

# Towards climate-smart, sustainable and inclusive landscapes: A People's Landscape Approach

A policy study for Oxfam Novib and Oxfam Nepal

Cora van Oosten, Frank van Weert, Anita Bake





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Report WCDI-22-208

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# Contents

|   |           |
|---|-----------|
| <b>List of abbreviations and acronyms</b>                                   | <b>5</b>  |
| <b>1 Introduction</b>   | <b>7</b>  |
| <b>2 Landscape approaches: a state of the art</b>                           | <b>8</b>  |
| 2.1 Landscapes: why and why now?  | 8         |
| 2.2 Landscape approach in science   | 8         |
| 2.3 Landscape approach in action  | 9         |
| 2.4 Landscape approach for climate, business & finance and human rights     | 10        |
| 2.5 Landscape approach: the latest trends                                   | 12        |
| 2.6 Landscape approach: some key points to consider                         | 13        |
| <b>3 Nepal as a context for applying a People’s Landscape Approach</b>      | <b>14</b> |
| 3.1 Nepal’s geography and its major landscapes                              | 14        |
| 3.2 Nepal’s socio-economic trends   | 14        |
| 3.3 The Nepali policy context as an entry point for a PLA                   | 15        |
| 3.4 Connecting the pieces of the puzzle: whose task?                        | 17        |
| 3.5 From government to governance   | 17        |
| 3.6 Policy context: some key points to consider                             | 18        |
| <b>4 The work of Oxfam Nepal and partners as a starting point</b>           | <b>19</b> |
| 4.1 Oxfam Nepal and its partners’ key values and ways of working            | 19        |
| 4.2 Other national programmes and initiatives relevant for PLA              | 20        |
| 4.3 Key Nepali landscape issues that require a PLA                          | 20        |
| <b>5 Towards a People’s Landscape Approach</b>                              | <b>22</b> |
| 5.1 Overall purpose of a PLA and its envisaged outcomes                     | 24        |
| 5.2 Six landscape abilities of a People’s Landscape Approach                | 24        |
| 5.3 Cross-cutting values and dilemmas                                       | 25        |
| 5.4 Operationalising a PLA in multiple steps                                | 26        |
| 5.5 Criteria to identify landscape issues at stake                          | 27        |
| 5.6 Operationalising a PLA: the different stakeholders and their roles      | 28        |
| 5.7 How do Oxfam and partners’ existing tools and instruments fit in a PLA? | 30        |
| <b>6 What does it take to change from a sector to a landscape approach?</b> | <b>33</b> |
| 6.1 Changing the narrative  | 33        |
| 6.2 From communities to wider landscapes                                    | 33        |
| 6.3 Looking for new partners  | 33        |
| 6.4 Shifting the power  | 34        |
| <b>7 Conclusion</b>   | <b>35</b> |
| <b>References</b>   | <b>36</b> |
| <b>Appendix 1 Examples of Landscape Approaches (LAs)</b>                    | <b>38</b> |
| <b>Appendix 2 Nepali policies relevant to a PLA</b>                         | <b>40</b> |
| <b>Appendix 3 Tools applied by Oxfam and its partners useful in a PLA</b>   | <b>43</b> |

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# List of abbreviations and acronyms

|         |   |
|---------|---|
| ADB     | The Asian Development Bank  |
| CEO     | The chief executive officer   |
| CFUG    | Community Forest user Groups  |
| CGIAR   | Consultative Group for International Agricultural Research                                      |
| CHAL    | The Chitwan-Annapurna Landscape   |
| CI      | Conservation International  |
| COLANDS | Collaborating to Operationalise Landscape Approaches for Nature, Development and Sustainability |
| COP     | Conference of the Parties   |
| CSO     | Civil Society Organizations   |
| CSRC    | the Community Self Reliance Centre  |
| EA      | Ecosystem Alliance  |
| ECTC    | Eastern Chure-Terai Complex   |
| EGLF    | Environment-friendly Local Governance Framework   |
| FAO     | Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations   |
| GCAP    | Global Call to Action Against Poverty   |
| GDP     | Gross Domestic Product  |
| GEF     | Global Environment Facility   |
| GESI    | Gender Equality and Social Inclusion  |
| GHG     | Greenhouse gas  |
| GPFLR   | Global Partnership on Forest Landscape Restoration  |
| HRC     | Human Rights Council  |
| ICIMOD  | The International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development                                    |
| IDH     | The Sustainable Trade Initiative  |
| IDMC    | The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre   |
| IDP     | internally displaced persons  |
| IDS     | Integrated Development Society  |
| IK      | Indigenous knowledge  |
| ILA     | Integrated Landscape Approach   |
| ILM     | Integrated Landscape management   |
| ILO     | International Labour Organization   |
| IPPF    | Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework   |
| IUCN    | The International Union for Conservation of Nature  |
| IWRM    | Integrated Water Resource Management  |
| KCL     | Karnali Conservation Landscape  |
| KL      | Kanchenjunga Landscape  |
| KSL     | Kailash Sacred Landscape  |
| LA      | Landscape Approaches  |
| LB      | Local Body  |
| LI-BIRD | Local Initiatives for Biodiversity, Research and Development                                    |
| LLR     | land and land resources   |
| LPFN    | The Landscapes for People, Food and Nature  |
| LSGA    | Local Self-governance Act   |
| LSGR    | Local Self-governance Regulation  |
| LUP     | Land Use Plans  |
| LUZ     | Land use zones  |
| MFS     | Medefinancieringsstelsel (Dutch)  |
| MOFE    | Ministry of Forest and Environment  |
| MoFSC   | Ministry of Forestry and Soil Conservation,   |
| NCRC    | Nature Conservation Resource Centre   |

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|       |  |
|-------|--|
| NEEDS | National Environment and Equity Development Society                            |
| NGO   | Non-Governmental Organization  |
| NL    | The Netherlands  |
| NPC   | Nepal Planning Commission  |
| NRM   | Natural Resources Management (NRM)   |
| PEI   | The Poverty Environment Initiative   |
| PF    | Process Framework  |
| PLA   | People's Landscape Approach  |
| RBA   | rights-based approach  |
| RBLA  | Rights Based Landscape Approach  |
| SDG   | Sustainable Development Goal   |
| SHL   | Scared Himalayan Landscape   |
| SME   | small and medium sized enterprises   |
| SRJS  | Shared Resources Joint Solutions   |
| TAL   | Terai Arc Landscape  |
| UN    | United Nations   |
| UNDP  | United Nations Development Programme   |
| UNEP  | United Nations Environment Programme   |
| WCDI  | Wageningen Centre for Development Innovation, Wageningen University & Research |
| WUR   | Wageningen University & Research   |
| WWF   | World Wildlife Fund  |



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# 1 Introduction

Oxfam's new unit on Climate Resilience aims to ensure that thriving rural communities enjoy their rights to achieve food security and be resilient to climate change, while sustainably managing their natural resources. The core objective of this unit is to empower youth, indigenous peoples, women and men to take charge of their own development, by strengthening their voice and agency in decision-making processes affecting their lives and livelihoods, within their own realities of climate change.

A recent review of Oxfam's key Climate Resilience projects concluded that to achieve this aim, there is the need for Oxfam to broaden its current approach and move beyond its combined approach of technical production support and advocacy for land and water rights. A more fundamental empowerment is needed, so it was recommended. Such empowerment could be achieved by developing people's adaptive capacities and supporting them to develop their own agency to engage in the management and governance of their natural resources. Combining people's climate resilience with the resilience of the landscapes in which they live, lies at the heart of landscape approaches. It is the spatial focus of landscape approaches that helps to embed locally led climate change adaptation to wider landscape dynamics, herewith creating the spatial synergies that are needed to bring climate change adaptation to scale. Given its mission of putting people first, Oxfam has expressed an interest in developing and promoting landscape approaches, but with a particular focus on people, to optimally use its strength of advocating for human rights within the context of wider political and environmental processes that influence human rights, either positively or negatively. A People's Landscape Approach (PLA), so it was decided, would be an appropriate name for this.

Given the current focus of Oxfam's programme in Nepal, its geographical context and the wide landscape experience of its partners ICIMOD, LI-BIRD, NEEDS and CSRC, Oxfam Nepal could be a pioneer in piloting such a PLA, and learn some lessons on how to operationalise the approach in Nepal. Oxfam Nepal and partners have different yet complementary experiences with landscape approaches, as expressed in their ground-breaking work on transboundary landscapes, agrobiodiverse food systems, community empowerment, local economic development, social transformation and participatory governance. Building on these experiences, Oxfam Nepal could be a frontrunner in the development of a PLA, to be applied in Nepal, the Hindu Kush Himalaya region and worldwide.

The objective of this assignment, as agreed, is to develop a framework for the development, operationalisation and implementation of a PLA, for Oxfam to raise the climate resilience of rural communities in the landscapes where it works, in a participatory and inclusive manner. With this, Oxfam can build on the existing track records of itself, its partners and of others, leverage their experience with people-centered and rights-based approaches and build more spatial coherence between their work. For such a framework to be practically applicable, we followed a participatory process in which Oxfam Netherlands, Oxfam Nepal and Nepali partners co-created the PLA framework, guided and supported by the WCDI team. The current document presents the outcome of this co-creation process, and includes the following elements:

- a. A general overview of the state-of-the-art of the global debate on landscape approaches, where they come from, and how they relate to Oxfam Nepal's work.
- b. An overview of Nepal's policy context for as far as it relates to landscape approaches, including the opportunities and challenges that it may bring for implementing a PLA.
- c. An analysis of Oxfam Nepal's and partners' work for as far as related to a PLA, including some of its projects, its stakeholders, and the issues at stake.
- d. A generic PLA framework, based on all the above.
- e. An overview of what it takes from Oxfam Nepal and partners and Oxfam in general to shift from its current approaches to a PLA, to help Oxfam reflect whether this is the way forward.

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## 2 Landscape approaches: a state of the art

Landscape approaches, or for reasons of clarity referred to as *landscape approach*<sup>1</sup>, are based on the premise that sustainable human development strongly depends on the functioning of the world's ecosystems, as providers of soil, water, biodiversity and climate resilience. It is increasingly acknowledged that the deplorable state of the world's ecosystems not only result in natural disasters, but also human disasters, as societies are increasingly challenged by climate change, mass biodiversity extinction, and chronic food insecurity. It is increasingly realised that our current production models have been based on externalisation of environmental damage and the costs that these entail, leading to over-exploitation and consequential degradation of ecosystems and landscapes. This negative trend needs to be altered rapidly, in order to re-establish a more sustainable balance between people and the planet.

### 2.1 Landscapes: why and why now?

As a response to the above described trend, landscape approaches have gained ground in the global debate on nature conservation, human development, biodiversity, food security, climate change, and planetary health. Landscape approaches, so it is believed, offer new opportunities to conceptualise the complex relations between humans and nature, calling for more integrated forms of conservation and natural resources management, with the aim to reconcile conservation and development objectives within a single space. The underlying notion of multifunctional land use offers opportunities to combine production, consumption and protection. This means that through a landscape approach, so it is believed, the inhabitants' food needs can be combined with nature conservation and economic development, through smart use of the available space. Experiences from other territorial and spatial planning methodologies (*'gestion de terroir'* and others) are applied to combining stakeholder interests instead of juxtaposing them, through stakeholder dialogue around the use of space. Use of modern technologies such as spatial modelling and scenario analysis is often helpful, as it gives stakeholders insight into the possible consequences of their preferred land use.

A landscape approach departs from the idea that problems such as food insecurity, biodiversity loss and climate change are highly interrelated, and cannot be solved at the community level alone. Strengthening communities' resilience therefore requires action beyond the strictly local, systemically addressing the drivers of these problems, which are usually to be found beyond the communities' sphere of influence. A multi-scalar and cross-sectoral approach is therefore the only way to solve 'wicked' problems from the multiple scales at which these are caused. By creating the enabling conditions for communities to engage in multi-scalar networks, they increase their locus of control, connect to larger market dynamics and can make better use of wider policy frames. From such a landscape perspective, strengthening communities within landscapes enables them to cope with these uncertainties, and position themselves firmly within local, national and international debates on mitigation and adaptation measures.

### 2.2 Landscape approach in science

There is a large body of literature underpinning landscape approaches, divided over various disciplines, each highlighting different aspects of the relation between humans and their environment. The word landscape itself is an expression of this relation. It is derived from the old Germanic word *landscipe* or *landscaef*, which implies an anthropocentric view on land as an area, region or territory where people belong to, as *scipe* or *scaef* which refers to the act of shaping an area or land. It builds on the notion that landscapes have their own identity and meaning, expressed in a landscape's cultural and biocultural heritage, a view which translated into a deep respect for indigenous culture and identity. In some cases, this has led to a narrow

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<sup>1</sup> We recognise that there are multiple landscape approaches (see chapter 3.2). Yet for reasons of readability we will from now on use the word 'landscape approach', acknowledging that this is not entirely correct.

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view of landscapes as *unique and isolated places of socio-territorial belonging*, feeding an exclusionary debate of who does and who doesn't belong. In other cases, it led to a more dynamic view on landscapes as constantly changing because of external influences such as mobile capital, new technologies, migration and globalisation (van Oosten, 2021).

The landscape approach was first embraced by conservation organisations who used to study the natural processes and ecological functions in untouched landscapes, with the aim to protect individual species and ecological integrity while ignoring the role of people. This view however could not hold in the growing recognition of the presence of humans and their role within landscapes. A focus on *landscapes as providers of ecosystem services* appeared to be more realistic, highlighting the primary role of landscapes as providers of food and livelihoods (ibid.).

The landscape approach gained traction among development organisations and practitioners, who consider landscapes to be the ideal level to promote rural economic development. More than merely providers of food and livelihoods, they consider landscapes to form the basis of wider production systems, markets, and value chains of which these communities take part. This dual function of landscapes is increasingly fuelling the debate on sustainable and equitable development, considering the many cases of 'commodification of natural resources' and the privatization of production processes, in which a landscape's primary focus is on providing for national and international markets, at the expense of local inhabitants, leading to monocultural production systems, social problems, displacement of indigenous and other communities, loss of biodiversity or agrobiodiversity and environmental degradation. Global attention to this problem has led to a small but growing group of private sector actors (primary producers, manufacturers and retailers) who started to look beyond their supply chains, searching for alternative production models which are more sustainable and just (van Oosten & Merten, 2021).

Looking at landscapes not only as geographically defined *places* but also as wider *spaces* where local and global networks intersect, helps in understanding why landscapes are not only influenced by local drivers, but also by global drivers, driving global commodity chains, migrant flows, interest and ideas. Strategic positioning within such global processes and networks offers landscapes and their stakeholders an opportunity to build relations within and outside of their landscapes, engage in dialogue, and attract external support. Global networks such as the Global Partnership on Forest and Landscape Restoration, the Global Landscapes Forum, the Landscapes for People, Food and Nature, and most recently the UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration enables landscape stakeholders to position themselves and their landscapes within global debates on food, biodiversity and climate change.

Within these ecological and economic considerations however the political aspect remained underexposed. Critical scholars therefore started to highlight the importance of bringing in a broader political perspective, emphasising not only the role of people, but also their sources of power and the way in which this power is employed to shape, manage and govern a landscape. Instead of looking at landscapes merely as habitats, livelihoods or sourcing areas, they raised the notion of *landscapes as arenas of competition between stakeholders who attach different values to a landscape's functions and services*, causing conflict between stakeholders. Whereas stakeholder platforms and processes have been promoted as instruments to overcome such stakeholder conflict through dialogue, politically oriented scholars have criticised this notion, claiming that dialogue is not sufficient as real trade-offs can only be handled through political negotiations which usually are politically laden. They say that instead of solving problems, multi-stakeholder platforms rather lead to power disparities and new inequalities, as they tend to serve the interests of some more than of others. They tend to divide stakeholders into winners and losers, herewith failing in achieving their aims (Arts et al., 2017).

## 2.3 Landscape approach in action

By the turn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century many international organisations had adopted some form of a landscape approach. Conservation programmes who used to focus on large scale nature conservation programmes based on 'grand-design' of ecoregions turned into a more flexible way of thinking. Being heavily criticized by human rights groups and Indigenous Peoples, they started to move away from the strict segregation

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between natural areas and inhabited land, to a stronger integration of protection-production land, acknowledging that conservation can best be done with and by local actors. Integrating the ecological with the socio-cultural, productive and political dimension led to the so-called *Integrated Landscape Approach (ILA)*, which became popular among international organisations and practitioners from various strands (for examples, see Appendix 1).

It was in 2013 that a group of scholars and practitioners wrote the frequently quoted article '*The Ten Principles of a Landscape Approach to Reconciling Agriculture, Conservation and Other Competing Land Uses*' (see box below), which define landscape approaches to be '*a long-term collaborative process bringing together diverse stakeholders aiming to achieve a balance between multiple and sometimes conflicting objectives in a landscape or seascape*' (Sayer et al., 2013). These ten principles highlight the importance of stakeholder engagement, negotiated choices and spatial decisions based on rights and responsibilities regarding sustainable land use. Many projects and programmes adopted the ten principles, as they considered these to be a solid basis for inclusive, democratic, and transparent project design. Multi-stakeholder platforms and processes emerged everywhere, as a means for uniting stakeholders in a process of deliberation, joint visioning and strategizing, with the outcome of more or less participatorily designed spatial programmes and plans. Many of these multi-stakeholder platforms and processes were based on the belief that win-win solutions can be achieved through multi-stakeholder dialogue alone. The result was a rather managerial approach of project cycle management in which the facilitation of multistakeholder processes was key (see e.g. the '[Little Sustainable Landscape Book](#)'). For more examples, see Appendix 1.

**The Ten Principles for a Landscape Approach (Sayer et al., 2013) can be summarised as follows:**

1. The dynamic nature of landscapes forms the basis for continual learning and adaptive Management;
2. Intervention strategies are built on common concerns and shared negotiation;
3. Landscape processes are shaped by influences from multiple scales;
4. Landscapes are multifunctional by nature, which requires choices and trade-offs;
5. Multiple stakeholders frame objectives differently, hence all stakeholders need to be engaged;
6. Trust among stakeholders is crucial to build up a negotiated and transparent change logic;
7. Clarification of rights and responsibilities, especially regarding land and resource use, is a necessity;
8. Monitoring of progress has to be done in a participatory and user-friendly manner;
9. System-wide resilience is to be achieved through recognising threats and vulnerabilities, and the capacity to resist and respond;
10. The complexity of landscape processes requires strong capabilities of all stakeholders involved.

This rather managerial look at multi-stakeholder processes led to new critics that questioned the ten principles, stating that the principles are too strongly focused on process design, and the false belief that adopting the principles will automatically generate win-win solutions. Many landscape programmes, so it was said, fall short in a deeper analysis of formal decision-making authority, power inequalities, legitimate spatial decision making and justice. This led to a series of articles on *landscape governance*, highlighting the political character of multistakeholder platforms and processes, and their lack of embeddedness in formal structures of spatial decision making and trade-offs. New methodologies and frameworks for governance assessment, strengthening and capacity development were criticized, because these rarely align with existing governance arrangements and are poorly embedded in formal decision-making structures of states. The result is that many of these mechanisms remain informal and lack the legitimacy to make firm decisions and have these effectuated.

## 2.4 Landscape approach for climate, business & finance and human rights

With this plethora of perspectives and applications, it can be stated that landscape approaches are here to stay. Especially within the light of today's concurrent global crises, it is increasingly realised that health, climate change, food security and biodiversity loss are interrelated. For interventions solving those issues to be effective, they have to be tackled in synchrony, not only in horizontal terms (creating spatial synergies

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within landscapes) but also vertically (aligning locally led adaptation to regional and national policies and global politics). After all, degraded land and resource depletion implies a high risk of human disaster, conflict, displacement and migration which are globally on the increase. It is particularly in the light of climate change that a landscape approach is promoted. As deforestation and agricultural land use can be held responsible for approximately 28% of global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, an important part of the combat against the negative impacts of climate change needs to be found in halting deforestation and changing agricultural production patterns and land use. Well managed and maintained landscapes result in healthy ecosystems that build a landscape's resilience. It reduces its vulnerability to climate change, by increasing its adaptive capacity to manage risks and disasters, and produce food while also sequestering carbon in soils and biomass.

Restoring deforested and degraded landscapes are therefore increasingly considered a good mechanism to adapt to and mitigate climate change, while at the same time contributing to satisfying the global demands for food, fiber and fuel. Studies show that more than two billion hectares worldwide offer opportunities for restoration, which has brought together a global coalition of international organizations and governments under the umbrella of the Global Partnership on Forest Landscape Restoration (GPFLR<sup>2</sup>). The GPFLR launched the so-called 'Bonn Challenge' for restoring 150 million hectares of lost forests and degraded lands worldwide, which culminated into the UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration, launched in June 2021, with its regional spin-offs (see Appendix 1 for some eco-restoration oriented landscape approaches). Novel financial mechanisms are to leverage public funding and attract private funding seeing investment in landscapes as the start of a '*restoration economy*' replacing the carbon-based economy of the past. In response to the 2015 Paris Climate Agreement, COP 26 in Glasgow (2021) presented a range of public-private funds, introducing new financial instruments such as Green Bonds, Carbon Credits and Landscape Funds to allow for such restoration economy, leading to economic, ecological, and social returns.

However positive, there is increased concern on the technocratic implementation models, and the over-emphasis on reforestation and afforestation. Many civil society organisations warn for new struggles on resource rights, and unequal distribution of the economic, ecological, and social returns. If there is no clarity on the costs and benefits of restoration, the voice of landscape inhabitants and local people need to be raised. Rights based approaches are not new in environmental rights thinking, but it is new in the global landscapes debate. It is the European Landscape Convention that introduced a rights-based thinking on landscapes, as it states that '*a landscape is a key element of individual and social well-being, and that its protection, conservation, management and planning entrails rights and responsibilities of everyone involved*' (Déjeant-Pons, 2006). This opened the floor to a debate on what 'landscape rights' more precisely entail. Landscape rights, so it has been accepted, are broader than land tenure, as it represents a 'bundle of rights' which includes the right to use or own natural resources, the right to produce, including the right to technology, capital to invest, and access to markets, and the right to take part in spatial decision-making (van Oosten & Merten, 2021). Landscape rights also imply there are responsibilities, for landscape inhabitants, companies and governments to maintain and protect the environment for its future use. In practice, much depends on national legal and regulatory frameworks, which often fall short, as they are marked by unclarity, inequality or ambiguity on the distribution of rights to access, use and control<sup>3</sup>.

In an attempt to develop a Rights Based Landscape Approach (RBLA) WWF and IUCN developed a framework to address the unclarity, inequalities and ambiguities on the distribution of rights to access, use and control of resources (van Oosten & Merten, 2021). This framework addresses issues of legal pluralism, which is a breeding ground for confusion, manipulation, and power plays, especially in globalising economies where local institutions are overshadowed by external regulating mechanisms. Especially when these mechanisms are not embedded in national legislation but remain informal, there is the risk of informality, leaving the protection of rights to the voluntary will of private actors who may not make just decisions. The development of a RBLA is still in its infancy, and questions regarding who can claim landscape rights, which responsibilities or duties does this entail, and how to build accountability mechanisms in landscapes which exceed jurisdictional boundaries are left to be answered.

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<sup>2</sup> The Global Partnership on Forest Landscape Restoration is a network of governments, organizations, communities and individuals that aims for catalysing examples of restoration that deliver benefits to local communities and to nature. Information available at [www.forestlandscaperestoration.org](http://www.forestlandscaperestoration.org).

<sup>3</sup> see also: [Towards universal recognition of the right to a healthy environment - Blogs | IUCN and HRC46 | Human Rights Depend on a Healthy Biosphere – Geneva Environment Network](#).

## 2.5 Landscape approach: the latest trends

After decennia of separation between nature conservation, local development and sustainable sourcing, the landscape approach provided an alternative towards more integrated thinking. It has a strong focus on the conservation and management of ecosystems, but within the context of social systems, putting a landscape's inhabitants and otherwise resource users at the core. A landscape approach sometimes seems to overlap with natural resources management and integrated water management, but it has become more political, with issues of stakeholder engagement and spatial decision making it to the fore. It is not focused on one type of resource only (i.e. water), and it aims to not just strive for environmental outcomes, but for the combination of environmental, social and economic outcomes. The entry point of a landscape approach is surely spatial, but considering space not as merely an area, locality or place, but a networked space where multiple local, regional and global networks intersect. Building bridges between these intersecting networks is key, but hard to be done in practice. Identifying and interacting upon the multiple interests of land uses and land users is not just a matter of smart technical solutions, but requires a delicate process of negotiation, weighing best-win options and trade-offs, leading to new dynamics between stakeholders involved. But once carefully designed and implemented, a landscape approach offers the opportunity to interconnect local manifestations of environmental challenges to their drivers which may come from higher levels of scale. It may also interconnect local adaptation initiatives to wider landscape dynamics, which allow for spatial synergies such as upstream-downstream linkages which cannot be addressed through a community approach. Building on these spatial synergies, so it is increasingly acknowledged, allows for the design of larger spatial plans integrating multiple local initiatives into a larger programme, offering opportunities for larger investments and more systemic environmental action. Donors and investors increasingly ask for such larger programmes which are more efficient, as they allow for setting aside larger sums of money and spreading risks. New financial models based on public-private funding are increasingly based on these principles, and supported with novel methods for geospatial modelling and scenario analysis to be supportive to stakeholder dialogue. Yet these techniques may also lead to new dependencies on experts and donors, and require considerable investments in the process of engaging stakeholders and enabling them to take part in wider spatial analysis and decision making.



**Figure 1** climate interventions within a wider landscape approach (WUR, 2018).

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## 2.6 Landscape approach: some key points to consider

Landscape approaches have evolved from merely conservation oriented thinking to integrated thinking, combining multiple objectives into multifunctional use of space. There has been a constant back-and-forth movement from technocratic management and planning to more political engagement in negotiating land use and decision-making. The focus of landscape interventions has also moved back-and-forth, from spatial planning and management to convening stakeholders to actively engage. Relatively new is the focus on landscape governance, emphasising the role of negotiation and informed decision making, to level the political playing field. However relevant, this debate may be overshadowed by the current global climate debate in which landscapes are increasingly seen as an opportunity for carbon offsets, while landscape governance is considered an instrument for stakeholder management to implement large scale and externally designed restoration programmes. This trend justifies the development of a People's Landscape Approach which places landscape inhabitants, local populations, indigenous peoples, women and youth back into the core.

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## 3 Nepal as a context for applying a People's Landscape Approach

The Hindu Kush Himalaya region represents one of the world's most diverse landscapes. The region harbours the sources of the most important rivers including the Yellow River, Yangtze, Mekong, Irrawaddy, Ganges-Brahmaputra-Meghna and the Indus, which provide livelihoods to more than 3 billion people living in the region's river basins and downstream deltas. The resilience of the Hindu Kush Himalaya and the appropriate management and governance of its land- and waterscapes is therefore of utmost importance to the entire Asian mainland.

### 3.1 Nepal's geography and its major landscapes

Nepal as a country is often divided into distinct landscape zones based on altitude, distinguishing three more-or-less East-West stretching zones: the lowlands (Terai), the foothills and the mountain ranges. The most Northern part of the mountains could even be considered a fourth zone, as it lies on the Tibetan plateau, and is much drier, as it receives receiving less precipitation than elsewhere in Nepal and is therefore much drier. The Ministry of Forest and Soil Conservation utilizes a separate landscape classification system based on ecological/ecosystem characteristics defining a landscape's suitability for forest and nature conservation: the Terai Arc Landscape, the Sacred Himalayan Landscape, the Kailash Sacred Landscape, the Chitwan Annapurna Landscape, and the Kanchenjunga Landscape (Government of Nepal, 2016). Within any of these zoning systems, Nepal's landscapes have distinct socio-cultural characteristics. The landscapes located in the foothills and mountain ranges are highly isolated, as the valleys are divided by hills and mountain ranges which are poorly connected, explaining their relative remoteness which enabled them to maintain their cultural uniqueness and indigenous identity. People living in these areas form part of a mosaic of semi-isolated populations which, despite intermittent migration, justifies the use of the term of Indigenous Peoples, as each valley may be inhabited by a socially and culturally distinct group. They have strong cultural identities, and, despite contemporary changes, keep their customs and traditions alive. They are closely attached to their land and adhere important spiritual values to the many landscape elements such as mountains, wind, rocks, trees, and animals. They represent a strong spiritual bond between people and their place, leading to a strong 'sense of place' and 'sense of belonging', expressed in rich biocultural diversity, and a biocultural heritage that is still very much alive.

**During the interviews, respondents made the following comments:**

'Climate change and biodiversity loss are not the only issues of importance in Nepal. Also traditional knowledge is rapidly disappearing, because of globalization and lifestyle change. The government policies strengthen the importance of economic wealth, but forgets about the spiritual richness which is highly valued by a landscape's inhabitants. Biodiversity and cultural diversity go hand-in-hand, and it is this biocultural diversity that makes us resilient to shocks and stresses, including climate change'.

### 3.2 Nepal's socio-economic trends

Nepal's economy is growing, with a GDP projected to increase by a factor of five by 2030 (IDS-Nepal, 2014). Economic growth however is mainly limited to the urban areas meaning that urbanization rates are up to 4-5% increase every year (Borgen project, 2019). Some distinguish Kathmandu valley with its strongly urbanized high population density and an agglomerate of more industrial activities as a separate landscape, not based on altitude, but on its specific destination as social, political and economic core. Despite this spatial concentration of economic growth, it is still the agricultural sector that accounts for around 75% of employment and around 33% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The sector is predominantly made up of



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small-scale farming and much of this is dependent on natural rainfall, though there is a growing level of irrigation for agricultural purposes. In 2020, approximately 80% of the population in Nepal resides in rural areas, where indigenous stewardship practices prevail, leading to a mosaic of stewardship economies. These stewardship economies used to be highly effective, yet currently are under severe pressure, leading to increasing vulnerability to climate change. The major threat is that increasingly erratic rainfall patterns result into a combination of water shortage and floods, which is hard to adapt to. Moreover, water is key to Nepal's power production, as hydroelectric plants provide around 90% of total electricity. There is high population growth projected for Nepal, with an increase from 30 million today to around 46 million by 2050. This will increase the demand on land-use, natural resources and water, resulting into an increase of the number of people affected by climate change.

Mobility of the Nepali population has always been high. Several waves of political turmoil led to a high number internally displaced persons (IDPs) estimated at over 100,000 (IDMC, 2020), especially in the western part of the country. Also, the 2015 earthquake caused large displacement, and brought the amount of natural hazard related IDPs to about 28,000 (ibid.). Over the past decades, international migration for foreign employment has become a major source of income for a many Nepali households. Remittances have become a major contributing factor to increasing household income as well as to the national GDP. In 2019/2020, remittance inflows topped Rs. 875 billion or about 23 per cent of the national GDP (NRB, 2020).

All these dynamics put growing pressure on the productive and densely populated but fragile hillsides, valleys and floodplains in the Terai. Environmental degradation induced floods, landslides and soil loss are a direct result of this, which, together with regular droughts and earthquakes leads to a high level of disaster risk, leading to high social and economic costs. In economic terms, the costs of degradation are estimated at 1-5% of production, expressed in low agricultural yields and low energy production (IDS Nepal, 2014). In social terms, the costs are much higher, as reflected in poverty, food insecurity, and relatively low standards of living.

Nepal has quite a high adaptation deficit, which means that the country's responsiveness to climate change is relatively low (IDS Nepal, 2014). Meanwhile, climate change projections for Nepal assume an increase in temperature and more variable precipitation with more frequent extreme rainfall and droughts and glacial melting to be expected. This will lead to a higher frequency of flood events and landslides, exacerbated by periodic glacial lakes outbursts. As a result, crop yields are expected to decrease in the lowlands (Terai), while they may increase in the hilly areas.

### 3.3 The Nepali policy context as an entry point for a PLA

For centuries, Nepal used to be a monarchy, but in 1990 it entered a new phase of multi-party democracy. The new Nepali constitution transformed Nepal in 2015 into a federal democratic republic with three government tiers: central (federal), provincial and local. Most sector ministries and departments at the federal level have been downsized or restructured as several functions have been devolved to subnational governments. This offers new opportunities for local governments to design and implement its own policies and plans, which may provide a fertile ground for the development of a PLA.

Nepal is well known for its strong legal frameworks on forests, the environment, and decentralisation. The forest laws regulate the management of forests, national and wildlife (National Forest Act, 1993, see Appendix 2). This regulatory framework is marked by a strong community forestry component which allows communities to manage natural resources and combine conservation with livelihood goals. This makes Nepal a champion of community forestry, and its model based on public participation in forest conservation includes the design and management of buffer zones, through local user groups or Community Forest User Groups (CFUGs) directly falling under local governments. Besides, the Environmental Protection Act (1997) sets the rules for managing Nepal's territory outside its national parks. It emphasises the relation between natural heritage, biodiversity, and environment protection, and grants fundamental rights to citizens to live in a clean and healthy environment. It aims to balance environmental goals with development goals, and considers environmental protection as an important pillar of Nepal's economy. It secures citizens as right

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holders to mitigate adverse environmental impact of climate change, obliging the State to secure its citizen's environmental rights.

The Local Self-governance Act (1994) facilitates participatory governance through a structure of subsidiary Village Development Committees, Municipality and District Development, Ward Division and Ward Committees, which have direct representations into local governments. Local governments in turn do not only implement national policies and plans, but also formulate their own territorial policies regarding land use planning, and co-management of natural resources including forests. It makes municipalities responsible for solid waste management as well as local land use planning, with the aim to guarantee food security, safe human settlement and balanced economic development for its constituencies. They are mandated by law to actively mobilize and allocate funds, under the condition that fixed percentages are spent on women, children, and marginalized groups. This legal framework allows citizens to claim their citizen's rights and take up their responsibilities, while obliging the State to take up its role of securing the rights of its citizens.

The Integrated Landscape Planning Directives (2012) combine parts of the above-mentioned frameworks, while providing clear steps for engaging stakeholders in the planning process, and build institutional arrangements such as the Landscape Coordination Committee (chaired by a member of Nepal Planning Commission), a Landscape Working Group and the Landscape Support Unit, both steered by the Ministry of Forestry and Soil Conservation. With this, Nepal is very well positioned to balance conservation and development at the landscape level, and bring all relevant stakeholders together into a joint process of landscape planning. Nepal has seven formally recognised landscapes which are Terai Arc Landscape (TAL); Sacred Himalayan Landscape (SHL); Kanchenjunga Landscape (KL); Kailash Sacred Landscape (KSL); Chitwan-Annapurna Landscape (CHAL); Karnali Conservation Landscape (KCL); Eastern-Chure-Terai Complex (ECTC), all of which are formally labelled as conservation landscapes. Within the conservation sector, there are several instruments in place to coordinate and align different policies within landscapes. However innovative the Integrated Landscape Planning Directives and their policy instruments are, they are solely focused on conservation areas therefore their outcomes are restricted to the designated conservation landscapes alone. Moreover, they are strongly biased on forest productivity, biodiversity, carbon-based climate resilience and local livelihoods, but hardly connect to the biocultural diversity of conservation landscapes, communities' access to and control over resources, and empowering communities to take part in wider spatial decision making. This all means that, despite the innovative character of forest related policies, they do not offer a link to wider spatial planning which would make it a multi-sector based entry point for a PLA.

**During the interviews, respondents made the following comments:**

'There are lot of regulations in the conservation areas that restrict the use the resources for local people. The Government has turned the land into protected areas to be able to take control. However, there are indigenous communities living in these areas, who have taken care of the area even long before the government came into power'. Others commented by saying 'We are supporting indigenous communities to manage their resources and to raise their voices, which is needed since local development initiatives were excluded from the land use plan'.

The Constitution of Nepal (2015) has guaranteed the right to live in clean environment as the fundamental right of each person. The Directive Principles of the State has mentioned that the State should manage the necessary provision for a clean environment, and to protect the environment, while carrying out activities related to physical infrastructure development, protect rare wildlife, forest and biodiversity, and utilizing these sustainably while sharing their benefits equitably. The Nepali government states that the people's participation is inevitable for the effective implementation of the above-mentioned legal and policy framework. This has been formulated in the Environment-friendly Local Governance Framework (EGLF, GoN, 2013). While in principle the ELGF creates the enabling environment for inclusive and participatory landscape governance, the reality may be more challenging, which justifies the development and application of a PLA.

The new Water Resources Policy was defined in 2020 and introduces a number of interesting changes such as the introduction of Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM). Its implementation however is challenged by multiple institutional barriers. Instead of having one responsible government body (which could be the Water and Energy Commission), IWRM in practice is fragmented across several institutions,

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while roles and responsibilities of sub-national governments are not yet defined. Sub-national water management responsibilities will need to be further clarified under the new federalization process and capacities need to be strengthened (SWP, 2021). There are plans for the development of a sub-national IWRM framework, but so far, IWRM is implemented as a compilation of donor-funded pilot projects (Suhardiman et al., 2015). Positive results of these projects show that IWRM could provide an entry point for a PLA, as it aims to connect stakeholders depending on the same water source, even across jurisdictional boundaries (like for example in Koshi and Mahakali Basins). Furthering the development of Nepal's IWRM framework could therefore be a good entry point for implementing a PLA.

### 3.4 Connecting the pieces of the puzzle: whose task?

As said, Nepal has a great policy framework for integrated with landscape approaches within the conservation sector, but has not yet managed to connect this to other policy sectors such as agriculture, water, infrastructure, industrial development, energy, urbanisation and health. Nevertheless, many lessons can be drawn from the conservation sector, to be implemented at a wider scale. Nepal's conservation sector successfully combines conservation and development objectives within designated conservation areas where conservation is the main landscape function, as legitimised by law. This means that the challenges of conflicting interests mainly lie outside of the conservation areas, where competing claims are widespread, making it harder to integrate environmental concerns into production, economic development, industrialisation and infrastructural disclosure. Policy conflicts may easily arise between for example environmental protection versus urban expansion, or agricultural production versus large-scale reforestation of agricultural land. It is in these cases where spatial decision making becomes hard, as trade-offs may have to be made.

In theory, the task of combining policy objectives is the task of local governments. But in practice, local governments do not always have the adequate institutional capacity to undertake this difficult task. Moreover, local governments operate within jurisdictional boundaries which often do not tally with the socio-ecological boundaries of landscapes. Flows of resources from central to more local level is slow, implying the risk of limited funding for the locally produced policies and plans, weak spending capacity of governmental implementing agencies, and poor alignment between sectorial defined rules and regulations. As a result, unclarity on roles and responsibilities between jurisdictions, overlaps, duplications, and ambiguities among government tiers remain (ibid.).

It is here where a PLA could add value, as it aims to facilitate informed negotiation and transparent (spatial) decision making, striving for more equal power relations between stakeholders, with more sustainable results. Literature suggests that it is the landscape level which is the most appropriate level for such negotiations. It is here where spatial synergies can be created and difficult trade-offs can be made, as combining multiple objectives is part of a landscape's inhabitants' daily lives. Moving the locus of control from a single jurisdiction to a landscape which may cover multiple jurisdictions is herein the way forward. This does not mean that the role of local governments should be hollowed out or overtaken, but that local governments should be supported and assisted in crafting policy instruments that work for the landscape and its people, in collaboration with adjacent jurisdictions wherever needed.

### 3.5 From government to governance

The above mentioned problems are not typical for Nepal, although they may be more visible in Nepal where the decentralisation process started relatively late. In general terms, decentralisation breaks the government's monopoly on governing public affairs and invites private and civic parties to share in public decision-making power. This helps society to move away from hierarchical forms of governance to a more horizontal form of governance, where networks of actors take responsibility over the organisation of public space. Nepal's Social welfare Act (2009<sup>4</sup>) provides a legal framework to make such a shift, as it states that collaboration between local governments and national and international NGOs is encouraged, as it

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<sup>4</sup> <http://swc.org.np/pages/459>

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strengthens the institutional capacity of local governments and creates a mechanism for stronger collaboration with private and civic actors. Yet in practice, NGOs are pressured to align with national and regional priorities which do not always have space for more creative bottom up planning. One of the explaining factors may relate to the socio-political legacy of the centralist monarchical regime and the often caste-based local feudalistic and elitist leadership in the more remote rural areas of Nepal which may still be felt present.

**During the interviews, respondents made the following comments:**

‘The boundary between the authorities of national and local governments is not always clear. There are often conflicts between national policy guidelines and local applications, as the two levels of policy formulation do not match. This needs to be changed, not through confrontation but through dialogue, by strengthening the position of local people within the local government. If they take part in the policy process, they are in the position to negotiate, and secure their rights’.

### 3.6 Policy context: some key points to consider

Various policies have been developed to create a new institutional environment in which ideally spoken authorities base their decisions on more participatory agenda setting, planning and decision making. However, many landscape or catchment plans, land use plans and regional development plans are still designed in national or provincial capitals, commissioned to private consultancy firms, and designed in a technocratic and top-down manner. Whereas local governments have been given far reaching mandates in terms of spatial policy integration and planning, they often lack the capacities to do so. In theory, landscape approaches could be the vehicle to build landscape governance arrangements that give a more meaningful interpretation to participatory planning. This could help to build-up a bottom-up governance system in which landscape actors design and implement landscape plans which are more sustainable and inclusive, and are legitimised by landscape actors, and endorsed and administered by local governments. In practice however, more has to be done to create a level playing field between local and central authorities, and create landscape governance arrangements that work.

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## 4 The work of Oxfam Nepal and partners as a starting point

If Oxfam's PLA will be piloted by Oxfam Nepal and partners, it will be of utmost importance to have a good understanding of the work that Oxfam Nepal and partners already do, the aims that are pursued, and the strategies that are employed to achieve these aims. After all, it is the current work of Oxfam Nepal and partners that serves as a springboard for the kickstart of a PLA. Shifting from its current approach to a PLA may imply necessary changes, hence it is important to know beforehand what these changes would entail. All the information provided in this chapter has been derived from the interviews that were conducted with Oxfam Novib, Oxfam Nepal and Oxfam Nepal's partners, complemented with the outcomes of the three workshops that were held.

### 4.1 Oxfam Nepal and its partners' key values and ways of working

Looking at the visions, missions, values and strategies of Oxfam and its partners in Nepal, one common denominator is found in the principle that they all strive toward a better world for people. All partners strive toward creating a society where people are as much as possible free from fears and able to enjoy their rights, prosper, and live in a just society and a healthy environment.

Some of the partners focus more specifically on marginalized social groups like women, young people, poor or landless farmers living in remote areas. All of them acknowledge the importance of being aware of social divisions that exist within Nepal for example resulting from the caste system, but also from the unequal welfare distribution. Nepal's hilly and mountainous landscapes imply fragmentation of remote and isolated places inhabited by Indigenous Peoples each having their own specific way of life. Targeting Indigenous Peoples is common practice in Oxfam and partners' work. Partners tend to focus on people's development in the rural areas of Nepal, whilst some of them also occasionally work in peri-urban regions, or at least take into account the rural-urban nexus.

Oxfam's and the partners' development contributions are geared towards a number of widely-accepted societal goals which can easily be linked to the various Sustainable Development Goals:

- Overall poverty eradication and livelihood and economic development including providing access to finance for communities.
- Increasing food and water security and public health.
- Building community-based resilience to climate change, disaster and other risks.
- Ensuring sustainable management and use of natural resources including reducing possible adverse impact from agriculture and other economic activities.
- Developing a just society where people can claim their human rights and where costs and benefits of development are equitably shared over various social groups based on the principles of good governance.
- Empowerment of marginalized groups within Nepal society including women, young and landless people such that their voice and agency are increased.

To achieve these goals partners apply a range of generally accepted development strategies:

- *Capacity development* of individuals, communities and other actors, including piloting and upscaling of agricultural and market development practices and institutions, development of community-based organisations and linking these to other actors and processes.
- Rights-based approach measures including *awareness raising* and *empowerment and mobilization* of individuals, communities and other actors.
- *Knowledge development and technical backstopping* supporting development and policy processes such as the ones on ecosystem functioning and/or the natural hazards mapping for the Land Use Plan, including advocacy for the use and application of indigenous knowledge.
- *Evidence-based advocacy and policy influencing* to create more inclusive and participatory governance.

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Oxfam and partners mostly work through conventional project implementation modalities: working in and with communities in often donor-financed projects. There is strong collaboration with other actors such as other NGOs, CSOs and often also representations of local authorities. Sometimes private sector actors are involved as well. In a few cases, inter-project or inter-programme coordination and pooling of resources happens between like-minded organisations, to increase impact.

## 4.2 Other national programmes and initiatives relevant for PLA

From the government side there are a number of programmes that are partly or completely landscape focused, and therefore relevant to this study.

The *Poverty Environment Initiative* (PEI) is a UN funded programme implemented by the government since the 1990s. Its overall goal is to support poverty reduction and inclusive development by integrating climate and environmental concerns and opportunities of the poor into development planning and economic-decision making. It is set up to integrate environmental concerns of poor women and men into planning, budgeting and economic decisions especially at the local level. It builds on the Local Self Governance Act (see chapter 3), and strives for the mainstreaming of environmental and climate goals in the process of integrated development planning at the local level. It supports a bottom-up participatory approach of preparing an integrated village development plan called a Village Level Development Plan (VLDP), which does not always tally with other Forestry and NRM legislation. The PEI does not explicitly work with a landscape approach, but could considerably benefit from its thinking, in terms of scaling community based structures to larger landscape structures and arrangements (UNEP/UNDP 2010).

The *Integrated Landscape Management to Secure Nepal's Protected Areas and Critical Corridors* is funded by the Global Environmental Facility (GEF) and managed by WWF and partners. It focuses on the Terai Arc Landscape (TAL), and is based on a landscape management approach to ensure that buffer zones around Protected Areas and corridors connecting Protected Areas are well managed to protect region's large ranging mammals, including tigers, rhinos, and elephants. The project expects to improve the management of approximately 2.5 million hectares, and mitigate over 1 million tons of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (GEF, 2020)

The *Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework* (IPPF) is funded by GEF, and implemented by the Ministry of Forestry and Soil Conservation. It aims at connecting Nepal's protected areas through the application of an integrated landscape management (ILM) approach, to conserve forests and wildlife, biodiversity and ecosystems that provide livelihoods to the people of the Terai Arc Landscape (TAL). It combines sustainable forest and land management through community based natural resource management, while also conserving large mammals and other species. It strives for cross-sectoral coordination, integrated planning and forest and wildlife management, all in order to promote forest and landscape conservation (MOFE, 2019).

## 4.3 Key Nepali landscape issues that require a PLA

Nepal seems to be ready for a transition towards building a sustainable and just economy, and its policy context seems favourable for doing so. Nevertheless, there is a range of issues remaining, which hamper such a transition to take place. These are the typical 'wicked' problems, which are marked by a high level of complexity, for which a single sector approach would not suffice. It is for these issues that a landscape approach would be appropriate, as this would help unravelling the drivers behind, and their manifestations in different sectors and at multiple scales. With its new PLA, Oxfam and partners would be well positioned to address these issues. Although a PLA would not provide direct solutions to these problems, it would provide a framework to address these in a systemic and integrated manner, and herewith justifies the development and application of a PLA. These problematic issues as mentioned by the respondents during the interviews and the workshops are the following:

1. *Climate change*: Climate change is increasingly threatening Nepal's landscapes. It increases the uncertainty of agricultural production, and the vulnerabilities to disasters such as floods, droughts and landslides. It influences rainfall and river discharges, and provides risks for water availability and food

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security. Adapting to climate change requires an increase of Nepal's adaptive capacities, to be able to respond to shocks and stresses, and adapt to change. This requires insight into the impact of certain land use and land use changes, upstream-downstream dynamics, and creating synergy between interventions to adapt to or mitigate climate change, i.e. improved floodplain management, ecosystem restoration, disaster risk reduction and building community resilience.

2. *Agro-biodiversity*: Nepal consists of a mosaic of many smaller landscapes, each having their small micro-climates, genetic resources and agro-biodiversity. Safeguarding these genetic resources is of utmost importance to maintain and increase food system resilience. As agrobiodiversity is the result of the interaction between the environment, the genetic resources within a specific landscape and the management practices used by culturally diverse peoples, maintenance of agro-biodiversity requires a process of supporting current agro-biodiverse production systems, maintaining local knowledge and culture, and reduce the pressure of agriculture on fragile areas, forests and endangered species (FAO, 2004).
3. *Managing the Himalaya Gold*: One of these Nepali wonders of bio-diversity is *Yarshaghumba* (*Himalaya gold/caterpillar-fungus* combination). This organism is considered medicinal within the Chinese culture. Yarshaghumba is found in some of the high-altitude micro-landscapes of Nepal and often particularly in the nature conservation areas. Thousands of temporal migrants flock to these areas to illegally collect this plant as it is an important internationally traded commodity. Conflicts often arise between local communities, park rangers and collectors, jeopardising the sustainable management of these fragile landscapes.
4. *Wildlife trafficking*: Nepal's most iconic species are the Bengal tigers, Asian elephants, the greater one-horned rhino, and the pangolins, all of which are facing threats from poachers who sell skins, horns and body parts to organised criminal networks linked to international wildlife trade. Wildlife trafficking not only decimates Nepali wildlife, but harms local communities. It draws criminality into the rural areas, and criminalises poorer segments of society in their efforts to secure their livelihoods.
5. *Energy*: The demand for energy is largely met by hydropower generation through the country's high hydropower potential. Nepal is intending to even increase hydropower generation by building additional dams and electricity infrastructure. The large space that these hydropower infrastructures require seriously affects landscape dynamics, including upstream-downstream dynamics, river ecosystem functioning, the delivery of ecosystem services, the protection of the riparian zones, and issues related to land use and land tenure.
6. *Sand- and gravel mining*: In many river beds sand and gravel is mined in support of infrastructural projects and urban expansion. This commercialized and privatized sand-mining industry certainly affects communities, as it jeopardises the water quality, and influences the ecosystems of rivers and their riparian zones.
7. *Urbanisation*: Increased urbanisation has resulted in an increase in *residential development projects* in peri-urban and rural landscapes. Urbanisation changes land use patterns and ecosystems, as the land is flattened, levelled or otherwise modified, which modifies waterflows and causing landslides. Moreover, it alters property rights, and creates confusion around tenure arrangements, access and control of space. At the same time, it leads to *abandonment of the rural space*, with unpredictable results such as re-wilding, human-wildlife conflicts in buffer zones and disruption of food systems and rural-urban food supply.
8. *Solid and liquid waste management*: The rapidly growing rural towns have created considerable challenges to the *solid and liquid waste management systems* which are often inadequate, leading to illegally disposed waste and pollution in the outskirts of towns, water pollution, and health hazards.

Taking into account the above mentioned issues, a PLA would fit very well in Oxfam Nepal's value system. It would strengthen current partner relations, and lead to new partners to work with. It would help Oxfam Nepal and partners to adopt an integrated perspective, and create more spatial synergies and coherences between the activities that are carried out. The Nepali government would be receptive to a PLA, as it would fit in a number of large externally funded programmes currently implemented by the Ministry of Forestry and Soil Conservation and other ministries. A PLA could help in strengthening relations with local governments, as it would fit in their mandates to bring spatial decision making closer to the people

Quite a few international partners and donors already work on integrated landscape management although not always in a very participatory manner, hence a PLA would bring in a more people-centred perspective, and enhance the social impact of these larger landscape programmes. A PLA could help building new coalitions among NGOs, CSOs, local governments and private parties, which could lead to a more spatial approach to governance as a whole.

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## 5 Towards a People's Landscape Approach

This chapter describes the framework for a People's Landscape Approach (PLA), as how it was developed based on the interviews, the workshops and the reflections on both. We chose for presenting the framework in the form of a canvas. Literally, a canvas is a piece of unbleached cloth which is used as a surface to paint on. When a painter starts painting, she or he starts from a blank canvas and makes a rough sketch, built on which the painting will gradually take shape. In business thinking, the canvas is used to structure a basic business model, by breaking it into smaller digestible blocks, which all together shape the business proposition in understandable terms. It leaves space for the user to translate creative ideas into a tangible model that can be tailored to any context. We feel that this would work well for a PLA framework, as it provides a good skeleton which leaves space for users to fill it in, and tailor it to their own needs and desires.

As said, our canvas builds on the interviews and the workshops, combined with Oxfam and partners' core values, the relevant context issues, abilities, process steps, roles, and the cross-cutting themes as sketched in the previous chapters. The canvas can be adapted to any landscape, region or country, as it can be tailored to the specific objectives of a project or programme. Without providing a blueprint, the canvas aims to trigger the creativeness of Oxfam and partners in Nepal or in any other country, challenge them to reflect critically on their own work, and be guided in the development of its own PLA.

The canvas starts with identifying the overall need for and purpose of a PLA within a specific context. It is then followed by the expected outcomes of a PLA within a specific context, the tools and instruments that already exist and could be deployed in the implementation of a PLA, and the organisational changes that are needed to make a PLA work.

The core of the canvas consists of the following elements which are further worked out in the subsequent sections:

1. The overall purpose and outcomes of the PLS within a specific context (section 5.1).
2. The six landscape abilities that relate to the overall values of Oxfam and partners (section 5.2).
3. The cross-cutting values and dilemmas that will be at play when applying the PLA (section 5.3).
4. The criteria for identifying landscape issues that would benefit from applying the PLA (section 5.4).
5. The tools and instruments that are applied in a PLA (section 5.5).
6. The generic process stages that a PLA tends to follow (section 5.6).
7. The stakeholders and the roles they have to adopt to make the PLA work (section 5.7).

Specific attention to the organisational changes that are needed to make the PLA work are provided in chapter 6.



**Overall purpose of PLA:** to develop sustainable and bottom-up solutions to climate change for people, nature and culture through a combination of co-creation and negotiation

**Expected outcomes** To be defined in any specific context

**Changes in ways of working:**

- Changing the narrative
- From communities to wider landscapes
- Looking for new partners

**Tools & instruments:** RBA, GESI, inclusive financing, knowledge development and sharing, policy influencing and advocacy, and others

**Landscape abilities:**

1. Sustainable socio-ecological system adaptive to change
2. Biocultural diversity and spiritual wellbeing of all
3. Stakeholder networks for converging interests and stakes
4. Inclusive and accountable decision making embedded in policies that work
5. Financeable spatial plan with coherent set of landscape interventions
6. Climate resilient and vital landscapes where communities thrive

**Stakeholders and roles:**

- Initiator
- Facilitator
- Convener
- Representative
- Researcher
- NRM Manager
- Financer
- Legislator
- Activist
- Capacity-builder
- others

**Process stages:**

1. Creation of a landscape alliance of the willing
2. Participatory landscape assessment
3. Institutionalise the alliance in policy & practice
4. Joint design of spatially coherent landscape interventions
5. Operationalise and implement the interventions
6. Monitor, learn and adapt

*All stages need resources*

**Cross-cutting values and dilemmas:**

- Gender & Social inclusion
- Power and Trust
- Rights of People & Nature including aspect of ecological restoration

**Context and its major issues:**

- Drivers of climate change, globalization and human economic activities on landscapes
- Issues about interactions between social and ecological systems with complex management processes
- Issues about where drivers, adverse landscape impacts and solutions occur at different or multiple scales
- Issues with a positional element (upstream-downstream) causing externalities elsewhere
- Unclear rights of people on how they are allowed to access and use natural resources or about unclear procedures how they are being protected against possible land use change and landscape intervention by others
- Land decisions made without stakeholder consultation, participation or consent

**Figure 2** A PLA canvas with a number of generic elements to be tailored to a specific objective and context.

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## 5.1 Overall purpose of a PLA and its envisaged outcomes

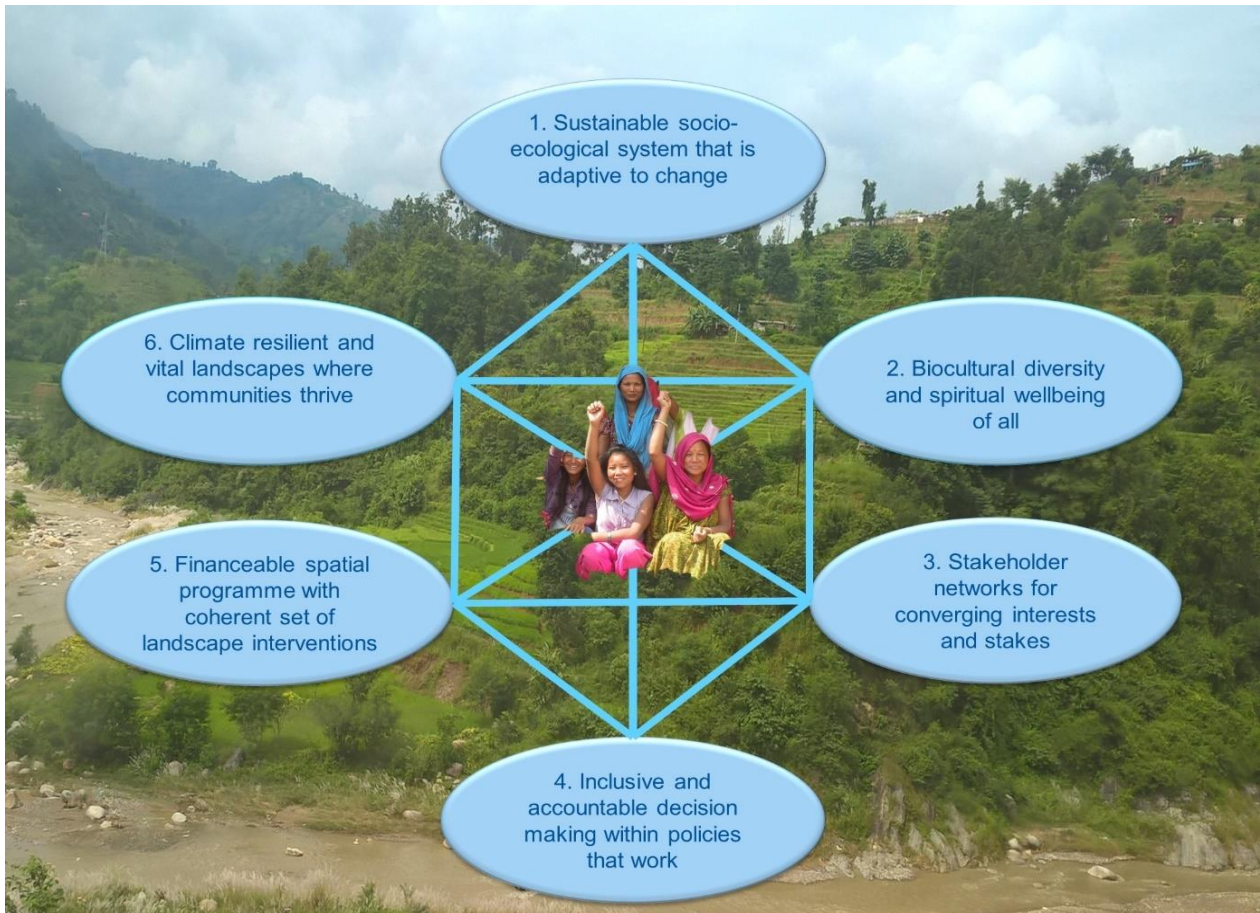
In general terms, Oxfam and partners are committed to work with others as part of a global movement for social justice, fight inequality, and advocate for just and fair economies. Based on this core value of Oxfam it is clear that a PLA for Oxfam would put people first. The key purpose of a PLA has therefore been collectively formulated as an approach that aims *to develop sustainable and bottom-up actions towards mitigating and adapting to climate change, through the co-creation of solutions that benefit people, nature and culture, within the context of a specific landscape*. The PLA is people focused and future oriented, it builds on the ecological functions of the landscape, and it strives for the resilience of the socio-ecological system as a whole. It aims to have the following outcomes, which are to be contextualised, and further detailed by stakeholders themselves:

- Achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals by balancing production, consumption and protection within a specific landscape.
- Transparent spatial decision making through stakeholder negotiations, minimising trade-offs and optimising spatial synergies and collaborations.
- Nature-inclusive production systems and rural economies which are resilient to climate change.
- Social inclusion putting the interests of particular marginalised groups including indigenous peoples, women, youth and landless rural communities in front.
- Sensitivity to existing and emerging power relations, by addressing power imbalances, questioning underlying assumptions and mindsets, and taking a stand in case of injustice or impunity.

## 5.2 Six landscape abilities of a People's Landscape Approach

To be able to achieve the above mentioned landscape outcomes, all the actors, both humans and natural artefacts need to be able to perform. This implies that all elements in the landscape need to have a range of abilities which are inter-connected and interdependent, which are to be strengthened by adopting a PLA. These landscape abilities are:

1. **Sustainable socio-ecological system that is adaptive to change:** The landscape's ability to maintain and /or even improve its agro-ecological diversity and healthily functioning ecosystems which continues providing sufficient goods and services, while coping with shocks and stresses of climate change.
2. **Biocultural diversity and spiritual wellbeing of all:** People's ability to respect and safeguard a landscape's biocultural diversity. To mobilize culture and indigenous knowledge to strengthen the social fabric and the collective identities of multiple groups to secure their food production, their resilience, and the overall diversity of the landscape.
3. **Stakeholder networks for converging interests and stakes:** Stakeholders' ability to create inclusive networks across landscape actors (including marginalized groups, CSOs, private sector research and authorities), sectors and borders. To develop trust among landscape users, create convergence in diverging land use interests and needs, and establish governance arrangements for joint issue identification, visioning, strategizing and implementation.
4. **Inclusive and accountable decision making within policies that work:** Institutional ability to respect landscape related rights and duties and be accountable for it. Institutionalise landscape initiatives through informal and formal arrangements embedded in policies and practice, in support of stakeholder networks across sectors, borders and governmental scales.
5. **Financeable spatial programme with coherent set of landscape interventions:** Landscape managers' abilities to maximize spatial options, and build spatially coherent programmes and management structures to manage landscapes (watersheds) sustainably, inclusively and adaptively including through joint learning.
6. **Climate resilient and vital landscapes where communities thrive:** The abilities of all stakeholders to co-design and build viable and resilient landscape economies based on biodiversity, agro-biodiversity, sustainable rural livelihoods, fair distribution of costs and benefits, sustainable commodity chains and checks & balances to redirect where needed.



**Figure 3** Visualisation of the six abilities of a sustainable and inclusive landscape.

### 5.3 Cross-cutting values and dilemmas

Besides the six landscape abilities, three key values cutting across all six abilities were identified by Oxfam and partners, which are 1) gender and social inclusion; 2) the paradox of power relations and trust, and 3) the balancing between human and nature rights.

1. **Gender and social inclusion:** Oxfam and its partners always gear their activities towards empowering rightsholders, especially the marginalised and/or vulnerable groups: women, young, landless, certain castes, indigenous groups and others. The ability of these groups to claim rights, including the right to resources such as water and land and the abilities of duty bearers to bear their duties well vary over different social groups. It is therefore important to know the impact of disasters and climate change, as they tend to differ between class, caste, gender and social status, while the costs and benefits of landscape developments are usually not equitably distributed.
2. **Balancing power relations and trust:** As explained in section 1, landscapes represent multiple interests which diverge, compete or clash. Ideally, these diverging interests are aligned through dialogue and consensus. But in reality, these are rather contested and negotiated through political processes in which the outcomes are defined by the most powerful stakeholders at play. A deep insight into a landscape's political economy is therefore a must, and the ability to create civic space for multiple actors to interact and build mutual trust is an indispensable element of a PLA.
3. **Balancing human rights and nature's rights.** The PLA is geared towards generating positive outcomes for the landscape and the people living within or depending upon. From a utilitarian perspective this means that the integrity of an ecosystem needs to be secured for it to provide the goods and services on which people depend. From a cultural and spiritual perspective it means that people need to be able to live in harmony with nature, and therefore respect the intrinsic rights of nature, and adopt a stewardship mentality for the wellbeing of both nature and humans themselves.

## 5.4 Operationalising a PLA in multiple steps

There is no blueprint methodology for the operationalisation of a PLA, as PLA is not a 'silver bullet' that can easily solve all the problems that a landscape may face. A PLA will need to be tailored to the specific socio-spatial characteristics of a landscape, its socio-ecological context, the multiple needs and interests of the stakeholders within, and the issues that are at stake. Nevertheless, a general process design can help in shaping a PLA. During one of the workshops a process design was co-created with Oxfam Nepal and partner, which is visualised in Figure 4. The figure sketches a step-wise process of bringing landscape actors together into an iterative process with multiple feedback loops and points of convergence. The process model starts with the creation of an 'alliance of the willing'. Such an alliance then creates an environment in which stakeholders can deliberate, envision and deliberate on their shared interests and common concerns, work on joint problem framing, visioning, and planning for the future.



**Figure 4** Iterative process stages of a PLA.

The six steps of the process as sketched in Figure 4 are the following:

1. Creation of landscape alliance of the willing.
2. Participatory landscape assessment.
3. Institutionalising alliance in policy and practice.
4. Joint design of spatially coherent landscape interventions.
5. Operationalize and implement landscape interventions.
6. Continuous monitoring and learning adapting.

The six steps form a logical sequence of assessment, planning, implementing, learning and adapting, which can be repeated over time. This is in line with the general principles of project cycle management, with the difference that it starts with the creation of a coalition of landscape actors who realise that they have a common concern that hampers their collective progress. Such an '*alliance of the willing*' may start with a small group of landscape actors who recognise a need for change. Gradually building an atmosphere of collaboration and trust may be the start of a more formal partnership formation or *landscape arrangement*, which may not get formal recognition from the onset, but gradually gain formality and legitimacy by the inclusion of more stakeholders and the building of a critical mass. The formation of an alliance is the responsibility of a landscape's actors themselves. Nevertheless, external partners such as Oxfam and its partners could play a role in creating the institutional space for potential partners to meet. A certain external factor such as the construction of a road or a dam, or a natural disaster may create a '*window of opportunity*' to organise an event or a workshop that can create the 'spark' that may trigger collective action.



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Crucial in the formation of an alliance is a joint landscape assessment in which stakeholders jointly define the potentials and limitations of a landscape's resources, the different needs and interests of actors involved, and the multiple resource claims that may overlap or clash. There are many tools and instruments for participatory spatial analysis which can all contribute to building a joint understanding and interpretation of the landscape's past, present and potential future. A joint identification of the most urgent issues in the landscape is a key moment in the process, as this will set the stage for the process to be followed.

However high the value of informal landscape arrangements may be, at some point in time the institutionalisation of an alliance is important, for it to be able to be recognised and legitimised as an interlocutor that speaks on behalf of a wider group of actors and stakeholders. Institutionalisation can be done through the development of a governance structure, the setting of some rules of engagement, and its embedding it in formal institutions (rules, regulations, policy frames) and informal institutions (customs, behaviours, and informal networks within society).

A set of coherent landscape interventions which have the potential to address the identified landscape issues will have to be defined. These interventions may range from individual farm level interventions to spatial plans, integrated water management measures, restoration actions, forest management, climate smart agriculture and otherwise nature based solutions that fit in the landscape. Spatial coherence across the interventions is needed to create synergies that may help to solve multiple landscape issues and to avoid unintended consequences or trade-offs or unfair distribution of costs and benefits that the new situation may bring. The more coherence between the interventions, the easier it is to design project portfolios and financial strategies to attract funders from public or private sector, or both.

Implementation of the designed landscape interventions needs to be a coordinated effort, in which all actors play their role. Existing methods for adaptive planning, monitoring and learning may be deployed to create a smooth implementation process in which landscape actors are fully engaged in monitoring, through participatory data collection, and regular reflection meetings along the line. GIS based instruments for spatial modelling and scenario development could be of great help. Multiple projects could be responsible for implementation, but guided, monitored and controlled by the members of the alliance that has been put in place.

It may be clear that the operationalisation of a PLA heavily relies on the quality of the facilitation of the entire process. More details on the role of facilitation will follow in section 5.7. Here, it suffices to mention that throughout the process it is important to maintain continuous interaction and communication between actors involved, to secure the maintenance of shared responsibility over the successes (and failures) achieved. Continuous learning is needed to ensure that landscape abilities are being developed and improved over time, and that the approach followed is constantly adapted to the ever changing context within or beyond the landscape. The establishment and facilitation of a multi-stakeholder process is both an art and a skill, for which there are many toolkits available. The popular MSP guide '[How to Design and Facilitate Multi-Stakeholder Processes](#)' is produced by Wageningen Centre for Development Innovation, and provides over 60 freely downloadable tools.

## 5.5 Criteria to identify landscape issues at stake

Issues that require a PLA are issues which are complex in nature, often referred to as 'wicked' problems. They are complex because there is unclarity on their deeper causes, while also the effects and impacts are unclear. They are marked by uncertainty because their appearance is fairly new, and there are no standard or blueprint solutions at hand. They involve multiple stakeholders, who are either affecting or are being affected by the issue. They can be framed from multiple disciplinary or policy perspectives, making them multifaceted, and hard to tackle. They do however have a number of common characteristics which help them to be recognised and address, something for which a PLA may be of great help:

- Issues which have a spatial dimension, which makes their manifestations place-based and their solutions context specific. They can therefore only be approached spatially, and framed by making use of local perspectives, perceptions and local knowledge.

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- Issues in which the drivers and impacts are multiple, and perceived differently by the multiple actors involved. This means that they can only be solved through multi-actor dialogue and collaboration. Examples are issues related to commodity chains, in which producers, consumers and intermediary parties are spatially separated, and play a distinct role in a complex chain of inter-relations and dependencies.
  - Issues which appear at the crossroads between social and ecological systems. These issues are mostly multi-sector in nature, and cannot be solved from one policy domain only. They hardly tally with administrative boundaries or jurisdictions, and will require a transboundary approach.
  - Issues which are scale sensitive, meaning that the drivers and the impacts are separated in terms of sectors and scales. Climate change for example, can be caused at the global level yet it leads to impacts that are locally manifested, such as landslides and floods.
  - Issues that are place-positional in nature, in which the drivers can be found in a different location than the manifestations of impact, such as the upstream damming of rivers which lead to downstream water shortage or flash floods.
  - Issues that relate to undefined, unclear or ambiguous rules and regulations regarding formal and informal rights over resources such as land. Land tenure insecurity creates social unrest, especially in areas with direct foreign investments, leading to conflicts on access to and control over resources.

## 5.6 Operationalising a PLA: the different stakeholders and their roles

Operationalising a PLA requires multiple stakeholders, each playing different roles in the process. For the purpose of this document it would take too far to describe each of these roles in detail, as each of these will come with an appropriate set of competences to be developed to play these roles appropriately. A reflection on the different stakeholders, their roles and their competences would however be highly recommendable when designing a PLA, and choosing the right partners to get on board. Below are there a number of generic roles which are indispensable in the development and implementation of a PLA.



**Figure 5** Different roles to be played in a PLA.

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It is unrealistic and probably even undesirable that all these roles are to be played by a single organisation operating in the landscape. More realistically, the different roles are to be played by combinations of combinations of actors, organisations or individuals, each with complementary competences. Important is that the actors, organisations or individuals who are assigned with roles, have the mandate to do so, and the trust of at least a majority of actors involved. Roles may change over actors, organisations and individuals, as the process evolves over time while reaching different stages of maturity.

From all the roles to be played, it is the role of the convenor which is probably the most important, as it is the convenor, sometimes referred to as 'trusted broker' who needs to be respected and trusted by parties to join. It is the convenor who is to give legitimacy to the process itself. Therefore, this role has to be played by the entity that has the authority, the mandate and the trust to convene others. In some cases, this role is played by a local government which is mandated to bring stakeholders together and take delicate decisions. Yet, the role of a local government is limited to a certain jurisdiction, while it may have a high stake in the landscape itself, therefore not being the ideal party to convene. In contexts where the government is not wanted or cannot play the role of convenor, non-governmental actors like NGOs or CBOs may step in. One could also think of a UN agency, a private project development entity, a faith based organisation, a university or otherwise knowledge institute, or any other party having a certain level of representativeness, legitimacy and trust. Roles can also be transferred from one actor to another, when a landscape context so demand, until a stable coalition of partners is established that can operate on behalf of a larger collective.

## 5.7 How do Oxfam and partners' existing tools and instruments fit in a PLA?

A PLA does not necessarily require the development of a new set of tools and instruments for operationalisation and implementation. In many cases, existing tools and instruments may be applicable, either concurrently or sequentially, depending on the context. Within the canvas there is space to add existing tools and instruments that may be used, or adapted, with the aim to make them fit for a new purpose. Some of the tools that are currently used and could be used within a PLA are the following:

### **Rights-based approach**

Oxfam and partners are champions in rights-based approaches (RBA), which help to empower rights holders to claim their rights, while increasing the ability of duty bearers to be held accountable for their actions in their role of respecting, protecting and fulfilling the rights of others. RBAs fit well in a PLA, as they contribute to the ability of *Inclusive and accountable decision making within policies that work*.

Important landscape related rights are obviously the ones on land tenure, and the access and control over resources. Others are people's right to be informed on changes in their environment and the right to be involved in the formulation and application of policy instruments like environmental impacts assessments, catchment management plans, regional development plans, land use plans, and the delineation of nature conservation areas, all captured in the Principle of Free, Prior and Informed Consent (FPIC). The principle of FPIC is defined in the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP, 2017), where article 10 states: "Indigenous peoples shall not be forcibly removed from their lands or territories. No relocation shall take place without the free, prior and informed consent of the indigenous peoples concerned and after agreement on just and fair compensation and, where possible, with the option of return. The UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights (UNGPR) are a set of guidelines for States and companies to prevent, address and remedy human rights abuses committed in business operations. Nepal has both subscribed to UNDRIP and the UNGPR.

### **Gender and social inclusion**

Landscape approaches are not necessarily focused on the empowerment of marginalised groups, but they usually do recognise that women, men, youth, elderly people, and indigenous peoples may have different spatial behaviours, and therefore have different needs and interests, hence different use of space. Therefore, gender and generational equality as well as special recognition of Indigenous Peoples' rights are, or should be clearly acknowledged. Therefore, existing instruments on gender mainstreaming and social inclusion may



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work very well within a PLA, particularly when specifically addressing inclusive and accountable spatial decision making. Increasing the capacities of women and marginalised groups to engage in spatial planning and decision making is a key entry point for improving their position, as it increases their influence in the spatial dynamics within their landscape.

Oxfam's Gender Tool for Meaningful Community Engagement on Large-Scale Land-Based Investments in Agriculture is intended to provide an overview of the key steps in the Large-Scale Land-Based Investment (LSLBI) process, defining what community engagement looks like through the evolution of the process. It is strongly based on the FPIC principle. This tool empowers communities to engage meaningfully in stakeholder dialogues with investors, contractors and governments on LSLBI. Oxfam's Gender Action Learning System (GALS) is a methodology for community-led empowerment that is used for: individual life and livelihood planning; collective action and gender advocacy for change; and institutional awareness raising and changing power relationship with service providers, private sector stakeholders and government bodies. The methodology both tries to build the capacities of the vulnerable groups as well as private and public powerholder to meaningfully engage in changing gender and power relations. The methodology has large potential also to be used in landscape approaches to address the gendered landscape issues. Oxfam Nepal is using women empowerment centres as a tool for gender transformation. These centres need to be capacitated on how their work could contribute to PLA.

### **Inclusive finance**

Oxfam and partners have considerable experience with financial empowerment and models for inclusive finance to enhance access to financial services for individuals and small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs). Microcredit schemes, rotating funds, micro-insurances and small grant schemes are all financial instruments that could be deployed to enhance the impact of a PLA. Individual landscape interventions may be small, but can be highly complementary, hence designed in a spatially coherent manner they could allow for the creation of larger investment portfolios covering multiple actions within larger areas. Combined with larger public investments in infrastructural development, water and waste management would open opportunities for blending donor grants, impact investments and commercial loans into a diversified landscape fund, to build climate resilient and vital landscapes where communities thrive (Landscape ability 5 and 6).

The Oxfam Novib Fund supports vulnerable people's recovery and resilience by providing disaster risk finance to financial institutions that serve them with specific products while making a long-term social and financial return (ability 1). Oxfam Novib also has experience with larger-scale funding for the development of SME programmes. Providing finance for making SME's environmentally sustainable fosters a landscape approach (ability 5). Currently, Oxfam Nepal and partners have less experience with large-scale finance, but could be strengthened in their capacities to do so.

### **Knowledge development and sharing**

For all the six landscape abilities landscape knowledge is key. Landscape knowledge is 'spatialised' knowledge, that is the contextualised knowledge that helps to understand a landscape, its socio-ecological systems and its spatial dynamics, something which is sometimes referred to as the ability to 'Think Landscape'. It requires a geographical mindset, and a sensitivity to people's relations with their place. It requires foresight thinking, as it helps to predict what would be the environmental or social consequences of spatial interventions and environmental change. Building a collective '*landscape knowledge commons*' is a great way to combine different types of landscape related knowledge, and build a shared understanding as a basis for stakeholder collaboration. It helps to gain insight in the different belief systems and world views, and helps to create open and easy access to the knowledge and information that is needed for getting stakeholders actively engaged. Especially indigenous knowledge systems are often spatially and/or culturally specific, collective, holistic, and adaptive (Mistry, 2009), and therefore important to be made explicit, and accessible to all. It helps building a landscape's biocultural identity (ability 2), and should be explicitly integrated into a PLA.

CSRC has contributed to develop a risk-sensitive Land Use Plan for the rural municipalities Jugal and Panchpokhari Thangpal in Nepal. CSRC, together with local authorities, has applied various knowledge development tools ranging from using expert judgment of experts like geologists, field observations and risk modelling through GIS system to map disaster risk vulnerabilities across various social groups. This assessment was carried out in a participatory way where landscape inhabitants (citizens) helped to construct the knowledge, by capturing the indigenous knowledge that they had.

In its *Sowing Diversity – Harvesting Security* project, Libird and partners are building on the indigenous knowledge, local plant genetic resources and practices to build food security and climate resilience. The project aims to combine indigenous knowledge with 'external' knowledge, resources and practices to prepare an optimal mix for rural communities in four districts of Sudurpaschim Province in Nepal: Kailali, Kanchanpur, Doti and Dadeldhura, and strengthen their adaptive capacity to climate change.

### **Policy-influencing and dialogue**

Oxfam and partners have always been active in influencing policies and advocating for the development of new policies that contribute to sustainable and inclusive development. This experience is extremely valuable to a PLA, as landscapes are often arenas of overlapping and conflicting policies which makes it hard for landscape initiatives and arrangements to be effective. Many landscape initiatives and arrangements remain in the informal, as they do not really fit into a single policy frame, while spatial alignment or integration of policies too often fall short. Harmonising policies across administrative boundaries or sectoral policy domains is key in making landscape approaches work, and directly contribute to landscape ability 3 and 4.

Trosa: The Transboundary Rivers of South Asia project aims at the inclusive governance of transboundary rivers. TROSA Nepal follows a landscape approach that is close to a PLA, as it engages multiple stakeholders (citizens, CSOs, NGOs, private sector and governments) at various levels, while strengthening the position of women (ability 3). It works towards increasing environmental health, improved water quality and free flowing rivers, by strengthening the capacities of riparian communities to claim their rights (landscape ability 4).

The Dhangadi Declaration is a joint commitment of local governments, CSOs, private sector actors and riverine communities to manage the shared water resources of the Mahakali basin. Also CSRC follows a landscape approach in the implementation of its Namati's legal empowerment approach to community land protection in four communities in southwestern Nepal. Between 2014 and 2016 it has piloted a strategy to address the issue of landlessness, by working with community-based para-legals and Community Land Reform Committees to vision, map and value land use planning, mediate in land conflict and to promote land ownership for both women and men.

### **Conflict sensitivity**

A conflict sensitive approach to development implies a deliberate, systematic and continuous assessment of development processes within their context, to minimise the negative impacts and maximise the positive impacts. It is sensitive to potential conflict and crises, which matches with a PLA that strives for finding solutions to competing land use and otherwise spatial conflicts. As mentioned in Chapter 2, landscape approaches have a long term focus, which allow for recognising, understanding and mediating in conflicts which have been built up over time. Although a PLA would not offer piecemeal solutions, it would help in setting the scene for mitigating and managing conflicts, where possible through dialogue, and otherwise through negotiation, mediation, arbitration or judicial decision.

There are many more tools and instruments developed and applied by Oxfam and partners, which could be used for operationalising a PLA. A list of these tools can be found in Appendix 3.

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## 6 What does it take to change from a sector to a landscape approach?

During the interviews and workshops, it became clear that Oxfam Nepal and partners have all that it needs to adopt and apply a PLA. However, changing from a classical sector-based approach to a PLA would bring a number of new challenges. These challenges are not specific for Nepal, as they have been encountered by multiple organisations that made the shift before<sup>5</sup>. Although these challenges should not be taken lightly, they must not hamper a shift, as moving towards a PLA would be an opportunity for Oxfam and partners, and beneficial to Nepal, its people and its government.

### 6.1 Changing the narrative

A landscape approach is about striking a balance between ecological, economic, and social objectives. It is also about the principles of co-governance, which means that close collaboration with governmental and private parties are desired. For Oxfam this may have a considerable impact on the way it works and communicates. Oxfam is globally known for its actions in the area of social development, but in terms of environmental action a strengthening of efforts may be needed. Working from a spatial perspective may require Oxfam to leave its traditional comfort zone of lobby and advocacy and start working with local governments in search for more sustainable land use systems and collectively grow. This means that Oxfam may have to shift from being merely an 'outsider' to become an 'insider', and take a more direct responsibility over the process of co-governance. This may imply that it has to partner with entities that naturally would not be considered as preferred partners. Would Oxfam be comfortable in making the shift from being activist to becoming a participant in a process? Would it be ready to commit to engage in processes of spatial negotiation, sometimes taking stands, but sometimes also seeking for compromise and consensus? Would a PLA be an opportunity for Oxfam to innovate and discover new areas and ways of work?

### 6.2 From communities to wider landscapes

Adopting a landscape approach would mean a moving away from a strictly community approach to a broader spatial approach. A spatial approach would offer a wider perspective and provide an opportunity to better address the drivers of environmental problems from their roots. This implies however a moving away from a single project approach to a larger programme approach, that may include multiple activities within a single landscape. Creating spatial synergies between these activities will lead to an integrated programme of complementary actions that have the ability to scale local and community based adaptation actions to wider landscape resilience, connecting to national policy frameworks and international partner networks. Would Oxfam be ready to adopt new ways of spatial thinking and using spatial tools?

### 6.3 Looking for new partners

Moving beyond the community level will help Oxfam to encounter new actors that operate beyond the local, and represent the drivers of wider environmental change. Operating in larger actor constellations will not only strengthen Oxfam's position in the development debate, but also support communities to amplify their voices and be heard at higher levels of policy making. This could help Oxfam to balance the currently unequal distribution of the costs of environmental degradation, increase the access to and control over natural resources for marginalised sectors of society, and strengthen their position within the global climate

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<sup>5</sup> In 2019, a survey was held under Netherlands-based development organisations experimenting with a landscape approach. The opportunities and challenges they encountered can be found in the document [Doing different things – or doing things differently? Outcome of the consultation process NLandscape, Five years landscapes – what have we learned? Van Oosten et al., Wageningen University, 2019.](#)

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debate. Despite these opportunities, it remains hard to work with multiple stakeholders at the same time. Aligning stakeholder interests, facilitating processes and negotiating trade-offs require long term engagement and upfront investment in building relations trust. Would Oxfam be ready for making this shift?

## 6.4 Shifting the power

Some argue that working from a landscape perspective would be a set-back to the regional development programmes financed by the Netherlands (and other donors) in the 1980s and 1990s. However, although some of the elements may indeed resemble those of the past, the political context in most partner countries have changed. Across the globe decentralisation has altered power relations, and the capacities of local governments and civil society organisations have considerably improved. This means that unlike in the past, local governments and their non-governmental partners are much better positioned to take control over their development process, and take up the responsibility of spatial development planning at hand. For international organisations like Oxfam this means that there is probably less need for direct involvement, while their role of channelling funds may remain the same or even grow. This will change the donor-recipient relation into a new relation of equal partners, together experimenting and learning on how best to roll out landscape programmes within or across jurisdictions, which may demand a reconsideration of roles. Is Oxfam ready for shifting the power to the landscape level, and hand over (part of) the responsibility to its partners?

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## 7 Conclusion

After having gone through the theories on landscape approaches, the Nepali context, Oxfam's current practices, the potential ingredients of a PLA, and the changes that this would require in the roles, responsibilities, organisational structures and organisational culture, it is time to get to a conclusion.

In principle, within Oxfam Nepal and partners all the ingredients for a PLA are in place. Moreover, the timing is right, with the current global momentum that has been raised by the global landscape debate, strengthened by the UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration. As for Nepal, it has become clear that a PLA would go far beyond the conservation sector, and it offers opportunities to mainstream climate resilience in all sectors of society. Much can be learned from the conservation sector, but a PLA needs to be balanced with other societal needs and land uses, and the values that these create. It has also become clear that a PLA is not prescriptive in terms of setting boundaries, and landscape programmes may follow any boundaries that are relevant for the activities to be undertaken. A landscape programme could follow natural boundaries covering mountain ranges, valleys or river basins, but it could also follow cultural or biocultural boundaries, or even jurisdictional boundaries if that facilitates the process. This requires utmost flexibility in planning and implementation of activities, and the choice of partners that it would need.

Throughout the document it has been emphasised that a PLA is not a new tool, but it is a new approach, offering a new perspective on processes and issues at stake. A PLA is not a blueprint nor a silver bullet, and should never be promoted as such. The canvas that was developed is not a method to be followed, but a source of inspiration, that can guide its users to define their own goals and outcomes and craft their own tools towards realising these goals. The canvas aims to inspire its users to be creative, and interact with local actors within their spatial context. After all, it is the spatial context that defines the interventions, and that has to bring a PLA to life. The outcome may not be a new series of projects or programmes; it may rather be a new way of thinking and acting across projects and partner constellations, in search for a new mode of collaboration. We therefore wish to invite Oxfam to start a learning process towards the operationalisation of its PLA, preferably in multiple contexts, and collectively learn. Learning to find a balance between competing land uses, combine interests and minimise trade-offs. Learning to navigate complexities and uncertainties, while visioning, designing and adapting towards desired futures. It should be realised that a PLA may not have an end point nor an exit strategy, as long as landscape actors keep searching together within their ever changing context. Landscape change is more than building stakeholder platforms and changing production patterns, as it addresses the more fundamental political processes underneath. The users of a PLA, so we believe, should actively engage in these political processes, and contribute to a wider societal change towards climate smart, sustainable and above all inclusive landscapes.

In practical terms we suggest that Oxfam Nepal takes the lead in shaping a PLA. Together with partners, it has to start looking beyond the community level and connect networks of communities to landscape actors operating at higher levels of policy making, development and trade. It should make an effort to directly connect to the ongoing decentralisation processes in Nepal, and work with local governments to make the shift from government to governance at the landscape level. Starting from an array of landscape issues within their wider political economy, they can play a key role in bringing together local actors, harmonising policies and creating new synergies within the landscapes that they govern. Discussing the canvas with current partners and jointly develop a pilot will be the best way forward, preferably building on the programmes that are currently in place. Assessing and developing the organisational capacity of partners, and identify additional partners that could fill the gaps. The major conclusion is that developing and operationalising a PLA may not lead to a drastic change in the things that Oxfam Nepal is doing. But it may lead to Oxfam Nepal doing its things differently, more spatially aware, more integrated, and better tapping into the potential of people and their landscapes.

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# Appendix 1 Examples of Landscape Approaches (LAs)

As mentioned in chapter 2, there are several ways of operationalising a landscape approach. The following table provides an overview of various operationalisations as carried out by multiple international development partners. The table has been constructed with the help of a recent study 'Landscapes in Perspective – a study on the Shared Resources and Joint Solutions (SJRS)', carried out by EcoValue, at the request of WWF Netherlands and IUCN Netherlands as part of the evaluation of their Shared Resources Joint Solutions programme (EcoValue, 2021). The list is certainly not complete nor inclusive, but it does provide a good overview of the different landscape approaches which are currently implemented across the world.

*Overview of landscape approaches as operationalised by a number of Netherlands based or global organisations.*

| No | Name  | Summary of the approach   |
|----|---|---|
| 1  | <a href="#"><u>Ecosystem Alliance</u></a>         | From 2011-2015, IUCN partnered with Both Ends and Wetlands International in the Ecosystem Alliance (EA), part of MFS-II (also funded by the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs). The Ecosystem Alliance sought to "strengthen the well-being of local communities by helping them to improve their livelihoods in a sustainable manner, defend their rights and influence stakeholders at those national and international levels where decisions are taken that affect their ecosystems". Working with 134 partners in 16 countries, EA invested in strengthening capacities of 340 NGOs, and through them, communities. There is significant overlap with the elements and catalysts as described for ILM, although it pays more attention to the social and ecological perspectives, and less on the economic and financial perspective and the role of markets.  |
| 2  | <a href="#"><u>PROFOREST</u></a>                  | Proforest was founded in 2000. The non-profit supports companies, governments and other organisations in implementing their commitments to the responsible production and sourcing of agricultural commodities and forest products. Therefore, much like IDH, their 'entry point' is transforming commodity supply chains and they actively engage private sector parties, working with them towards more sustainable production. In 2019, they produced a publication called 'Engaging with Landscapes Initiatives'. This publication describe production landscapes as a spectrum from 'supply-sheds' to landscapes, and emphasise the role of multistakeholder initiatives within.   |
| 3  | <a href="#"><u>Conservation International</u></a> | Conservation International also applies the landscape approach to its work. It developed a <a href="#"><u>Landscape Assessment Framework</u></a> as a structure for 'measuring, monitoring and communicating the sustainability of a landscape to guide local activities, inform policy and advise investments'. It gathers and reports data on indicators across four dimensions: natural capital, sustainable production, human well-being and governance. It reflects the Triple Bottom Line (People, Planet, Profit), while adding an extra component of governance. For each landscape, CI produces a 'dashboard' with data on each of these four dimensions.  |
| 4  | <a href="#"><u>Eco-Agriculture Partners</u></a>   | Eco-Agriculture Partners enables local landscape partnerships to connect people in long-term collaboration, access finance, and influence policy to advance integrated landscape management. It works with a wide range of partners and collaborators – from farmers and community organizations to international businesses, policy makers, and donors – providing direct support, education, training, research, and policy analysis to help these groups participate in and benefit from effective landscape management. Eco-Agriculture Partners strongly believe that collaborative, participatory, community-led decision making is the foundation of sustainable landscape management. It does not prioritize the goals of any one sector or actor. Rather, it builds and facilitates shared leadership and equitable representation for all stakeholders in the landscape, so that land use decisions are fair, legitimate, just and sustainable. Eco-Agriculture Partners is co-convenor of the 1000 Landscapes for 1 Billion People (1000L) initiative to provide the tools, finance and connections Landscape Partnerships need to thrive. |



| No | Name                                      | Summary of the approach   |
|----|---|---|
| 5  | <u>IDH</u> (Sustainable Trade Initiative) | IDH, the Sustainable Trade Initiative was founded in 2008 by the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs. In its first 5 years, the focus was on transforming supply chains of priority commodities. In 2014, it launched a new landscape program, which has since expanded and is now fully integrated into the organization. Its core concept is described as 'sustainable production, forest protection and sustainable inclusion'. All landscapes in which IDH operates are production landscapes for one or more key commodities, hence their 'entry point' is from the commodity production perspective. As a result in the work of IDH, active engagement of private sector stakeholders plays a key role. Its Triple Bottom Line is formulated as 'Production, Protection and Inclusion', and it operates in a number of 'Verified Sourcing Areas' where it experiments with sustainable landscape certification.   |
| 6  | <u>COMMONLAND</u>                         | Commonland, founded in 2013, focuses on Four Returns: the Triple Bottom Line (natural, social and financial capital), plus Inspiration (giving people hope and a sense of purpose). Its focus is on landscape restoration, and the formation of multistakeholder platforms herein is key. Their work is based on the 'Theory U' (as developed by the Presencing Institute), which helps stakeholders to collectively analyse their problems, and envision their future. This process allows stakeholders to identify their blind spots, while it opens their minds, hearts and efforts to become change agents in their landscapes. Commonland works with a simple landscape classification model built on protection zones, production zones and mixed purpose zones, each of which correspond with a mixture of activities to be undertaken and financed. Commonland is one of the conveners of the Thousand Landscapes for a Billion People, together with Eco-Agriculture Partners, LandScale and more.   |
| 7  | <u>LandScale</u>                          | The LandScale, formerly called the Landscape Standard, is a coalition of IUCN, EcoAgriculture Partners, Nature Conservation Resource Centre (NCRC), Proforest, Rainforest Alliance and Solidaridad in LandScale. This collaborative initiative produced a 'LandScale Assessment Framework and Guidelines' in August 2019. This Framework has four 'Pillars of Sustainable Development' and for each pillar it has multiple Goals and Indicators. LandScale is one of the conveners of the 1000Landscapes for a Billion People Initiative, which aims to prepare 1000 landscape partnerships by 2030 to deliver sustainable landscape solutions, and mobilise the necessary private and public funding for this.   |
| 8  | <u>Global Landscapes Forum</u>            | Since its establishment in 2013, GLF has formed a network of over 5,000 organisations, and reached out to millions of professionals and individuals from 185 countries to take part in its online and offline events. The GLF embraces the landscape approach to seek compromise among competing social, environmental, political and economic demands to produce multiple benefits from increasingly limited resources. The GLF champions this through four activities: (i) maintenance of a knowledge hub to assimilate best practice and the latest research; (ii) engagement through collaborative platforms and events; (iii) outreach to expand awareness and interaction among stakeholders and partners worldwide; and, (iv) hosting of the Landscape Academy which is increasingly considered the <i>to-go</i> place for capacity development and education on landscape approaches and landscape restoration, from local to international levels. Especially the latter is gaining traction, as its Restoration Education programme plays an important role in the UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration.  |
| 9  | <u>WWF - IUCN</u>                         | Since more than a decade WWF and IUCN are strong protagonists of integrated landscape approaches. Besides applying landscape approaches within multiple programmes, WWF and IUCN have contributed to international publications such as the <i>Little Sustainable Landscapes Book</i> (2015). In this book, landscape approaches are defined as 'a holistic form of natural resource management operationalised at the landscape level'. The reason for adopting a landscape perspective, so the book state, is that the landscape provides an appropriate level for multiple land users (farmers, forest dwellers, public agencies, private companies) to reconcile competing objectives, and find common ground. Working at the landscape level provides them an opportunity to address multiple challenges simultaneously, and increase the probability of integrating conservation and development outcomes successfully. However, so it recognises in practice, such an integrated approach is challenged by diverging stakeholder interests and conflicting policy objectives acerbating stakeholder conflict and power struggles over the use of space, which is something that WWF-IUCN are dealing with in the landscape programmes that they run. |

## Appendix 2 Nepali policies relevant to a PLA

| Act/Policies   | Purpose long term approach/ goal  | Source of document   |
|--|---|--|
| Aquatic Animals Protection Act 1961                                      | Provides legislative protection of the habitation of aquatic species  | <a href="https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/aquatic-animal-protection-act-2017-1960.pdf">https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/aquatic-animal-protection-act-2017-1960.pdf</a>            |
| National Parks and Wildlife Conservation (NPWC) Act                      | Protection of biodiversity in the protected areas   | <a href="http://dls.gov.np/downloadfile/national-parks-and-wildlife-conservation-act-2029-1973_1559816696.pdf">http://dls.gov.np/downloadfile/national-parks-and-wildlife-conservation-act-2029-1973_1559816696.pdf</a>                        |
| Himalayan National Park Regulations 1979                                 | Special provision for people living within national parks to use the natural resources  | <a href="https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/himalayan-national-park-rules-2036-1979.pdf">https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/himalayan-national-park-rules-2036-1979.pdf</a>            |
| Conservation Area Management Regulation 1996                             | Integration of conservation and development activities focusing on sustainable tourism and livelihood activities (Government of Nepal, 1979)  | <a href="https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/conservation-area-management-rules-2053.pdf">https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/conservation-area-management-rules-2053.pdf</a>            |
| Buffer Zone Management Regulation 1996                                   | To facilitate public participation in the conservation design and management of buffer zones.   | <a href="http://extwprlegs1.fao.org/docs/pdf/nep6229.pdf">http://extwprlegs1.fao.org/docs/pdf/nep6229.pdf</a>  |
| National Forestry Plan 1976 and Master Plan for the Forestry Sector 1989 | From exclusive focus on protection and scientific management of the forest, the act evolved into promoting people's participation to meet basic needs for forestry products   | <a href="https://lib.icimod.org/record/3656/files/Mpffs_nSummaryoftheprogrammes63490685MIS.pdf">https://lib.icimod.org/record/3656/files/Mpffs_nSummaryoftheprogrammes63490685MIS.pdf</a>  |
| Forest Act of 1993 and Forest Regulation of 1995                         | Ensured people's participation in forest conservation by handing over of national forest to local user groups for management  | <a href="https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/?cat=475">https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/?cat=475</a><br><br><a href="http://dofdocs.gov.np/documents/53/Forest%20Rule_Eng.pdf">http://dofdocs.gov.np/documents/53/Forest%20Rule_Eng.pdf</a> |
| Environment Protection Act, 1997 and Regulation 1997                     | Broad act providing the declaration of Environmental protection areas which are extremely important based on natural heritage, biodiversity, and environment protection<br><br>Protect the fundamental right of the citizen to live in a clean and healthy environment.<br><br>Maintain balance between environment and development<br><br>Mitigate adverse environmental impact on environment and biodiversity in the face of Climate change                                  | <a href="https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2021/03/The-Environment-Protection-Act-2019-2076.pdf">https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2021/03/The-Environment-Protection-Act-2019-2076.pdf</a>          |
| Local Self-governance Act (LSGA) 1999 and Regulation (LSGR), 1999        | Institutionalise the process of development with people's participation and development of local governance bodies  | <a href="https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/local-self-governance-act-2055-1999.pdf">https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/local-self-governance-act-2055-1999.pdf</a>                    |
| Waste Management Act, 2007 and Regulation, 2013                          | Providing local body responsibility of managing the segregation and management of solid waste, discharge of solid waste, discharge and management of harmful and chemical waste, discharge and management of health institution related waste, transportation of solid waste, operation of sanitary landfill site and its management, licenses management, mobilization of NGOs in the Soil Waster Management works, compliance with standards, determination of service charge | <a href="https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/solid-waste-management-rules-2070-2013.pdf">https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/solid-waste-management-rules-2070-2013.pdf</a>              |
| Integrated Landscape Planning Directives 2012                            | Provides steps for planning with stakeholders for the institutional arrangement of a Landscape Coordination Committee, Landscape working group and Landscape Support Unit   |  |

| <b>Act/Policies</b>   | <b>Purpose long term approach/ goal</b>  | <b>Source of document</b>   |
|---|--|---|
| National Land Use, 2015, GoN                                      | Use of available land and land resources (LLRs) in pursuit of sustainable prosperity % the country as well.<br><br>Objectives of this policy are: - categorise classify entire lands g the county into various "Land use zones (LUZs), devise of level wise Land Use Plans (LUPs), Ensure use of LLRs as per LUPs, mitigate natural and human created - disastrous hazards and applying progressive tax systems on lands | <a href="https://molcpa.gov.np/downloadfile/land%20use%20policy_2015_1505895657_1536124080.pdf">https://molcpa.gov.np/downloadfile/land%20use%20policy_2015_1505895657_1536124080.pdf</a>   |
| Local Body resource mobilization and management guidelines (2013) | Mandated that LBs allocate 10% of development budget of women focused, 10% for children and 15% for poor and excluded focused programmes.<br><br>Address the promotional activities that enforce environment, Climate Change, renewable energy, poverty reduction and livelihood promotion through development innovations <sup>8</sup>  | <a href="https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/188401468053415165/pdf/879220ESWOREVI00385228B00PUBLIC00NP.pdf">https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/188401468053415165/pdf/879220ESWOREVI00385228B00PUBLIC00NP.pdf</a> |
| National Adaptation Plan of Action (NAPA), 2010                   | NAPA ranked priorities activities and clustered them into project profiles to be implemented in the country to address urgent immediate adaption plans   | <a href="https://mofe.gov.np/NAP_Rep_2021-2050_Suggestion_1634621834.pdf">NAP Rep 2021-2050 Suggestion 1634621834.pdf (mofe.gov.np)</a>   |
| National Framework on Local Adaptation Plan for Action, 2011      | Sets the procedure for preparing and implementing the local adaptation plan of actions on climate change   | <a href="https://climate.mohp.gov.np/downloads/National_Framework_Local_Adaptation_Plan.pdf">https://climate.mohp.gov.np/downloads/National_Framework_Local_Adaptation_Plan.pdf</a>   |
| National Adaptation Plan,2018                                     | The plan is aimed to reduced vulnerability to the impacts of climate change, by building adaptive capacity and resilience and to facilitate the integration of climate change adaptation in a coherent manner, into relevant new and existing policies, programmes and activities, in particular development planning processes and strategies, within all relevant sectors and at different levels, as appropriate      | <a href="https://mofe.gov.np/noticefile/NAP%20Rep%202021-2050_Suggestion_1634621834.pdf">https://mofe.gov.np/noticefile/NAP%20Rep%202021-2050_Suggestion_1634621834.pdf</a>   |
| Climate Change Policy 2011  | To reduce adverse impacts of climate change and increase resilience to contribute to sustainable development of the country  | <a href="https://mofe.gov.np/downloadfile/climatechange_policy_english_1580984322.pdf">https://mofe.gov.np/downloadfile/climatechange_policy_english_1580984322.pdf</a>   |
| National Climate Change Policy, 2019                              | To contribute to socio-economic prosperity of the nation by building a climate resilient society   | <a href="https://mofe.gov.np/downloadfile/climatechange_policy_english_1580984322.pdf">https://mofe.gov.np/downloadfile/climatechange_policy_english_1580984322.pdf</a>   |
| Forest Policy, 2015   | This policy was formulated with a long-term vision of contributing to local and national prosperity through sustainable management of forest, biodiversity and watershed.  | <a href="https://www.mofe.gov.np/downloadsdetail/1/2018/63871700/">https://www.mofe.gov.np/downloadsdetail/1/2018/63871700/</a>   |
| Forest Carbon Measurement Guideline, 2011                         | The guideline broadly intended to be a reference for measuring and monitoring forest carbon stocks. Also, the guideline aims to provide a set of carbon measurement procedures applicable to the forestry and agroforestry land-use systems of Nepal.  | <a href="https://ansab.org.np/storage/product/forest-carbon-measurement-guideline-1579171910.pdf">https://ansab.org.np/storage/product/forest-carbon-measurement-guideline-1579171910.pdf</a>                                       |
| Nepal Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (2014-2020).          | The National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan has been prepared with a 35-year vision of "conservation of biodiversity for sound and resilient ecosystems and national prosperity". The overall goal is to significantly enhance the integrity of Nepal's ecological systems by 2020, thereby contributing to human well-being and sustainable development of the country.  | <a href="https://www.cbd.int/doc/world/np/np-nbsap-v2-en.pdf">https://www.cbd.int/doc/world/np/np-nbsap-v2-en.pdf</a>   |

| <b>Act/Policies</b>   | <b>Purpose long term approach/ goal</b>   | <b>Source of document</b>   |
|---|---|---|
| Forestry Sector Strategy (2016-2025)                            | This strategy plans to protect, sustainably manage and make climate resilient for forest, biodiversity, plant resources, wildlife, watersheds and other ecosystems through an inclusive, decentralised, competitive and well-governed forestry sector providing equitable employment, incomes and livelihoods opportunities.<br><br>This strategy set targets related to carbon stock in Nepal's forest, reducing deforestation, carbon trade, implementation of adaptation plan to protect land, mainstreaming community/ecosystem-based adaptation approach | <a href="http://www.mofe.gov.np/downloadfile/Forestry%20Sector%20Strategy%20%20(2016-2025)_1526466721.pdf">http://www.mofe.gov.np/downloadfile/Forestry%20Sector%20Strategy%20%20(2016-2025)_1526466721.pdf</a>                       |
| Community Forestry Development Guideline (Third Revision, 2014) | Facilitate the process of community forestry in different aspect of Community Forest user Groups (CFUGs).   | <a href="https://www.dofsc.gov.np/downloads/directives-guidelines/en">https://www.dofsc.gov.np/downloads/directives-guidelines/en</a>   |
| Nepal National REDD+ Strategy, 2018                             | This strategy aimed to strength of forest ecosystem for emission reduction from deforestation and increased environmental, social and economic benefits through improved policies, measures and institutions with enhanced stakeholder capacity, capability and inclusiveness.  | <a href="http://redd.gov.np/post/nepal-national-redd-strategy-2018">http://redd.gov.np/post/nepal-national-redd-strategy-2018</a>   |
| Water Resource Act 1992 (2049 BS)                               | This act declares the order of priority of water use, ownership of water, provides for the formation of water user associations and establishes a system of licensing and prohibit water pollution  | <a href="http://admin.theiquides.org/Media/Documents/WaterResourcesAct1992.pdf">http://admin.theiquides.org/Media/Documents/WaterResourcesAct1992.pdf</a>   |
| Water Resources Regulations 1993                                | Conservation of water resources to minimize the adverse effects on the overall environment due to any project to be undertaken by a person or corporate body.   | <a href="https://moewri.gov.np/storage/listies/May2020/water-resources-rules-2050-1993.pdf">https://moewri.gov.np/storage/listies/May2020/water-resources-rules-2050-1993.pdf</a>   |
| Water Resource Strategy (WRS),2002                              | A key objective of WRSF is to identify effective, scientific, sustainable and consensus-based mechanisms to facilitate the implementation of action-oriented initiatives and programs and in doing so, successfully bring about this reconciliation.  | <a href="http://www.pmp.gov.np/pdf-files/water-resources-strategy.pdf">http://www.pmp.gov.np/pdf-files/water-resources-strategy.pdf</a>   |
| National Water Plan (NWP), 2005                                 | This strategy document address water issues related to agriculture, tourism, hydroelectric power production potential and other ecosystem services including fisheries. It also includes mandate the research into climate change and its impact in Nepal   | <a href="https://www.climate-laws.org/geographies/nepal/policies/the-national-water-plan">https://www.climate-laws.org/geographies/nepal/policies/the-national-water-plan</a>   |
| National Water Resource Policy, 2020                            | To contribute to the economic prosperity and social transformation by conserving the water resources available in the country for development and sustainable use.  | <a href="https://moewri.gov.np/storage/listies/December2020/rastriya-jalshrot-niti-2077.pdf">https://moewri.gov.np/storage/listies/December2020/rastriya-jalshrot-niti-2077.pdf</a>   |
| Environment Friendly Local Governance Framework, 2013           | This framework objectives were to mainstream the issues on environment, climate change adaptation and disaster management in local planning process, make the local governance systems environment friendly, encourage coordination between environment and development activities and increase local ownership for sustainable management of environment.  | <a href="https://mofald.gov.np/sites/default/files/Resources/EFLG-2013.pdf">https://mofald.gov.np/sites/default/files/Resources/EFLG-2013.pdf</a>   |
| Environment Protection Act, 2019                                | To protect the fundamental right of each citizen to live in a clean and healthy environment, provide the victim with compensation by the polluter for any damage resulting from environmental pollution or degradation, maintain a proper balance between environment and development, mitigate adverse environmental impacts on environment and biodiversity and face the challenges posed by climate change   | <a href="https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2021/03/The-Environment-Protection-Act-2019-2076.pdf">https://www.lawcommission.gov.np/en/wp-content/uploads/2021/03/The-Environment-Protection-Act-2019-2076.pdf</a> |

# Appendix 3 Tools applied by Oxfam and its partners useful in a PLA

| Tool   | Short description   | Link   |
|--|---|--|
| Community-Based Adaptation (CBA)             | Community-based adaptation (CBA) is a form of adaptation that aims to reduce the risks of climate change to the world's poorest people by involving them in the practices and planning of adaptation.   | Many examples on LI-BIRD's projects website: <a href="https://libird.org">Community Resilience to Climate Change and Disaster Risks (libird.org)</a>   |
| Ecosystem-Based Adaptation (EBA)             | Ecosystem-based Adaptation (EbA) is a nature-based solution that harnesses biodiversity and ecosystem services to reduce vulnerability and build resilience to climate change.  | <a href="https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0926641018300011">Sustaining ecosystem based adaptation: The lessons from policy and practices in Nepal - ScienceDirect</a>  |
| Spatial analysis                             | Spatial analysis allows solving complex location-oriented problems and better understanding where and what is occurring in landscapes (often involving GIS). It studies the characteristics of places and the relationships between them. Spatial analysis lends new perspectives to landscape decision-making.   | <a href="https://www.esri.com/arc-blog/arcgis-ideas/posts/2017-08-01-the-power-of-where-how-spatial-analysis-leads-to-insight/">The Power of Where: How Spatial Analysis Leads to Insight (esri.com)</a>   |
| Stakeholder analysis                         | This involves the assessment of the landscape stakeholders: what are their interest, influence, vulnerabilities and capacities and ho do stakeholders relate to each other and to the outer world   | <a href="#">Quick Guide to Power Analysis - Oxfam Policy &amp; Practice</a>  |
| Network-building                             | The aim is to maximize the potential of networks (of stakeholders) to act as catalysts for pro-poor change in their countries and regions, building a global movement for change.   | <a href="#">How We Set Up a Network of Partners to Achieve Greater Influence - Oxfam Policy &amp; Practice</a><br><br><a href="#">Top Tips to Build and Support Effective Networks for Change</a>  |
| WEFE   | The water-energy-food-ecosystem (WEFE) nexus approach highlights potential synergies and identifies critical conflicts between the water, energy, food and ecosystem components.  | <a href="#">The WEFE nexus approach - ICIMOD</a>   |
| Conflict -sensitivity (including assessment) | The ability to understand conflict dynamics and how it relates and own activities in order design and adapt intervention such that they contribute to social cohesion and peace and do not lead to further division   | <a href="#">The Do-No-Harm Approach: How to ensure that our work contributes... (oxfamnovib.nl)</a><br><br><a href="#">ntwrk2_2013_8-conflict-transformation_ENG.pdf (oxfamnovib.nl)</a>   |
| Gender Action Learning System (GALS)         | community-led empowerment methodology that uses principles of inclusion to improve income, food and nutrition security of vulnerable people in a gender-equitable way   | <a href="#">141023_2-pager GALS Oxfam (oxfamnovib.nl)</a>  |
| Inclusive finance                            | Affordable access to and use of financial services helps families and small business owners generate income, manage irregular cash flow, invest in opportunities, and work their way out of poverty. Financial inclusion can empower people and communities to meet basic needs, such as nutritious food, clean water, housing, education, and healthcare. Financial inclusion also has a critical role in the efforts to help people prepare for, respond to and recover from global health and economic crises, such as COVID-19. | <a href="#">Oxfam Novib Fund</a><br><br><a href="#">Influencing Financial Inclusion in Programmes: Overcoming barriers to agriculture and enterprise finance</a><br><br><a href="#">Financial Inclusion   United Nations   UNSGSA Queen Máxima</a> |

| <b>Tool</b>                  | <b>Short description</b>   | <b>Link</b>   |
|------------------------------|--|---|
| Policy-influencing           | Activities aimed at explicitly aim to change policy, e.g. programmes, policies, procedures or budgets of the government, public officials or politicians/parties at any level. This includes changes in the creation of a policy (including rules and regulations) as well as changes in implementation procedures if those changes are institutionalized. | <a href="#"><u>Influencing Policy and Civic Space: A meta-review of Oxfam's Policy Influence, Citizen Voice and Good Governance Effectiveness Reviews - Oxfam Policy &amp; Practice</u></a> |
| Plan Intégré du Paysan (PIP) | Inclusive and bottom-up approach that engages people in environmental stewardship and sustainable change   | <a href="#"><u>The PIP approach: building a foundation for sustainable change - WUR</u></a>   |





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To explore  
the potential  
of nature to  
improve the  
quality of life



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