 2009; UNFCCC 2010).(Agrawal & Angelsen 2009, p1), said "Who can manage forests better than those living within or beside them? ".

This continued advocacy has pushed governments, especially in the developing countries to introduce decentralization policies, and acknowledge the involvement of the local communities in the management of mechanisms such as REDD+. The increased recognition of the local community involvement has made concepts such representation to be relevant in the areas of natural resources management. In order to be involved communities needed to have representatives who could act on behalf of them.

3.2 Legitimacy

The term legitimacy is used in many different ways to refer to very different situations. The ways the term is used varies across disciplines. Thus giving one standard definition is difficult and can make the concept more elusive (Dugan 2004). In political sciences, the concept of

legitimacy is defined as the right to rule, or the right to govern (Coicaud 2002). In law, legitimacy is defined as the condition of being in accordance with law or principle, i.e, legitimacy is the same as lawful (Daniel et al. 2007). On his part, Mark Suchman defined legitimacy as "a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions" (Suchman 1995, p574).

Normally, the concept legitimacy is used to question the legitimacy of a political entity, its leaders or spokespersons, its policies, laws, or procedures (Coicaud 2002). Reus (1999), however, stated that it can also be applied to institutions and social orders in order to describe them as legitimate or illegitimate so long such institutions have their organizational structures. In the discussion (section 5.1) of this study, I will use the above given definitions of the term legitimacy as operationalized definitions and apply to JUMIJAZA so as to assess its legitimacy or illegitimacy.

3.3 Equitable Benefit Sharing

It is widely acknowledged that the conservation of tropical forests cannot be achieved without the provision of incentives and support to the countries that host these forests and the people whose livelihoods depend on them (Wollenberg & Springate 2009). There is also a widespread consensus that mechanisms such as REDD+ which pay incentives can substantially increase benefit flows to forest users (Agrawal & Angelsen 2009).

The central principle underlying REDD+ is the transfer of large financial incentives from the developed to the developing countries to reduce deforestation and forest degradation. The scale of the benefits normally depends on the rates of reduction in deforestation and forest degradation; in this regard, REDD+ can give large financial benefits to the developing tropical countries (Fernanda Gebara 2013).However, in the implementation of REDD+, the main challenge has always been how these benefits are to be distributed (Vatn & Vedeld 2011). There are those who fear that the benefits may not be equitably shared between stakeholders and that the poor people with less power in the benefit sharing decision making processes could be excluded (Costenbader 2009; Griffiths 2008).

Peskett et al. (2008) and Griffiths (2008) on their part, have underlined the importance of equity in the benefit sharing mechanisms in REDD+. They further highlighted that equity in benefit sharing could be realized through effective local participation in the process of formulating and implementing benefits. However, despite concerns raised in the literature about the impact of benefit sharing mechanisms for the successfulness of REDD+, as reflected in overall reductions in deforestation, there is no consensus on how to make benefit sharing mechanisms more equitable (Fernanda Gebara 2013). Likewise, there is no clear understanding of what benefit sharing mechanisms entail, the kinds of benefits they will deliver and the processes by which they will deliver them (Fernanda Gebara 2013).

REDD+ Benefits

As stated by Chapman and Wilder (2014), the two types of benefits (carbon and non-carbon) which comes from the implementation of REDD+ are provided in the form of payments. For the carbon benefits, for example, a buyer will pay to a seller for the emissions reductions achieved through REDD+ implementation while in the case of non-carbon benefits, an individual or community might be compensated for the opportunity cost for directly participating in REDD+ implementation. Financial benefits can be monetary or 'in kind.' For example, a REDD+ payment could be made to a community, and that payment is used to build a school, health center, or infrastructure such as a water well (Chapman & Wilder 2014).

The concept of Benefit Sharing

The term 'benefit sharing' currently has many different meanings. For example, some define it as the governance structures and institutions established to gather compensation and rents from the provision of the ecosystem services of carbon sequestration and storage. By combining the meanings of the two words `benefit` and `sharing` from the Oxford English Dictionary, Schroeder has linguistically defined the term as "the action of giving a portion of advantages/profits to others" (Schroeder 2007, p207). In the context of REDD+, benefit sharing has been defined as the distribution of both the monetary and the non-monetary benefits generated through the implementation of REDD+ in an effort to assist the measures required to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation (which is the overarching purpose of REDD+ policy) (Chapman & Wilder 2014).

Each of the above definitions does not help to identify the main underlying issues in benefit sharing, which are necessary in interventions such as REDD+. In the first place, it is not clear what types of benefits need to be shared; how 'legitimate' beneficiaries should be

identified, particularly in cases where deforestation is the result of illegal activities; or how benefit sharing systems can be managed at the various (international, national and community) levels.

Given the ambiguity in the above different meanings of the term benefit sharing, it is necessary to specify what the concept of benefit sharing implies in the context of this study. Throughout this study, which targets on the REDD+ HIMA pilot project in Zanzibar, the term benefit sharing refers to the distribution of both the monetary benefits paid to the project beneficiaries as a trial and the expected carbon benefits from selling sequestered carbon through REDD+ in the future. In addition to this, the term refers to the distribution of the other non monetary benefits such as the small scale irrigation schemes, the beekeeping activities and the like.

The concept of Equity

The concept of equity came from the idea of moral equality, that people should be treated as equals (Jones 2009). Like the other concepts discussed above, there is no one precise meaning of the term of equity. In its broad sense, equity is a normative concept, one which has a long history in religious, cultural and philosophical traditions and is concerned with equality, fairness and social justice (World Bank 2005). Generally, applying the idea of equity seriously could help people determine how to distribute goods and services across society, holding the state accountable for its actions in the way goods and services are distributed, and using this influence to ensure fair treatment for all citizens (Jones 2009).

Equity is a core element in the design and implementation of benefit sharing mechanisms for schemes such as REDD+. A big issue when adding equity into REDD+ schemes is that, in order to meet the additionality criteria, REDD+ must give benefits to the large landowners that are likely to cause most of the emissions from deforestation and forest degradation (Fernanda Gebara 2013). However, applying these ideas in a specific context or country might entail hard choices and deep discussions of distributive justice into domestic political and policy debates. Due to the effects of the various policies, the definitions of equity will thus differ from one REDD+ country to another and also through time (Fernanda Gebara 2013).

Nevertheless, the term equity, as is used in this study, is linked to the benefit sharing activities of the REDD+ HIMA project in Zanzibar which were carried out as a test for

possible potential REDD+. In the analysis section, the study will use equitable benefit sharing as one concept to discuss and see if fairness, equality and social justice, the three pillars of equity, were embedded in the distribution of the trial monetary carbon incentives or if they are expected to be embedded in the future.

3.4 Carbon rights holders

The concept of ‘‘carbon rights’’ is relatively new in the debates surrounding Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD+) although it had already been recognized legally in some countries such as Australia and New Zealand, in the early 2000s (Karsenty et al. 2014).

Despite its legal status in those countries, the term `carbon rights` does not have a single operational definition that can be used across disciplines (Karsenty et al. 2014; Peskett & Brodnig 2010). But, one broad definition of the term might be “carbon rights are intangible assets created by legislative and contractual arrangements that allow the recognition of separate benefits arising from the sequestration of carbon in the biomass” (TCG UN-REDD 2009; Streck and Sullivan, 2007 as cited in Peskett & Brodnig 2010).

Carbon rights are relevant in a REDD+ context because they are closely associated with benefit sharing mechanisms. They can influence and determine the way benefit sharing activities are arranged and potentially also the alignment of incentives with deforestation problems, which will have an impact on the success of REDD+ in enhancing emissions reductions. However, the relevance of carbon rights may vary depending on the specific approaches applied to REDD+ (Peskett & Brodnig 2010). Generally, in the case of REDD+, the meaning of the term ‘carbon rights’ is not fixed. It is used in a number of different ways. For example, it can be used to refer to a tonne of sequestered carbon, the legal right to own that sequestered carbon, or (more broadly) a moral claim to benefit from carbon based payments (Yeang et al. 2014).

As stated by Yeang et al. (2014), for REDD+ and other similar interventions, specifying the ways the carbon rights are used or applied is not sufficient. What is most important is properly deciding who are the right carbon holders- who should benefit from the sale of the carbon sequestered in the forests. Throughout this study, the term carbon right

holders will mean the potential beneficiaries who would benefit from the sale of the carbon sequestered in the forests of Zanzibar in the future.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 METHODOLOGY

4.1 The research approach and justifications

The research approach this study employed is a qualitative research approach. From the various research approaches, qualitative approach was the appropriate method based on the nature of the study as well as the research questions it strived to answer. The overall objective of this study was to investigate the prospective for equitable benefit sharing of future REDD+ revenues in Zanzibar. In particular, the study wanted to explore the perceptions of the various actors of the HIMA project on the potential role of JUMIJAZA to ensure equitable sharing of future benefits from REDD+ in Zanzibar.

In order to achieve this, the researcher needed to use a research approach that would be suitable for capturing, understanding and interpreting different concepts or issues and their underlying meanings. According to Berg and Lune (2012), qualitative research is a research whose central interest is to investigate meanings, concepts, definitions, metaphors and features of things, issues or events (Berg & Lune 2012). Similarly, Bryman (1984) puts qualitative research as a more flexible research that emphasizes discovering novel or unanticipated findings (Bryman 1984). Also Shank (2002) emphasized the usefulness of this approach for digging out hidden meanings. Shank stresses that qualitative research enables the researcher to study subjects in their natural settings and allows him or her to conduct a systematic inquiry into the meanings, attempting to interpret and make sense of phenomena and the meanings that people attribute to them. Furthermore, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) on their part state that because of their multiple data collection techniques such as interviews, observations, field notes, memos, recordings, transcriptions, document copies, e.t.c , qualitative approaches would give the researcher the possibilities to understand multiple perspectives of concepts, issues or situations, and their implicit meanings.

Hence, by referring and carefully reading the above literatures the researcher found out that qualitative research approach was the most suitable method for collecting the required data that would help him in answering the research questions.

4.2 Data collection techniques

After deciding the type of the research approach to use, the researcher had to further decide which data collection techniques to employ. In qualitative research approaches, the researcher has a number of possible data collection techniques from which he or she can choose depending on situations. These techniques include interviews, observations, focus group discussions, self study, ethnography, action research, document reviews e.t.c (Berg & Lune 2012; Denzin & Lincoln 2000). In this study, the researcher used three of these techniques: interviews, focus group discussions and document reviews for collecting his data. Below is a detailed account of each of these techniques.

4.2.1 Selection of informants

There are different sampling techniques, and which techniques to employ is usually subject to the type and characteristics of the research to be conducted (Berg & Lune 2012).This study used non-probability sampling techniques, especially purposive sampling strategy. Purposive sampling strategy is preferred because it provides the researcher with strong theoretical reasons for his/her choice of units (or cases) to be included in their sample.Secondly, It helps the researchers to select a sample of subjects with distinct characterstics and relevant to the research questions to be posed (Bryman 2008). Different from probability sampling, the aim is not to ensure objectivity in the selection of samples, or necessarily try to produce generalizations (i.e., statistical inferences) Instead, the researcher is guided by a research design and is interested in the intricacies of the sample being studied. Whilst making generalizations from the sample to the population under study may be desirable, it is more often a secondary consideration in this case (Bryman 2008).

The informants of this study were the stakeholders of the REDD+ HIMA project in the two islands of Pemba and Unguja in Zanzibar. Here, stakeholders imply those actors directly or indirectly involved in the implementation of the project. These include JUMIJAZA representatives, staff members from CARE, staff members from Zanzibar`s Department of Forestry and Non Renewable Resources, representatives from the three partner NGOs (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO) and members from the Shehia Conservation Committee (SCC) in four villages.The study intentionally selected and interviewed 4 JUMIJAZA members, 3 CARE HIMA project staffs, 3 officials from the Department of Forestry and Non Renewable Resources and 1 representative from each of the three partner NGOs (SEDCA,

JECA and NGENARECO). In addition to this, the researcher conducted 4 focus group interviews with the SCCs in four villages: two from Unguja and two from Pemba.

4.2.2 Individual semi-structured interviews

The research interview is a good data collection method, which is suitable for both qualitative and quantitative researches (Bryman 2004). While a structured interview has a formalized limited set of questions, a semi-structured interview is flexible, and permits to generate new questions during the interview as a result of what the interviewee answers (Bryman 2004). The semi structured interview lays between the two extremes of the completely structured and completely unstructured interviews. The questions used in a semi structured interview are based on the awareness that individuals do not understand the world in the same way; and the researchers, thus seek to approach the world from the subject`s point of view (Berg & Lune 2012).

To practically use the individual semi-structured interview for the study, an interview guide has been developed in order to serve as a guide for the researcher and ensure smooth data collection practices. As planned, the study conducted 13 individual semi-structured interviews (3 DFNRR staffs, 3 CARE staffs, 4 JUMIJAZA members and 3 representatives from each of the local partner NGOs).

The use of the individual semistructured interview helped the researcher to be able to collect useful data. As can bee seen from the interview guide in appendix 5, the questions are the same while the respondents were different in terms of professional, educational, and personal backgrounds. Despite these respondents` variations, the nature of the individual semi-structured interview gave the researcher the opportunities to change the words but not the meaning of the questions in the semistructured interview schedule taking into account that not every word has the same meaning to every respondent and not every respondent uses the same vocabulary (Berg & Lune 2012; Bernard 1988). With the support of the research assistant`s translation from English to Kiswahili language, the researcher made sure that all the non English speaking interviewees had fully understood the questions asked.

4.2.3 Focus group discussions

The focus group technique is a method that allows the researcher to conduct an interview session that involves a group of interviewees (Bryman 2004). According to Bryman (2004), the focus group method is useful to obtain data as the informants freely interact among each other during discussing and debating, and to see how people respond to each other's view rather than just the responses themselves (Bryman 2004). Thus, through this technique the researcher wanted to get an insight on how the Shehia Conservation Committee members see and express their general attitudes in relation to the role that the JUMIJAZA plays in the implementation of the REDD+ HIMA project in Zanzibar. The researcher`s focus was on the potential role that JUMIJAZA could play in possible future REDD+ or similar mechanisms in Zanzibar with special emphasis on equitable benefit sharing practices. What kind of ideas and suggestions they would have for the improvement of the implementation of such mechanisms in their specific locality in general and their attitudes towards JUMIJAZA`s potential role in particular.

For the smooth facilitation of the focus group session, focus group discussion guide has also been developed. The advantage of this guide is that it helps the researcher to lead the discussion and keep the participants focused as the chances to deviate from the main issues are very high when the debates get hotter. However, focus group discussions can vary depending on their level of standardization or in the extent to which they follow a structured protocol or permit discussion to emerge (Asbury 1995; Barbour 2005). In this case, as is shown on the focus group discussion guide in appendix 6, the questions were open enough allowing the respondents to produce a large amount of data that the researcher did not expect. In addition to this, the researcher was able to make comparisons of the data and experiences of the different focus group participants. This comparisons enabled the researcher to know the participants` consensus or diversity of experiences on certain topics.

As per the plan, 4 separate focus group discussions were held with the 4 Shehia Conservation Committee members in four villages: *Kitogani* and *Muyuni C* on Unguja Island and *Changaweni* and *Michenzani* in Pemba Island.

SCC members in focus group discussion at Muyuni C

(*Photo by M.Yakub, 2015*)

SCC members in focus group discussion at Kitogani

(*Photo by M.Yakub, 2015*)

Throughout the data collection process, both English and Kiswahili languages were used. Both the semi-structured interview and focus group discussion guides were written in English. As the researcher did not know Kiswahilli, a research assistant helped in translating the questions into Kiswahilli for the respondents. However, in cases where the informants

were able to hear and speak English such as the staff from CARE and the Department of forestry and Non- Renewable Resources, the support from the research assistant was not needed and the researcher himself conducted the interviews.

4.2.4 Document review

Document review is a way of collecting data by studying existing documents. There are various types of documents. They can be an official public document such as policy documents or specific to a particular organization`s programmes. Documents may be in the form of hard copy or electronic and may include reports, project agreements, performance ratings, funding proposals, meeting minutes, newsletters, and marketing materials (Lusthaus et al. 1999). In qualitative research, the researcher uses document review to complement the data collected through the other data collection techniques such as interviews, observations or focus group discussions (Berg & Lune 2012).

In this study, the researcher, in addition to the above two strategies, had thoroughly reviewed and reflected project and policy documents which were relevant to REDD+ in Zanzibar. The main sources of these documents were offices of JUMIJAZA, CARE International, Department of Forest and Non-Renewable Resources, and the three partner NGOs (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO). As can be seen in appendix 3, the documents referred or reviewed could be categorized into three: Policy documents, Legal documents and Reports. The policy documents were The National Forestry Policy of Zanzibar and The Agricultural Policy of Zanzibar. The legal documents were Contract between the Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA) and CARE International in Tanzania concerning HIMA-piloting REDD in Zanzibar through Community Forest Management, Sub-agreements between CARE International and JUMIJAZA, The Constitution of JUMIJAZA and HIMA Project Proposal. The reports included Tanzania final UN REDD progress report, 2011 UN REDD Annual Report, Midterm Review of Nine NGO REDD+ Pilot Projects in Tanzania and JUMIJAZA Progress Report.

Reviewing documents as a data collection method provided the researcher with important information that enabled him to get access to data which could not be captured in the other data collection techniques. Though the data contained in the documents were broad and detailed, the researcher found them useful to complement and triangulate what the

respondents had said in the semi structured and focus group discussions. Most of the data obtained from these documents were background information that increased the researcher`s understanding, especially on how the REDD+ HIMA project began and ended in Zanzibar.

4.3 The fieldwork

With the help of my study supervisor, I developed a field trip plan. The plan consisted of various tasks in the field and the expected time to accomplish these tasks. The time allocated for this study`s entire field work was 55 days only. The travel from Norway to Zanzibar and back to Norway and the time spent for processing the research permit were included in these 55 days. Hence, the researcher and his research assistant made frequent follow ups at the Zanzibar National Archives, the office to which the researcher was affiliated, so as to push the process of the research permit. Fortunately, the research permit became secured within two weeks, a time shorter than its normal processing time of four weeks. Right after getting the research permit, the researcher started collecting the data, beginning from Unguja Island. In Zanzibar town, 3 JUMAJAZA members, the 3 CARE staffs, and the 3 officials from the DFNRR were interviewed while the representatives from SEDCA and JECA were interviewed in their offices located outside Zanzibar. Then, the researcher travelled to Pemba Island and interviewed the 4th JUMIJAZA member and the representative from NGENARECO.

4.4 Data Analysis

4.4.1 Grounded theory

In analyzing the data collected from this study, I employed grounded theory as a tool of analysis. Grounded theory is one of the general strategies for analyzing qualitative data. It is often described as iterative, meaning there is a repetitive interplay between the collection and analysis of data. In this approach, analysis begins immediately after some of the data have been collected, and this preliminary analysis affects the next steps in the data collection process(Bryman 2012).

Grounded theory, as a qualitative data analysis approach, was first developed by Barney G. Glasser and Anselm L. Strauss in 1967 (Glasser and Strauss, 1967 as cited in Bryman 2012). Initially, the two thinkers had different views on what grounded theory was

intended to do. For Strauss, the purpose of grounded theory was to develop concepts from the data while Glasser claimed that it should generate a theory from the data. However, grounded theory is recently defined as a "theory that was derived from data, systemically gathered and analyzed through the research process" (Bryman 2012, p540)**.**

In grounded theory approach, the raw data will be coded. Coding is reviewing the interview transcripts, and field notes and then breaking down the data contained in them. Then the fragmented data will be examined, conceptualized and categorized. The process of coding will produce concepts which will be grouped and turned into categories. Finally, a set of categories which are systematically related through statements of relationship will produce a theory that can be used to explain some relevant social phenomena (Strauss and Corbin, 1998 as cited in Bryman 2012).

In the case of my study, I found grounded theory as a suitable data analysis approach. Firstly, in order to gather enough data, the questions I put in both the individual interviews and the focus group discussions were open ended and flexible enough leading to deep discussions. As a result of this extended discussion, I collected a lot of relevant data, but which required to be sorted out and filtered. Secondly, little research has been done in my study area particularly on the topic, I was exploring and investigating. As pointed out by Milliken (2010), grounded theory is especially well suited for investigating social processes that have attracted little prior research attention, where the previous research is lacking in breadth and/or depth, or where a new point of view on familiar topics appears promising.

Although this study has used grounded theory to analyze its data, its purpose was not to generate a new theory out of this data. Rather, its primary aim was to produce some concepts that were relevant and could guide the discussions of its findings. Hence, while in the field, I began organizing the raw data as preliminary analysis. After finishing the data collection, I read through the data, divided texts into segments of information, labeled these segments of information with codes, and finally reduced overlapping codes. Then, I highlighted and subsequently colour-coded the interesting and relevant information under certain main themes, which I chose to emphasize throughout this thesis (Berg & Lune 2012; Bryman 1984; Bryman 2012). From these themes, I further derived central concepts which served as the conceptual framework that guided the analysis and discussions of the findings.

4.5 Ethical considerations and limitations

Careful consideration of the ethical aspects of this study was important. As pointed out by Berg and Lune (2012), social researchers have greater responsibilty to ensure the rights, privacy, and welfare of the people and communities in which they are interested to study. Similarly, Aurelius (2008), stressed the need to comply with some major principles of ethical behavior while conducting studies that involves human subjects.

According to Aurelius (2008), the first principle is *do no harm*. The participants should not expect that they will be involved in any situation in which they might be harmed as a result of participating in the study. The second one is *privacy and anonymity*. The researcher has to create an environment where any individual participating in the study has a reasonable expectation that privacy will be guaranteed. The third principle is *informed Consent*. Here, the researcher should clearly inform the participants about the nature of the study and that they have a full right to participate or not to participate (Aurelius 2008; Berg & Lune 2012; Fritz 2008).

In the case of this study, I attempted to respect these core principles. The data collection process of this study involved communicating and interviewing different actors ranging from government officials to community members at village levels. Thus, during my fieldwork, before commencing the interviews, I clearly stated to the interviewees what my research intentions were and ensured them that I would keep both their identities and the information they provided anonymously(Berg & Lune 2012; Fritz 2008). In addition to this, with the help of my research assistant, I verbally asked the participants about their consent for taking part in this study- whether they were willing to be the subjects of this study or not. For example, asked their permission any time I needed to take some photos of the informants in the course of the data collection. Furthermore, in order not to create inconvenience and disturb the time of the informants, I developed my data collection schedules based on a prior consultation with the respective informants. The plans were made almost according to the time proposed by the informants with some modifications and flexibilities.

Besides trying to adhere to the main ethical principles required in qualitative researches, my prior knowledge of the religion and its associated values of my study subjects helped me to have a good rapport with them and create a conducive data collection environment. All the respondents were in fact welcoming and friendly. Especially in the

villages, despite being engaged with their routine livelihood activities such as farming, they sacrificed their precious time and managed to attend the focal group discussions.

However, despite carefully considering the ethical issues of the study and having a good relationship with the respondents, the data collection process of this study was not without limitations. There were a number of challenges I faced during the course of the field work.

When I arrived in Zanzibar the office of CARE International was closed and it was the last few days left for the staff. They were in a state of transition and had not good morale, obviously, busy in looking for their next job opportunities or doing their private businesses. Due to this, it became somewhat difficult for me to make proper planning with the staff that used to work on HIMA project. Even, some of them were out of Zanzibar such as in Dares-Salaam, and I had to wait until they returned back as they were the relevant staff. This was a time consuming and of course affected my data collection schedule.

Likewise, meeting with some of both the staff from the Department of Forest and Non Renewable Resources and those from the local partner NGOs had not been smooth and entailed changing of schedules. Of course, this was not a surprise to me because I could understand the fact that they might have been busy with their important office tasks, and that it was often difficult to get all the concerned staff at the same time.

Furthermore, my lack of the local language (Kiswahili) and the use of the interpreter might have possibly hindered the collection of some data which I could otherwise find out if I had known Kiswahili and talked directly to the respondents.

To conclude, in my view, throughout the entire field trip in general and the data collection process in particular, the opportunities I got over weighted the challenges I encountered. With the help of my research assistant, I was able to solve these problems. We were able to manage and minimize such inconveniences by making frequent telephone calls so as to follow up and reconfirm appointments. Hence, I believe that I conducted the research in a sound manner, producing in depth and high quality research findings.

CHAPTE FIVE

5.0 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, I will present and discuss the key findings of this study. As detailed below, I divided this chapter into three main sections headed by three major themes.The three major themes will have small sub-themes under them. Though both the findings and the discussion are presented together in this chapter, the elaboration of the important findings comes first and then the discussion follows.

5.1 JUMIJAZA as Local Community`s Legitimate Representative

The local people`s quest for taking over the management authority of their natural resources such as forests and forest resources has become prevalent in many parts of the developing countries. (Shackleton et al. 2002; Wellstead et al. 2003). Many developing countries, in their national policies, have recognized the need for local communities in managing natural resources. For example, the national forestry policy of Tanzania in general and that of Zanzibar in particular encourage local community`s active participation in the management of forest resources (RGZ 1999). However, Wellstead et al. (2003) claim that the mere inclusion of the local communities is not sufficient and has yielded little benefits to them due to excessive central state control in many parts of Africa and Asia.

In some places of Africa and Asia, despite poor results, the local communities have already taken some important steps forward. Through increased awareness from NGOs, donors and other external actors, they have established umbrella user organizations as channels through which people could lobby for their collective priorities at least at the national level. Nevertheless, the ways these organizations have been formed, their degree of influence and potentials for representing the local communities are not the same across regions and nations.(K. Siripurapu 2012; Meshack & Njaidi 2011).

In Zanzibar, as mentioned in (section 2.6) above, JUMIJAZA is an umbrella organization that was born out of the local communities own initiatives. This study found out that the various SCCs under REDD+ HIMA project had independently established their own

organization that could be responsible for the management of potential REDD+ carbon credit business in Zanzibar after the end HIMA project. From their previous experiences as COFMAs under the government system and as scattered SCCs under the local NGOs in HIMA project, the local forest users had believed that JUMIJAZA was the only way in which the communities in the Shehias could achieve their dreams for better forest conservation practices and enhanced livelihoods. One of the JUMIJAZA staff interviewed said:

"The main reason behind the establishment of JUMIJAZA was that the community wanted to have their institution- an institution that represented them".

On the other hand, the informants from the other stakeholders of HIMA project had different attitudes towards JUMIJAZA. Informants from CARE International were optimistic about the potentials of JUMIJAZA while the interviewees from DFNRR and the three local partner NGOs had different impressions. Their main concern was JUMIJAZA`s limited capacity, in terms of skilled manpower and the experiences necessary for running such projects. One informant from the DFNRR said:

"Due to their limited capacity in terms of both skilled manpower and fund, I worry about JUMIJAZA` s capacity to manage projects like this. According to my long experience in working with former COFMAs where sharing of information with the community was very crucial, I think JUMIJAZA will not share information with the Shehia conservation committee members properly".

From the above findings, we can see that there are opposing perceptions on JUMIJAZA`s potential performances in the future. Before we consider these contrasting views, it is important to evaluate whether JUMIJAZA is an entity that could really represent ad protect the local forest users` interests in Zanzibar or not. According to Wellstead et al. (2003), an organization or entity can represent or act on behalf of a larger group`s interest if those in charge (the representatives) and those in the larger group (the represented) share the same values, attitudes, and socioeconomic characteristics.

However, (Coicaud 2002; Daniel et al. 2007; Reus 1999; Suchman 1995), brought in the issue of legitimacy, and encouraged us to expand our evaluation criterion beyond having same values, attitudes, and socioeconomic characteristics. For them, sharing the same values,

attitudes, and socioeconomic characteristics may not necessarily make an entity to be a true representative. Here, the question whether the representative is a legitimate or illegitimate is very important.

5.1.1 Common values, attitudes and socioeconomic characteristics

JUMIJAZA is not an organization that has been imposed on the local communities by some external actors. It is an organization that came into existence through the local community`s own choice. The members of JUMIJAZA, both in the executive body and in the general assembly, came directly from the various SCCs in Unguja and Pemba. Furthermore, they fairly reflected the different parts of the local community in terms of gender and age. Out of the six executive members, two are women who hold very key positions. The first chairperson and chief of accountant are both female (JUMIJAZA 2014).

The fact that the members of JUMIJAZA directly came from the SCCs indicate that they share the same values, attitudes and socioeconomic characteristics with people in the Shehias. As put by Carlin.Jr (2009), values are what binds a community together. They are the important and lasting beliefs or ideas shared by the members of a certain community about what is good or bad and desirable or undesirable. Values have a major influence on a person`s behaviour and attitudes and can serve as guidelines in many situations and contexts (Carlin.Jr 2009). Though the local people in Zanzibar are a mixture of different ethnic backgrounds, there is what is known as ,according to Ahmed Saleh (2004), `homogenous Zanzibari Swahili culture`. In this culture, *Heshima* (respect), *uaminifu* (honesty), *uadilifu* (ethics) and *ari* (honour) are among the major values that guide the behaviours of the people. Moreover, the religion of Islam, which also has the same basic values, is dominantly followed and practiced in all parts of Zanzibar.

When it comes to common socioeconomic characteristics, JUMIJAZA members and those they represent have the same socioeconomic characteristics. They are all poor people whose livelihoods heavily depend on forests and forest products. At least currently, one can hardly differentiate an executive member of JUMIJAZA and an ordinary resident in one of the Shehias. Throughout the data collection period of the study, JUMIJAZA members, regardless of their position, were not engaged only in the organizational assignments but also in their normal livelihood activities such as farming. According to my observation, it was not

easy to identify that a particular group of people were above and had responsibilities over others. During the time I had with the executive members, I noticed a good team spirit among them in terms of communicating and coordinating the SCCs.

5.1.2 The right to act

Based on the political and legal definitions of the concept legitimacy, an entity can act on behalf of a larger group if it has the right to do so and the actions it takes are in accordance with law or principle.In this definition, the term right implicitly shows something that belongs to some people which is entrusted into other people (Coicaud 2002; Daniel et al. 2007). In this context, the right to act is a right granted to JUMIJAZA through the SCCs`s consent. As explained in detail in chapter 2 section (2.6), the various SCCs elected the members and subsequently formed the organization as an aggregate entity. Through this election, the SCCs gave JUMIJAZA the legal right to act on behalf of them. In addition to this, JUMIJAZA became a full legal entity which has its approved constitution (byelaw), and is officially recognized in both national and international levels (CARE 2013; JUMIJAZA 2013b).

Though JUMIJAZA is a new entity with limited capacities and experiences, it can be said that it is a legitimate representative of the various SCCs which has the potentials to serve and defend the interests of the people in the respective Shehias. To establish their own independent umbrella organization was the best choice of the SCCs compared to the previous options such as the government initiated systems (COFMAs) and through the NGOs arrangements. This has been evidenced by the performances of JUMIJAZA in the first two years of its inception. In the last two years of the REDD+ HIMA project, JUMIJAZA, in collaboration with CARE International, had actively implemented extensive activities as uniting and coordinating the scattered SCCs, the distribution of the trial funds and the mobilization of the communities in the respective Shehias(JUMIJAZA 2013b).

5.2 Coordination of the scattered SCCs

The study found out that the need to coordinate the conservation efforts of the different Shehias was another justification for the establishment of JUMIJAZA. According to JUMIJAZA staff, CARE staff and the Shehia conservation committee members interviewed, the organization, since its establishment, has united the forest dependent communities in the

Shehias which were fragmented and scattered, bringing them under one umbrella. One of the JUMIJAZA interviewee has said:

"*One of the greatest jobs we have done, since our establishment, is uniting and bringing the previously dispersed SCCs under the shadow of one big umbrella*".

As described in its constitution, one of the key objectives of JUMIJAZA is to coordinate and represent Shehia Conservation Committees (SCCs) and communities in all forest conservation development related matters, including carbon credit development, forest management, alternative livelihoods and other best conservation practices(JUMIJAZA 2013a). Before the birth of JUMIJAZA, CARE used to work with the three local partner NGOs that were also engaged in forest conservation activities like HIMA. Each of these NGOs had been working with different forest conservation Shehias in both Unguja and Pemba islands. JECA, for example, was working with 10 Shehias in Unguja; SEDCA used to work with 12 Shehias also in Unguja while NGENARECO coordinated 18 Shehias in Pemba.

Borgoyary (2006), in the report of the findings from a study conducted by the Japan Bank for International Cooperation (JBIC), on the Participatory Forest Management (PFM) networks of three Indian states, mentions the usefulness of community based forest networks. According to the report, the networks joined the efforts of the communities and helped to some extent in reducing the earlier conflicts between them. Similarly, JUMIJAZA has the potential to serve as a platform that would unite, consolidate and coordinate the efforts of the various Shehias. Of course, due to its current challenges, namely lack of skilled manpower and financial constraints, JUMIJAZA will have to walk through a long path with many thorns on it so as to successfully implement the responsibilities given to them and thereby achieve its goals.

5.3 Local communities as carbon right holders

In the piloting phase of HIMA project, all the communities in each of the 40 Shehias represented by their SCCs were identified as the eligible beneficiaries or carbon right holders. However, the various SCCs through JUMIJAZA, CARE and representatives from the DFNRR had jointly set a number of criteria which guided the beneficiary selection process(CARE 2011; JUMIJAZA 2013b) .

As stipulated in the project`s sub-agreement concluded between CARE and JUMIJAZA, the people of any of the Shehias would be regarded as the right beneficiaries only if they qualified two main criteria (CARE & JUMIJAZA 2014). These criteria were (A) Forest Bonus and (B) Social Bonus. The Forest Bonus was further divided into (i) Forest area-the size of the forest area each Shehia owned; (ii) Forest under high protection-how much forest each Shehia has protected and (iii) Forest condition- how well each Shehia has conserved its forests. On the other hand, the Social Bonus was also divided into (i) the number of woodlot trees planted per Shehia; (ii) The number of village conservation assemblies held by each SCC; (iii) the number of women in each SCC and (iv) the number of widows -headed households in each Shehia.

After the phase out of HIMA project, the criteria have not been revised and hence the previous beneficiaries are recognized as the legal carbon right holders who will benefit from the expected actual carbon revenues in the future. Depending on budget availability, the number of the benefiting people may increase or decrease. Based on the lessons from the HIMA, the active role played by JUMIJAZA, and the current binding legal documents, it can be said that the local people in the Shehias are, to some extent, carbon right holders. Through their elected carbon aggregate entity (JUMIJAZA), the local people in different Shehias are expected to play a bigger role in the management of any potential funds generated from the sale of carbon in the international market.

5.4 Perception on future REDD+ benefits

During its implementation period of the REDD+ HIMA project in Zanzibar, the communities in the SCCs had received a number of benefits. These benefits were both monetary and non monetary. In order to solve the problems of forest deforestation and degradation, CARE identified that fuel wood gathering, charcoal production, land conversion and fires as the major causes. The local poor communities were heavily dependent on these activities to get their livelihoods (Deloite 2012). To shift this trend and reduces pressures on the forest, CARE supported alternative livelihoods activities. The activities were income generating activities (IGAs) including improved cooking stove construction and sale, beekeeping, the provision of seedlings for the plantation of community woodlots and mixed farms. According to CARE

(2011), these activities were pro-poor and gender-sensetive because women and girls who were exposed to different risks while collecting firewood had benefited from them.

With regard to the monetary benefits, HIMA had allocated funds to pilot a model for financial transfer and sharing down to the community level in advance of the expected flow of funds from the sale of verified carbon credits (CARE 2013). The total amount budgeted was USD 200,000.00 planned to be distributed to 40 Shehias in two phases. In the first phase (2011-2012), USD 131,000.00 was distributed to the 40 Shehias and in the second phase, USD 64,076.00 was distributed (CARE & JUMIJAZA 2014). This fund distribution in HIMA project was a trial and its main purpose was to test the channels or structures through which the expected carbon revenues would be disbursed in the future.

Beekeeping activities at Kitogani (Photo by M. Yakub, 2015)

This study has attempted to investigate how the various stakeholders of the HIMA project in general, and the communities in the Shehias represented by their respective SCC in particular, had perceived the benefits from possible future REDD+ projects. The study found out that the overall perception of the potential benefits from REDD+ and similar mechanisms was based on both the non monetary benefits and the trial cash benefits disbursed in HIMA project. The informants interviewed had the hope that funds could be generated from the sale of verified carbon credits in the future. But, they had not an idea about specific sources of this

fund, how much it will be and when it will be secured. The respondents from JUMIJAZA and CARE staff were more optimistic than the other informants regarding the potential benefits from the sale of the sequestered carbons in the future. One interviewee from JUMIJAZA staffs for example, said:

"During the implementation of the HIMA project with CARE, we have gained very solid experiences, especially in the management and monitoring of the carbon incentive funds disbursed to the SCCs as a test. Communities are now aware of how to use the carbon incentive funds properly. Based on this, we are now preparing several project proposals to be submitted to REDD+ related donors, and are fully confident that our requests will be accepted positively".

Although they generally shared the anticipation with the JUMIJAZA and CARE staffs, respondents from the Shehias conservation committee members was not that much optimistic. They did not expect more than what they had experienced during the implementation of the HIMA project. The informants from the SCCs had mixed perceptions of both the benefits they previously received from HIMA and the benefits they expected from possible future REDD+ projects. In one of the focus group discussions, the participants expressed their satisfaction of the benefits they got during the implementation of the HIMA project and also their anticipation for more benefits in the future. They said:

"*The benefits we got from HIMA project, namely making and selling cooking stoves that use less firewood, beekeeping and the provision of the equipments to grow vegetables have significantly changed our lives. We also hope to get more benefits from similar projects in the future*".

The above quotation indicates that the beneficiaries were satisfied with the benefits they got from HIMA project and that they are optimistic in the future. However, in another focus group discussion, the respondents said that the benefits were not enough and did not cover their needs. They claimed that the amount paid so far in the distribution of the trial fund was too little to cover the needs of the forest dependent poor communities in the Shehias. They said:

"The trial carbon incentive fund distributed was very far away to cover the needs of the people who used to get their livelihoods from the conserved forests. The fund allocated was limited compared to the number of needy people in the Shehia and hence, very small people were considered as beneficiaries. As the situations of these poor communities are deteriorating from time to time, the challenges ahead might be much worse and the expected projects will not be fruitful unless enough funds are secured and properly managed".

We can grasp a number of things from what the respondents have meant in the above quotation. We can understand that the pilot REDD+ HIMA project has provided lessons which will be important for similar mechanisms in the future. As there is a large number of forest dependent poor communities in the various Shehias, it is less likely to avoid deforestation and forest degradation unless the beneficiary targeting process becomes as much inclusive as possible and the communities are given benefits that could cover their needs.

In addition to this, there is an indication that some of the people in the SCCs had not fully trusted in the ways the trial funds have been managed. In its progressive report on the trial incentive payments to the Shehia in 2013, JUMIJAZA mentioned lack of trust among the community members towards the SCCs and JUMIJAZA itself was one of the challenges they encountered (JUMIJAZA 2013b).

Furthermore, the fact that JUMIJAZA was elected by the communities in the Shehia cannot guarantee full transparency and equality in the benefit sharing systems in the future. The local communities in Shehais should be given the full mandate to determine and design the ways in which the carbon benefits are shared and used. In the future, if this approach is followed, the possibilities of elite capture would be minimized.

5.5 JUMIJAZA`s potential roles to ensure equitable benefit sharing

JUMIJAZA has been perceived in different ways. Some of the respondents showed that they had a strong hope in the organization`s potentials to represent the local communities in the Shehias, especially in facilitating the sale of the carbon and sharing the revenues equitably. Some of the respondents, on the other hand, doubted and labelled it as impulsive entity that would not have the required capacity to operate independently and effectively. These contrasting views reflect mainly on the potential roles that JUMIJAZA could play in ensuring equitable benefit sharing in REDD+ or other similar interventions in the future. Informants in

one of the focus group discussions, for example, expressed their expectation in JUMUJAZA by saying:

"JUMIJAZA is a very young organization that was established recently. At this stage, we should all support so that it will tirelessly serve our interests in the future".

However, one interviewee from the DFNRR showed her reservations and feelings towards JUMIJAZA by saying as follows:

"*Because of its apparent limited technical capability, I think JUMIJAZA will not be able to ensure equitable benefit sharing. Sharing of benefits equitably is not an easy task and demands a lot such as strong financial controlling system".*

JUMIJAZA as an umbrella entity played a role in the planning and disbursements of the trial carbon incentive payments and the allocation of the other benefits such as the IGAs in the second phase (2013-2014) of HIMA project. During this phase, JUMIJAZA along with CARE and representatives from the DFNRR selected the beneficiaries for both the trial incentive payments and the other non cash benefits.

With regard to the trial carbon incentive payments, CARE transferred the funds into the bank account of JUMIJAZA and then JUMIJAZA in turn released the funds into the respective bank accounts of the various SCCs. This process was based on an agreed upon benefit sharing modality (CARE & JUMIJAZA 2014). Before the disbursement of the trial carbon incentive funds to JUMIJAZA and SCCs, JUMIJAZA in close collaboration with CARE International and DFNRR conducted a number of consultative meetings to discuss the sharing modality of carbon incentives for 40 SCCs of Unguja and Pemba. During the discussion, a number of criteria (as mentioned in section 5.3) were considered including total carbon sequester area, forest condition, forest protection as well as social involvement in respective conservation committee (see the tables in appendix 1 and appendix 2) (JUMIJAZA 2013b).

The same criteria set for selecting the beneficiaries, as mentioned in section 5.3, were also used to base the sharing of the benefits. Before releasing the fund to any SCC, JUMIJAZA in collaboration with CARE and DFNNR had to evaluate how well the SCC has conserved their forests, the participation of all the community members in the important decisions, the number of meetings they held on forest conservation issues and the number of groups with special needs in that particular SCC. Generally, the informants perceived this modality

positively. According to them, the criteria used were set based on performance rather than arbitrary decisions.

Despite the respondents`s contrasting perceptions on JUMIJAZA, I can conclude that it is an entity which has very good potentials in the future to come. Though it is a newly born organization which lacks many necessary things, especially technical and financial capacities, I believe it does have opportunities to realize its objectives. The potentials of JUMIJAZA include the acceptance from the community and the government; the full awareness of the SCCs about the importance of the forest conservation and the recently finalized validation process which provides JUMIJAZA the certificate to sell the carbon. Furthermore, its legal document (its constitution) will give JUMIJAZA extra acceptance and acknowledgement from the international organizations such as the donors.

However, the main challenges of JUMIJAZA include lack of funds; lack of technical expertise and rising level of the poverty in the communities who are heavily dependent on the forests to be conserved. The revenues expected from the sale of the carbon may not be enough compared to the needs of the local communities in the SCCs. This can make difficult to control the effect of leakage. Leakage happens when the people go to other areas outside the project to cut trees while at the same time benefiting from the project (Schwarze et al. 2002). Nonetheless, compared to other alternatives such the government and NGOs systems, JUMIJAZA, at this point, remains a better option for the local communities in the various SCCs because it is an organization led by individuals elected from the SCCs.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0 Conclusion

The overall objective of this study was to assess the potentials for equitable benefit sharing of possible future REDD+ revenues in Zanzibar. By using the pilot REDD+ HIMA project as a springboard, the study has focused to identify the perceptions of the project`s different actors towards JUMIJAZA in general and its potential roles in ensuring equitable benefit sharing in particular. In addition, the study investigated how the various actors viewed both the benefits from the pilot REDD+ HIMA project and the expected benefits from possible REDD+ and other similar mechanisms in the future.

The findings of this have shown that there had been mixed perceptions of the benefits from potential REDD+ or other similar interventions in Zanzibar. JUMIJAZA and CARE were more optimistic than the other informants regarding the potential benefits from the sale of the sequestered carbons in the future. Within the local people in the SCCs, the perception was also different. Linking the benefits they got from the HIMA project with the potential benefits, some of them expressed that they had good expectation while others were pessimistic. Based on this, this study argues that the pilot REDD+ HIMA project has provided valuable lessons which will be important for similar mechanisms in the future. There is an indication that some of the people in the SCCs were not fully satisfied in the ways the trial funds have been managed. In addition, as there is a large number of forest dependent poor communities in the various Shehias, it is less likely to avoid deforestation and forest degradation unless the beneficiary targeting process becomes as much inclusive as possible and the communities are given benefits that could cover their needs.

The findings of the study also showed that the respondents were divided on the perception of JUMIJZA and its potential role to ensure equitable benefit sharing in the future. Some of the respondents believed that JUMIJAZA had strong potentials to represent the local communities in the Shehias, especially in facilitating the sale of the carbon and sharing the revenues equitably. Another group of the respondents, on the other hand, perceived the entity as immature with limited capacity to operate independently and effectively.

Though JUMIJAZA is a new entity with limited capacities and experiences, the study argues that it is a legitimate representative of the various SCCs which has the potentials to serve and defend the interests of the people in the respective Shehias. This has been evidenced

by the activities carried by JUMIJAZA in the first two years of its inception. In the last two years of the REDD+ HIMA project, JUMIJAZA, in collaboration with CARE International, had actively implemented extensive activities, namely uniting and coordinating the scattered SCCs, the distribution of the trial funds and the mobilization of the communities in the respective Shehias

Despite these opposing views, the study concludes that JUMIJAZA is an organization that has very promising potentials in the future to come. Though it is a newly established organization which lacks many essential inputs, especially technical and financial capacities, it does have opportunities to realize its objectives. It has a number of potentials, including the acceptance from the community and the government; the full awareness of the SCCs about the importance of the forest conservation and the recently finalized validation process which provides JUMIJAZA the certificate to sell the carbon. Furthermore, its legal document (its constitution) will give JUMIJAZA extra acceptance and acknowledgement from the international organizations such as the donors.

However, there are many obstacles waiting for JUMIJAZA to overcome on its way to achieve its objectives. The main challenges include lack of funds; lack of technical expertise and rising level of the poverty in the communities who are heavily dependent on the forests to be conserved. In addition, the revenues expected from the sale of the carbon may not be enough compared to the needs of the local communities in the SCCs.

Furthermore, the fact that JUMIJAZA was elected by the communities in the Shehia does not necessarily imply that there will be full transparency and equality in the benefit sharing systems in the future. Hence, the local communities in the Shehais should be given the full mandate to determine and design the ways in which the carbon benefits are shared and used. In the future, if this approach is followed, the possibilities of elite capture would be minimized.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7.0 REFERENCES

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Summary of budget allocation as per criteria

CRITERIA	% Allocation	TZS
A: FOREST BONUS		
(i) Forest area	8%	24,960,000
(ii) Forest under high protection	12%	37,440,000
(iii) Forest condition	40%	124,800,000
Subtotal	**60%**	**187,200,000**
B: SOCIAL BONUS		
(i) Woodlot trees planted per Shehia	17%	53,040,000
(ii) Village assemblies held by SCC	9%	28,080,000
(iii) Number of women in each SCC	5%	15,600,000
(iv) Widow-headed households in each Shehia	5%	15,600,000
Subtotal	**36%**	**112,320,000**
Payments to Aggregation	4%	12,480,000

entity		
TOTAL		**312,000,000**

Appendix 2: Detailed Budget allocation V/S total carbon sequester area, conditions, protection and social bonus points per each SCC.

s/n	Shehia	Area-based payment($)	Forest payment ($)	Total ($) forest bonus	Social bonus payment ($)	Total($)	Total (tzs)	Suggested funds to each shehia
1	Bambi	318	2495	2813	7671	10485	16,356,232	10,500,000
2	Bwejuu	1407	1962	3369	2863	6232	9,722,545	10,500,000
3	Charawe	509	3390	3900	3287	7186	11,210,461	10,500,000
4	Cheju	856	3390	4246	334	4581	7,145,676	8,250,000
5	Chwaka	204	1429	1632	3214	4846	7,560,215	8,250,000
6	Jambiani	2150	3390	5540	1535	7075	11,036,624	10,500,000
7	Kajengwa	1487	1962	3449	2406	5855	9,133,664	6,000,000
8	Kibuteni	584	1429	2013	86	2098	3,273,319	6,000,000
9	Kitogani	502	1962	2464	957	3421	5,337,389	6,000,000
10	Kiwengwa	781	3924	4705	307	5011	7,817,862	8,250,000
11	Kizimkazi Dimbani	370	1962	2332	1960	4292	6,694,777	6,000,000
12	Kizimkazi Mkunguni	431	3390	3821	188	4009	6,254,065	6,000,000
13	Michamvi	273	2495	2769	166	2935	4,578,045	6,500,000
14	Mtende	554	3390	3944	768	4712	7,350,902	8,250,000
15	Muungoni	504	1962	2466	859	3325	5,186,275	6,000,000
16	Muyuni A	341	1429	1770	682	2452	3,825,043	6,000,000
17	Muyuni B	268	1429	1697	8590	10287	16,047,035	10,500,000
18	Muyuni C	628	3390	4019	154	4173	6,509,834	6,000,000
19	Paje	188	2495	2684	155	2839	4,428,725	6,000,000

20	Pete-Jozani	154	2495	2650	1295	3945	6,153,948	6,000,000
21	Pongwe	609	2495	3104	4603	7707	12,022,334	10,500,000
22	Tunguu	5	1429	1433	2469	3902	6,087,024	6,500,000
23	Unguja Ukuu Kaebona	396	3924	4319	205	4525	7,058,625	8,250,000
24	Ukongoroni	458	3390	3848	935	4784	7,462,494	8,250,000
25	Uzi-Ng'ambwa	261	1962	2223	154	2377	3,708,734	6,000,000
26	Changaweni	15	2495	2510	1794	4304	6,714,789	8,250,000
27	Fundo	63	1962	2025	341	2366	3,690,704	6,000,000
28	Gando	34	3924	3958	1485	5443	8,491,788	6,000,000
29	Kambini	50	1429	1478	318	1797	2,802,791	6,000,000
30	Kifundi	16	1962	1978	1391	3369	5,254,869	6,000,000
31	Kisiwapanza	102	3924	4025	1227	5253	8,194,419	6,000,000
32	Mgelema	39	3924	3963	188	4150	6,474,310	8,250,000
33	Michenzani	54	1429	1483	511	1994	3,110,628	6,000,000
34	Mjimbini	85	2495	2580	768	3348	5,223,300	6,000,000
35	Mjini Wingwi	151	2857	3008	2565	5573	8,694,067	8,250,000
36	Msuka Magharibi	25	1429	1453	3779	5232	8,161,793	8,250,000
37	Mtambwe Kaskazini	88	2495	2583	2762	5345	8,337,836	6,000,000
38	Mtambwe Kusini	734	2857	3591	4602	8193	12,781,002	10,500,000
39	Shumba mjini	290	3924	4214	3509	7723	12,048,116	10,500,000
40	Tondooni	18	3924	3942	916	4858	7,577,741	6,000,000
	Sub total	**16000**	**104000**	**120000**	**72000**	**192,000**	**299,520,000**	**299500000**
	AE – JUMIJAZA					**8,000**	**12,480,000**	**12,480.000**

	GRAND TOTALS	**32000**	**208000**	**240000**	**144000**	**200,000**	**312,000,000**	**312,000,000**

Source: *Progressive Report on Carbon Incentive Payments to SCCs in Zanzibar April-August, 2013*

Appendix 3: List of documents reviewed

1. Proposal for HIMA– Piloting REDD+ in Zanzibar through Community Forest Management

2. Progressive report on carbon incentive payments to Shehia Conservation Committee in Zanzibar

3. Sub-Agreement for Piloting REDD in Zanzibar through Community Forest Management. Ref Code: Norwegian MoFA-CARE-HIMA-2014-01.

4. Sub-Agreement for Piloting REDD in Zanzibar through Community Forest Management. Ref Code: Norwegian MoFA-CARE-2013-08.
5. Zanzibar`s Forest Resources Management and Conservation Act No. 10 of 1996.
6. The National Forestry Policy for Zanzibar of 1999.
7. JUMIJAZA Agreement with the Shehia Conservation Committees-2014.
8. The Constitution of JUMIJAZA-2013
9. Option paper for carbon aggregation models within the context of HIMA project in Zanzibar.
10. The National Forest Management Plan of Zanzibar-2009-2000.
11. Report on the status of Zanzibar`s coastal resources-2010.

Appendix 4: Outline of the research data collection plan

Sub-RQs or main issues	**Data collection methods**	**Expected data from the collection methods**	**Sample Unit categories/sizes**

1.1. What were the reasons behind in establishing JUMIJAZA?	-Literature review: a). HIMA project documents such as project proposals and reports from the Department of Forestry and CARE b). JUMIJAZA constitution -Semi-structured interview	-Views on the factors that necessitated to set up JUMIJAZA -Opinions on the gaps JUMIJAZA was supposed to fill - Reference to the legal basis that underpins JUMIJAZA	- 3 staff members from Zanzibar Department of Forestry -3 staff members from CARE - 4 JUMIJAZA members (2 from Pemba and 2 from Unguja)
1.2. What were the processes in establishing JUMIJAZA?	-Semi-structured interview -Literature review: a).Examining the project reports b). JUMIJAZA constitution -Focus group discussion	-Perceptions on who initiated the JUMIJAZA establishment process -Views of the different actors involved and their respective roles in the process -Perceptions on how the process was managed -Perceptions on the challenges faced in the process	- 3 staff members from Zanzibar Department of Forestry -3 staff members from CARE - 4 JUMIJAZA members (2 from Pemba and 2 from Unguja) -1 representative from each of the 3 Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO) -4 SCC (*Shehia* Conservation Committee) members

2.1. How are the benefits from REDD+ perceived?	-Semi-structured interview -Literature review: a). Project proposal b) Project implementation guidelines c). JUMIJAZA constitution -Focus group discussion	-Views of different categories of benefits the project beneficiaries got from REDD+	- 3 staff members from Zanzibar Department of Forestry -3 staff members from CARE - 4 JUMIJAZA members (2 from Pemba and 2 from Unguja) -1 representative from each of the 3 Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO) -4 SCC (*Shehia* Conservation Committee) members
2.2. How were the beneficiaries/carbon right holders defined and selected?	-Literature review: a).Project implementation guidelines b).Project reports -Semi-structured interview	- Explanation of the characteristics and the criteria to qualify as a project beneficiary -Explanation of the process of selecting the project	- 3 staff members from Zanzibar Department of Forestry -3 staff members from CARE - 4 JUMIJAZA members (2 from Pemba and 2 from Unguja) -1 representative from each of the 3 Community Based Organizations (SEDCA,

	-Focus group discussion	beneficiaries and who participated	JECA and NGENARECO) -4 SCC (*Shehia* Conservation Committee) members
2.3. How did the distribution of the trial funds take place?	-Semi-structured interview - Focus group discussion	-Explanations and reflections on the practical challenges faced and lessons learned - Alternative ways of managing the distribution process	-4 JUMIJAZA members (2 from Pemba and 2 from Unguja) -1 representative from each of the 3 Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO) -3 staff members from CARE -4 SCC (*Shehia* Conservation Committee) members
3.1. To what extent does JUMIJAZA represent the local communities?	-Semi-structured interview -Literature review -Focus group discussion	-The downward and upward accountability of JUMIJAZA(in principle) -The local communities` participation in JUMIJAZA decision making process	-3 staff members from CARE -4 JUMIJAZA members (2 from Pemba and 2 from Unguja) -4 SCC (*Shehia* Conservation Committee) members

3.2. What are the potentials and challenges of JUMIJAZA?	-Semi-structured interview -Focus group discussion	-Reflections on the expected contribution of JUMIJAZA in REDD+ as well as the obstacles that hindered it to successfully function	-4 JUMIJAZA members (2 from Pemba and 2 from Unguja) - 3staff members from Zanzibar Department of Forestry -3 staff members from CARE -4 SCC (*Shehia* Conservation Committee) members
3.3. How do the different actors of REDD+ perceive JUMIJAZA?	- Semi-structured interview -Focus group discussion	-The perceptions of the different actors towards JUMIJAZA	- 3 staff members from Zanzibar Department of Forestry -3 staff members from CARE -1 representative from each of the 3 Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO) -4 SCC (*Shehia* Conservation Committee) members

Appendix 5: Interview Guide

1. **Interview number:**----------

2. **Date and place of interview:**----------

3. **Characteristics of the interviewee:**

3.1. Sex:----------

3.2. Organization:----------

3.3. Occupation:----------

4. **Introduction:**

4.1.The researcher and his assistant will introduce themselves to the interviewee

4.2. Brief description of what the interview is all about, its objectives and how the data collected will be used.

4.3.The respondent will be asked for his/her written or verbal informed consent and will be reminded that his/her statements will be kept confidential at all times.

4.4. The expected time the interview session lasts

4.5. Inviting the interviewee to ask clarifications in case she/he does not understand the question(s) asked

5. **Main issues:**

5.1. Processes, background, and the factors behind the establishment of the JUMIJAZA	**Type of respondent**
5.1.1. In your opinion, what were the main factors that necessitated to set up JUMIJAZA as an institution in REDD+ implementation?	-Staff member of Zanzibar Department of Forestry -Staff members of CARE - JUMIJAZA member

5.1.2. How do you see the way the process of establishing JUMIJAZA was managed?	- Staff member of Zanzibar Department of Forestry -Staff member of CARE - JUMIJAZA member -Representative from Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO)
5.1.3. Who participated in the process of establishing JUMIJZA, and how?	- Staff member of Zanzibar Department of Forestry -Staff member of CARE - JUMIJAZA member -Representative from Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO)
5.1.4. If any, What were the challenges faced during the establishment of JUMIJAZA?	- Staff member of Zanzibar Department of Forestry -Staff member of CARE - JUMIJAZA member -Representative from Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO)
5.2. JUMIJAZA and its contribution to equitable sharing of the benefits from REDD+	
5.2.1. How was the process of project beneficiary	- Staff member of Zanzibar

selection for the trial incentives distribution handled?: Who participated?, What were the criteria to qualify as a beneficiary?	Department of Forestry -Staff member of CARE - JUMIJAZA member -Representative from Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO)
5.2.2. What kind of benefits did the beneficiaries get from the project, and what kind of benefits do they expect in the future?	- Staff member of Zanzibar Department of Forestry -Staff member of CARE - JUMIJAZA member -Representative from Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO)
5.2.3. How did the distribution of the benefits (trial incentives) take place?	- Staff member of Zanzibar Department of Forestry -Staff member of CARE - JUMIJAZA member -Representative from Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO)
5.2.4. What were the roles of JUMIJAZA in assuring equitable benefit distribution?	- Staff member of Zanzibar Department of Forestry -Staff member of CARE - JUMIJAZA member -Representative from Community

	Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO)
5.3. Potentials, challenges, and different actors' perception of JUMIJAZA	
5.3.1.To what extent does JUMIJAZA act on behalf of the community?	-Staff member of CARE - JUMIJAZA member -Representative from Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO)
5.3.2. What are the potentials and challenges of JUMIJAZA?	- Staff member of Zanzibar Department of Forestry -Staff member of CARE - JUMIJAZA member
5.3.3. How do you perceive JUMIJAZA?	- Staff member of Zanzibar Department of Forestry - Staff members of CARE -Representative from Community Based Organizations (SEDCA, JECA and NGENARECO)

Appendix 6: Focus Group Discussion Guide

1. Introduction

Hello, my name is Mahamed Yakub, a master student from Norwegian University of Life Sciences. Thank you for sparing your precious time to participate in this focus group

discussion. This focus group discussion is one of my data collection methods for my master thesis research. I am conducting this research to learn the role that the Community Forest Conservation Association (JUMIJAZA) plays in the implementation of HIMA project in Zanzibar. My focus will be the role of JUMIJAZA plays in the different actors involved in the implementation of the project with special emphasis on equitable benefit sharing practices. The findings from this research are expected to contribute a lot, and perhaps introduce new and useful insights for both policy making and future relevant projects.

During this focus group session, I will ask questions and facilitate a conversation .Please keep in mind that there are no "right" or "wrong" answers to any of the questions I will ask. The purpose is to stimulate conversation and hear the opinions of everyone in the room. I hope you will be comfortable speaking honestly and sharing your ideas with us.

Please note that we will be taking notes during the focus group session to ensure we adequately capture your ideas during the conversation. However, the comments from the focus group will remain confidential and your name will not be attached to any comments you make. Do you have any questions before we begin

2. Main issues:

2.1. Processes, background, and the factors behind the establishment of the JUMIJAZA

2.1.1. How do you see the way the process of establishing JUMIJAZA was managed?, Who participated in the process of establishing JUMIJAZA, and how did they/you participate?

2.1.2. If any, What were the challenges faced during the establishment of JUMIJAZA?

2.2. JUMIJAZA and its contribution to equitable sharing of the benefits from REDD+

2.2.1. How was the process of project beneficiary selection for the trial incentives distribution handled?: Who participated?, What were the criteria to qualify as a beneficiary?

2.2.2. What kind of benefits did the beneficiaries get from the project, and what kind of benefits do they expect in the future?

2.2.3. How did the distribution of the benefits (trial incentives) take place?

2.2.4. What were the roles of JUMIJAZA in assuring equitable benefit distribution?

2.3. Potentials, challenges, and different actors' perception of JUMIJAZA

2.3.1. To what extent does JUMIJAZA act on behalf of the community: Do you think that JUMIJAZA is serving and will serve the interests of the community in terms of coordinating and liaising with other actors?

2.3.2. What are the potentials and challenges of JUMIJAZA?

2.3.3. How do you perceive JUMIJAZA?

Is there anything else we haven't discussed yet that you think is relevant and important for our discussion? If not we will close our session.

Thank you so much for your time!