



Access and plant genetic resources for food and agriculture:

Exploring options to implement the International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture and Article 15.2 of the Convention on Biological Diversity

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5. Collaborating institutions

Regional workshop partner institutions:

East, Central and West Africa (Ethiopia)

Ethiopian Agricultural Research Organization (EARO)

Central America (Costa Rica)

Instituto Nacional de Biodiversidad (INBio)

Southern Africa (South Africa)

Department of Agriculture of South Africa

Asia (India)

M.S. Swaminathan Research Foundation (MSSRF)

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Seychelles

Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources

6. Introduction

6.1 Report summary

This report begins with an outline of the background and objectives of the Access and Benefit-Sharing to Plant Genetic Resources Project (ABS Project). It then provides details of the activities completed, in particular the holding of regional workshops; activities of the Legal Expert Group; the production of background studies; the development of draft legislation for the Republic of Seychelles and final publications based on project activities. Consideration of the achievements of, and challenges faced by the project is then provided.

6.2 Background and objectives of the project

Intergovernmental discussions with a real or potential impact on the exchange of plant genetic resources and the sharing of benefits arising from the use of these resources are taking place in multiple fora. Nationally, interests in, and responsibilities over, plant genetic resources tend to be fragmented in diverse ministries. These factors make it difficult for countries to make unified and coherent policy and case-by-case decisions with respect to access and benefit sharing.

Through research and workshops exchanging experience, ideas and expertise, the goal of this project was to create a policy-making tool that helps policy-makers understand the key decision points in Access and Benefit-Sharing (ABS) policy development and emphasises linkages between policy objectives and implementation approaches. The information gained will be useful for countries whether they are at the beginning stages of developing an ABS strategy, are considering regulations, or are assessing the effectiveness of existing laws and policies.

While the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) provides the general legal framework within which mechanisms concerning ABS are to operate, the actual implementation is expected to be carried largely out at the national level. The Convention has been ratified by most countries in the world, but very few have actually put in place the legal and policy mechanisms for its implementation. Furthermore, many countries have ratified or acceded to the International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture (ITPGRFA or IT), or indicated their intention to do so, thereby accepting an obligation to develop ABS regimes that include specific provisions implementing the multilateral system of access and benefit-sharing (MLS) that is created by the IT. Even where countries do have some form of ABS regime in place, albeit *ad hoc* in many cases, implementation has been a major challenge and specific provisions for Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture (PGRFA) are virtually absent.

In practice, multiple interests, sectors and actors are influenced by and hence have a stake in regimes that regulate ABS in genetic resources. Therefore, it was felt that understanding the key decision points in making an access decision and making available the critical (legal, scientific, technical, socio-economic, cultural etc.) information needed at each of these points would help decision-makers in assessing the situation and coming to a decision that makes sense in light of international obligations and addresses national interests. This project was formulated with the objective of creating a decision-making tool that would help decision-makers to understand the processes involved, key decision points that need to be addressed, and the kinds of information they need to address those decisions. The basic hypothesis underlying the decision-making tool is that with good information and a framework for sound analysis, decision-makers will be able to develop ABS policies and regulatory frameworks in light of national needs and international obligations with more certainty and with less reliance on outside assistance than they currently do.

7. Activities completed

7.1 Regional Workshops

The first significant periods of time dedicated by IPGRI staff to implementation of the ABS project began in early 2003, with Susan Bragdon as coordinator. The first sub-regional workshop as part of the project -- for East, Central and West Africa -- was held in December 2003. Dr. Kwesi Atta-Krah (who was at that time the Regional Director for IPGRI's Regional Office for Sub-Saharan Africa, and is now IPGRI's

Deputy Director General) acted as the facilitator for the workshop, which was hosted by the Ethiopian Agricultural Research Organisation (EARO). The objectives of the ABS Project were presented and participants shared their experiences regarding the key-decision points in ABS processes. At an early stage of proceedings, workshop participants identified awareness creation, sovereignty and rights, benefit sharing, access, policy making processes and capacity building as major areas of concern in policy-making. The workshop then divided into working groups that focused on the steps and decision points in processing access requests and coming to a decision. These steps and decision points in handling access applications were discussed around three scenarios: a model case scenario, a real case scenario in Africa with legislation, and real cases in situations without legislation. A synthesis of the group discussions effectively identified seven key stages:

- (1) establishing contact between the applicant and a local counterpart;
- (2) dialogue between these parties on prior informed consent (PIC), mutually agreed terms (MAT), the terms of a material transfer agreement (MTA)
- (3) agreement on the terms of a MTA incorporating aspects of PIC and MATs;
- (4) application of a request for export to the Competent National Authority;
- (5) assessment by the Competent National Authority of the application;
- (6) issuing a permit and the conditions; and
- (7) monitoring the implementation.

The conclusions of the Ethiopia workshop thus focused on the nature of the problems that countries were facing in the implementation of ABS strategies and regimes.

A second regional workshop was held for Central American countries in San Jose, Costa Rica, in January 2004. Susan Bragdon acted as coordinator/facilitator for this workshop, which was hosted by the Instituto Nacional de Biodiversidad (INBio). The workshop began with the same approach as that in Ethiopia: i.e., an examination of the problems faced by countries in implementing ABS strategies and regimes. However, discussion by participants moved from consideration of these problems to the possible factors underlying them and, in particular, problems with the process of policy formulation in the context of ABS. Several of the workshop's conclusions highlighted this issue:

- the fact that ABS policy-making was usually based on a limited base of information
- the restrictive and complex ABS procedures developed in the mid-1990s tend to inhibit rather than further policy objectives such as the promotion of research
- benefit sharing is often narrowly construed as focusing on financial benefits and this tends to prejudice other benefit sharing approaches such as capacity building through training, collaborative research and access to research results
- different categories of ABS based activities, such as traditional plant breeding and modern pharmaceutical research, should be distinguished and these distinctions should be reflected in the structure and characteristics of ABS policies and regimes

The third regional workshop, for southern African countries, was held in Cape Town, South Africa, in May 2004. This workshop was coordinated/facilitated by Drs. Michael Halewood and Kwesi Atta-Krah; it was hosted by the Department of Agriculture of South Africa. This workshop built upon thinking developed at the Costa Rica workshop and focused upon linking the objectives and implementation mechanisms of access to genetic resources and benefit-sharing (ABS) policies and regulatory regimes. The workshop opened with a series of presentations on country situations

and experiences concerning the development of ABS regulations followed by exercises to identify the main motivations for ABS regulations emerging from the presentations and the experiences of the participants. These motivations were then carried through to form the foundation of the second phase of the workshop.

The second, and principal phase of the South Africa workshop sought to consider key aspects of the country presentations through a basic hypothesis agreed upon by the Legal Expert Group that met to examine the results of the Costa Rica workshop (see 7.2 below for further details on the Legal Expert Group). The basic hypothesis was that ABS regimes frequently lack coherence and are difficult to assess in terms of effectiveness due to weak or absent linkages between objectives and implementation. To address this situation, the outline of a possible decision-making tool that strongly emphasises internal coherence in policies and legislative instruments was presented to, and tested by, workshop participants. The testing was undertaken by three working groups that considered individual possible objectives for the development of ABS regimes and the policy and legal components and mechanisms that might form a basis for achieving these objectives.

The outcomes of the working groups highlighted the complexity of ABS policy-making. They also highlighted the need for further refinement of the tool, both in terms of its structure and, perhaps most importantly, in terms of its 'meta-narrative', i.e. the explanatory text that accompanies each step in the process. However, despite these shortcomings the conclusion of the majority of participants appeared to be that the tool had the potential to usefully guide and focus policy development processes without predetermining or imposing uniform outcomes.

The fourth, and final, regional workshop, for Asian countries, was held in Chennai, India, in September 2004. Robert Lewis-Lettington was the workshop coordinator; it was hosted by the M.S. Swaminathan Research Foundation (MSSRF). The workshop opened with short country presentations focusing on the objectives of ABS policies and regimes, and moved quickly to work on further refining the decision-making tool in country-specific working groups. These working groups built upon the lessons learned from the South Africa workshop and the subsequent work of the Legal Expert Group. The working groups used the policy formulation elements of the draft tool to examine their national situations and, where applicable, existing ABS regimes and then met in plenary to consider views on the draft tool and experiences. The results of the working groups were mixed but a majority expressed the view that a completed draft of the tool could prove valuable in the development of ABS policies and regimes or in reviewing and reformulating existing policies and regimes. Key strengths of the draft tool were noted as its logical approach and the way it emphasised linkages between policy objectives, information related to these objectives and the nature of consequent implementing mechanisms. Key weaknesses of the draft tool that were noted were its complexity and the fact that the logic behind a few of the 'steps' that the tool takes participants through was not clear. A number of participants highlighted the fact that some of these weaknesses, or at least aspects of them, might be specific to its use in the context of a workshop and that the use of the tool in an actual national ABS policy formulation process might address them or identify the means for their mitigation. The availability of resources for proper information gathering exercises and of a broad range of stakeholders were considered particularly important.

The basis of the selection of countries to be included in the regional workshops has changed over time, as more progress on the development of the decision making tool was made. Initially the emphasis was on getting representatives from as wide a range of countries in a sub-region as possible, with just one or two representatives

from each country. By the time of the final regional workshop in India (Chennai) in September 2004, the strategy was adapted, concentrating on participants from just five countries, and four to five representatives from each of those countries. Participants from Vietnam, India, Philippines, Malaysia, and Nepal were invited. With a greater density of participants from the same countries, they could be divided into country-specific small groups to focus on the particular circumstances of their own countries.

7.2 Legal Expert Group

From the second workshop (in Costa Rica) onwards, the Legal Expert Group (LEG), comprised of up to seven experts in the field of ABS law and policy, provided the leadership for the development of the tool.

As noted above, the first meeting of the LEG was held in San Jose, Costa Rica, following a workshop for Central American countries. From the deliberations of the workshop, the LEG explored the hypothesis that the implementation of ABS regimes has been problematic due to inadequate linkages between implementing mechanisms and underlying policies. As a means of ameliorating this deficit in policy analysis, the group took the first steps in outlining a policy-development methodology that focuses on the decision-making process rather than on models for regulatory regimes.

The participants at the South Africa workshop generally endorsed the concept underlying the outline methodology developed in Costa Rica. However, experiences in South Africa also highlighted serious shortcomings in the outline methodology, in particular specific weaknesses in certain steps and a general problem resulting from the absence of adequate descriptive text, a 'meta-narrative', accompanying the methodology. Following the workshop in South Africa, the LEG met and considered options for addressing the shortcomings highlighted during the workshop.

The LEG met for a third time alongside a workshop of IPGRI's Genetic Resources Policy Initiative (GRPI) in Ottawa, Canada in June, 2004. At this meeting the group began to address the shortcomings identified in South Africa. The results of this meeting were a substantially revised outline of the methodology that, in particular, contained the basic elements of a meta-narrative. This LEG meeting closed by agreeing to begin developing the outline methodology into a 'user-friendly tool' for the development or analysis of ABS frameworks in preparation for its next planned meeting in Rome in early September 2004 (before the regional workshop in Chennai).

At its fourth meeting the LEG considered a thoroughly revised and expanded draft tool and, in particular, major contributions by Tomme Young of the World Conservation Union (IUCN) to its structure. Intense discussions over a period of three days focused on a number of key issues, including:

- The identification of a practical 'entry point' to the tool in the form of a basic motivation or 'political mandate'.
- Concern over the placing of decision-making elements within the structure of the tool to facilitate or promote maximum participation.
- The nature and placing of 'filters' to ensure the viability and compatibility with ABS of proposed policy measures.
- The relative feasibility of sequential versus continuously interacting approaches in the implementation of the various steps of the tool.
- The openness of the tool to varying inputs from interest groups and sectors

- The flexibility of the tool in allowing for varying outcomes and to avoid predetermination and, thereby, an alternative means of promoting models.
- The need for a nested approach in presenting the tool and 'drawing users in' gradually, consisting of: an initial summary of no more than a few pages; a longer 'working version' of the tool; a full reference version including broad and in-depth reference material and links (the latter to be developed in the future according to the success of the tool and availability of resources).

Three members of the LEG acted as resource people for the workshop in Chennai. They met afterwards to discuss workshop results and future plans. The LEG developed a work plan for the development of a first draft of the decision making tool by the end of January/beginning of February 2005.

Plans for work in Seychelles were finalised in early 2005 and the available members of the LEG, with the addition of a lawyer from the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO), Victor Mosoti, acted as facilitators for stakeholder workshops and the core of a drafting team. Several members of the LEG also provided valuable comments and suggestions in the finalisation of project documents.

7.3 Background Studies

A series of country studies were commissioned as background papers for the various workshops of the ABS Project. These began as general studies of the status of, and experiences with, ABS regulation in a number of countries for the Ethiopia and Costa Rica workshops. For the South Africa workshop attempts were made to focus more on the basic motivations for, and objectives of, ABS regulation to tie them more closely into the policy formulation methodology being developed by the LEG.

The background studies are being published as part of a compilation of project documents. They have been used as sources of examples for the elaboration of the policy formulation methodology in the decision making tool itself.

7.4 Developing Draft Legislation in Seychelles

The conclusions of the Asian regional workshop in Chennai, and the work of the LEG, strongly suggested the need for more in-country work to place the decision-making tool firmly in the context of the development of national legislation, as opposed to international debates regarding access to genetic resources. During the research phase of the project, the Government of Seychelles had clearly indicated to IPGRI that it was interested in developing access to genetic resources legislation that would address its concerns in both the agricultural and environmental sectors. The ABS project took advantage of this opportunity to undertake a country case study working with national partners in the Seychelles to 'test' the work of the project. During 2005 a series of stakeholder workshops was arranged involving the LEG and local experts to work through the tool in the actual development of draft legislation.

8. Achievements and constraints

It is strongly believed that the development of a logical and relatively user friendly methodology for the formulation of ABS policies will represent a significant step forward in the field. The emphasis of the methodology on coherence between objectives and mechanisms and on basing all decisions on national situations and capacities should lead to the development of more flexible and responsive ABS policies and regulatory regimes than have been seen to date. It is also believed that the methodology will provide a framework for the review of existing policies and regimes that will highlight measures that could be taken for their effective reform.

Constraints in the project to date have been both administrative and conceptual. The departure of the original project coordinator, Susan Bragdon, and of the programme assistant, Lani Trenouth, supporting the project created some difficulties in continuity. However, the increased role of the members of the LEG has provided continuity in the substantive aspects of the project, despite the delays in implementation resulting from administrative problems. Furthermore it turned out that organizing the regional workshops took more time than was originally envisaged, in particular to ensure the participation of the most relevant people.

Another constraint has been the fact that the development of the tool has required a lot of hard collective struggling through difficult concepts by the members of the LEG, who have been simultaneously involved in a range of other activities, and by the regional workshop participants. One of the hardest things to achieve was a relative simplicity to the methodology, despite the depth and complexity of thinking that it represents.

The project has led to two basic categories of output:

- A) The first of these is the enhancement of capacity among workshop participants and the LEG. Of particular importance in this regard is the enhanced understanding of the role and significance of local information and the way in which this may impact upon the nature and detail of any access to genetic resources regulatory regime.
- B) Other outputs include three separate products which – during 2005 - have been prepared for publication (including internal peer review, editing, layout, etc.). Final products will become available for distribution in 2006. The three products are:
 - A detailed commentary on the draft Seychelles legislation, providing information regarding the motivations and intentions behind each of the provisions of the legislation. This document is being published in partnership with the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources. (Draft version attached in Annex)
 - An edited compilation of project materials, including a project summary and the various background papers, presentations and working documents it generated.
 - The methodology or decision making tool, including examples drawn from the various stages and background research activities undertaken during the life of the project.

In addition, the development of draft legislation for Seychelles can also be seen as a direct impact. The draft was adopted by the Inter-Ministerial Committee of Principal Secretaries in late December 2005 and was submitted in January 2006, for the consideration of the Cabinet. It is believed that this will represent a stand alone significant impact within Seychelles but will also, through discussion in the context of the CBD and similar forums, have the potential for broader impacts.

9. Budget

A financial statement has been submitted separately.

COMMENTARY ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF SEYCHELLES ACCESS TO GENETIC RESOURCES AND BENEFIT SHARING BILL (2005)

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Foreword

To be completed by Rolph Payet, Principal Secretary, Environment.

Introduction

From their earliest history, humans have always depended on the services of nature and the natural products it provides to meet their needs. These products are available in various forms and are used for various purposes, from the simple to the most complex e.g. basic foodstuffs, pesticides, lubricants, cosmetics, pharmaceuticals and industrial enzymes are all significant commercial sectors today. In scientific jargon these natural products are derived from biological resources and, increasingly, from the genetic information that is contained within biological resources, i.e. genetic resources. Genetic resources, and the life sciences sector that depends upon them, have been often identified as one of the most important emerging commercial sectors. They have also been, through the traditional plant breeding sector which also depends upon them, one of the most important commercial sectors throughout history and, arguably, provided the foundation of modern civilisation. The vast bulk of the diversity of biological, and, therefore, genetic, resources has always been found in the tropics, with some regions, such as the fertile crescent and the Andes being better known as centres of origin for food crops and others, such as the forests of the Amazon and Congo basins, being better known as sources of products for other sectors, such as quinine or rubber. The islands of the Indian Ocean, given their position at the heart of the tropics, warm and humid environments and relative geographical isolation are no exception to this pattern and have been highlighted as one of the world's centres of endemism.

The significance of biological resources, and even genetic resources, to the Seychelles predates even the first settlement of the archipelago in the Eighteenth Century. Coco de Mer nuts were prized in India and by European and Arab seafarers for their mystical origins and supposed medicinal and aphrodisiac qualities even before there was any knowledge of the existence of a land mass in the central Indian Ocean. From the moment of the first visits to, and settlement of, the main islands there has been a history of the regulation of biological and genetic resources in Seychelles, such as bird's eggs, giant tortoises, turtles, timber, particular fruit trees and crops and, perhaps most famously of all, coco-de-mer. One of the very first formal regulatory regimes established in the islands was that promulgated in 1787³ by the French authorities for the control of access to key natural resources, including giant tortoises, turtles, coco-de-mer and timber. While regulation was imposed with varying success, the collection and export of biological specimens grew significantly in the Nineteenth Century and continued into the early Twentieth Century with major exports of plant specimens to Kew Gardens in the U.K. and other European botanic gardens and herbariums being particularly prominent. Albeit to a lesser degree, this pattern has continued with a long history of exchanges of plant specimens by the Seychelles National Botanic Gardens and of birds, reptiles and other terrestrial animal species by various lead agencies with museums, zoological gardens and research institutions around the world. In more recent years, following developments in scientific capacity, marine research has become much more common. From the 1960s to the 1980s, there are records of major expeditions undertaken by American, Russian and French research vessels, while today there are ongoing marine research activities being undertaken by several universities and research institutions, as well as at least one major semi-private research expedition.

It is currently estimated that Seychelles is home to at least 1,200 recorded endemic species and this figure may grow considerably as research into invertebrates, mosses

³ McAteer, W., *Rivals in Eden: The History of Seychelles 1742-1827* at 101 and 104-5 (Pristine Books, 2002).

and lichens and the diversity of marine species advances. Species that are new to science are still regularly being identified, particularly in the marine environment. This diversity holds enormous potential for research and application in a broad range of fields, with the profitable areas of natural products and pharmaceutical compounds having tended to predominate in the recent past.

However, at the same time, Seychelles has a very limited range of native species with agricultural uses. From the earliest history of settlement in the archipelago, almost all of the cultivated food crops, and all of the staples, have been exotic species. This dependence upon exotic species is particularly strong as Seychelles has no significant plant breeding activity, whether in the private or public sector, and is, therefore, dependent upon its ability to locally evaluate the characteristics of improved varieties it is able to obtain from foreign institutions, particularly the international agricultural research centres of the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research.

Scientific advances that have opened up new avenues in marine research, the entrenching of opportunities to claim monopolistic rights over all biological material and the development of new international structures in the agricultural sector have all prompted a review of Seychelles' legal regime for access to genetic resources, i.e. rights to exploit the genetic properties of biological material, and associated benefit sharing. The draft legislation that is the subject of this commentary is a response to these changing circumstances but should not be seen as a watershed, rather it is the latest stage in the development of the natural resources regulation that goes back to the very founding of the country.

The commentary follows a simple format, beginning with some explanation of why the decision was made to legislate at all. This discussion provides the context for the rest of the document in that the majority of the mechanisms developed in the legislation were designed to respond to motivations identified in the debate over whether to legislate or not. The rest of the document follows the text of the draft legislation. It explains the motivations behind, discussions surrounding and functions of each of the text's provisions in turn. To provide a further insight into these descriptions, there are two annexes to the commentary that contain the basic structures agreed upon for the two main sets of regulations that are expected to be promulgated under the legislation once it enters into force.

It is hoped that this commentary will serve two purposes. First, it will serve as an informal reference to the Seychellois authorities involved with the regulation of access to genetic resources and, perhaps, to prospective applicants for access. Second, it will provide researchers and possible regulators in other countries with an insight into the thought processes that led to the general approach, structure and specific provisions of the draft legislation in a manner that might support their own efforts.

1. Why legislate?

The most basic question in regulating access to genetic resources and associated benefit sharing is how to regulate.⁴ Governments have a range of options at their disposal, ranging from informal (e.g. administrative practice) or written policies at the non-binding, or in legal parlance 'soft law', end of the spectrum to independent legislation at the binding, or 'hard law', opposite end of the spectrum. At the international level, most of the options along this spectrum have been adopted by one country or another. Some countries hold that a combination of their systems of private rights and administrative practice adequately cater for the CBD principles of prior informed consent and mutually agreed terms. Others have developed specific policies that remain as guidelines for both public and private actors. On the more binding side, an ever-growing number of countries have developed, or are developing, subsidiary regulations to framework environmental legislation or independent legislation.

This issue is presented at the beginning of this commentary but, it should be noted, this out of chronological order in terms of the actual development of the Seychelles Bill. While a number of actors had clear positions regarding the nature of any legal regime when research began, no clear decision was made until a substantial amount of information had been collected. As will be made clear by this section, the decision to develop independent legislation in Seychelles was determined by a number of factors identified by stakeholders, some particular to the case of Seychelles and others that may be common to a number of countries. These factors can be broadly categorised into four groups:

- Volume of access and utilisation
- Recognition of rights to natural resources
- Limited effectiveness of current legal and institutional regime
- Advantages of independent legislation

1.1 Volume of access and utilisation

Almost every person or institution consulted during the preparation was able to provide some level of detail regarding activities that they considered as potentially falling within the scope of access to genetic resources. Particularly significant was the fact that the cases cited were, with one or two exceptions, not common to all sources, rather, the majority were only cited by one or two people and it has thus been able to build up a picture of what appears to be relatively significant activity. However, attempts were only made to collect indicative information in this regard and the information presented here should not be considered in the same way as the results of a systematic survey.

At a generic level, there appears to be a significant level of research involving either biological or genetic resources. The Seychelles Bureau of Standards, which is currently responsible for the issuing of research permits, reports receiving an average of one application, including both individuals and organisations, per calendar month that involves the collection of biological material and a number of others that are ambiguous in nature. At the same time, the Centre for Marine Research and Technology, with relatively modest facilities, estimates that it hosts between 250 and 300 foreign scientists each year.

⁴ It is worth noting that even a decision not to regulate can, effectively, be regarded as a policy and, therefore, a form of 'soft law' regulation.

At a more specific level, the most commonly cited form of access to genetic resources, and often biopiracy, at the international level is the case of medicinal plants and this has been identified as an issue in the Seychelles. Officials have stated that, collectively, the Ministry of Culture and Sports, Department of National Heritage and local government staff were approached to facilitate contacts with traditional healers or herbalists by approximately fifteen foreign researchers over a two year period. This is despite the existence of a wide-ranging project for the cataloguing of medicinal plants under the auspices of the Indian Ocean Commission and the fact that most local experts agree that the majority of locally used medicinal plants are exotic. However, there is also the fact that, of approximately thirty endemic species with identified uses, some fifteen are estimated to be in regular use, suggesting a potential for global commercial application.

Other terrestrial activities cited are immensely varied in their nature. A British based conservation oriented project has collected samples of flowers and, under agreement with the Seychelles authorities, has developed a hybrid ornamental that is being commercialised.⁵ In a completely different field, universities from the U.S.A., U.K. and France have all been showing keen interest in an endemic species of fruit fly (*drosophila*) that, unlike other recorded species, feeds only on a particular endemic plant. Perhaps the most famous example of access to genetic resources, or depending upon your interpretation biological resources, from the Seychelles is that of coco-de-mer, a twin lobed coconut endemic to a few of the central islands of the archipelago. Coco-de-mer⁶ was famous even before the islands were inhabited, with isolated examples washing up on the shores of India creating much interest for their “supposed medicinal and aphrodisiac properties”.⁷ In recent times, interest in exploring the chemical properties of the nut’s kernel has been expressed from a number of South East Asian countries and a local Seychellois company is developing a series of natural products in collaboration with international partners.

However, despite the interest shown in the terrestrial genetic resources of Seychelles, by far the most active sector, somewhat predictably given the geography of the archipelago, is marine genetic resources. More than twenty collecting missions to Seychellois waters by Soviet research ships in the 1970’s and 1980’s are recalled by various stakeholders.⁸ Significant levels of marine collection missions were also noted in the period 1995-2000, with the belief that, while these are still frequent, their numbers have declined in more recent years. These missions have been conducted by a wide range of actors, but universities and government sponsored teams from Europe and North America appear to be particularly prominent. While some of these activities may not actually constitute access to genetic resources, a number clearly do. The collection of a range of water samples for analysis in Europe is one such case, even though its purpose may be academic. Two cases involving chemical extracts from sea sponges are even clearer, one from the 1970’s reportedly having led to a commercialised anti-cancer

⁵ The so-called “Seychelles Busy Lizzie”, *Impatiens ‘Ray of Hope’*, was bred by the Eden Project from the endangered endemic *Impatiens Gordonii*. Its advertising highlights that the proceeds will be used to raise awareness and support the conservation of its parent in the Seychelles’ mist forests.

⁶ The name, literally translating as “sea coconut” derives from the ancient belief, prior to the discovery and settlement of the Seychelles in the 18th Century, that the nuts grew under the sea. *Supra* note 3 at 19.

⁷ *Id.*

⁸ It is reported that, in the 1990’s, a UNESCO consultant reviewed the reports of these missions provided to Seychelles authorities and concluded that they did not provide adequate information to make any meaningful assessment. Subsequent requests for information to the Russian authorities reportedly were responded to with the statement that the break-up of the Soviet Union meant that none of the relevant records were readily available.

agent and one from the 1990's having been patented in the U.S.A. for its anti-viral properties. Universities from the U.S.A. are frequently noted as being active. The unknown potential of what might be derived from the Seychelles' marine environment was also amply illustrated by a purely taxonomic research project that was concluded while research for the regulatory regime that is the subject of this commentary was underway. A project examining fish species in and around the main commercial harbour identified some thirty species of fish previously unknown in Seychelles' waters and up to six that are thought to be previously unknown to science.

While only a detailed analysis would reveal the degree to which the various research activities described above, and elsewhere in this commentary, accurately fit a reasonable description of "access to genetic resources", and particularly whether there might be any tangible direct benefit that the Seychelles might derive from these activities, it is clear that there is, at a minimum, a significant level of activity that is often accompanied by limited information and that may include access to genetic resources. Of course, the simple existence of activity does not mean that regulation is necessary. Modern economic theories frequently promote the ideas of free markets and deregulation and the case for regulation, particularly in any rigid form, has to be made in the sense that there is some specific problem it needs to address.

1.2 Recognition of rights to natural resources

The central problem relating to genetic resources that appears to be of concern to Seychellois stakeholders is that of rights to these resources as a national asset. Two basic aspects of this issue came to the fore during research: sovereignty and equity.

1.2.1 Sovereignty⁹

Regarding the issue of sovereignty, the general perception appears to be that genetic resources, while they may be a new or newly recognised resource, are, nevertheless, a natural resource and, therefore, subject to a normal understanding of sovereignty, i.e. the State's right to determine ownership and the parameters of exploitation. They are a component of national assets and, where they are exploited without the authorisation of, or benefit to, Seychelles, this is, at best, misappropriation¹⁰ and, at worst, simply larceny.¹¹ A number, although certainly not all, of the examples of access to genetic resources discussed above have not been authorized, at least not in terms of their essential purpose, by Seychelles and there is a strong feeling that others are profiting, whether financially or otherwise, from these activities. In the perceived absence of any international framework, whether formal or market driven, to limit such exploitation there is the widespread belief that Seychelles must develop its own legal framework to exert its ownership of its natural resources and protect its interests more generally. The understanding is that this will ensure the recognition of rights within the national jurisdiction and may, to a certain extent, assist in the assertion of rights at the international level. Fundamental to this understanding is a belief that the unauthorized exploitation of genetic resources should be criminalised and be punished by appropriate

⁹ Understood as "[t]he supreme, absolute and uncontrollable power by which any independent state is governed". Black et al., *Black's Law Dictionary* at 1396 (West Publishing, 1990)

¹⁰ Understood as "[t]he unauthorized, improper, or unlawful use of...property for purpose other than that for which intended...including not only stealing but also unauthorized temporary use...whether or not...any personal gain or benefit" is derived. *Id.* at 998.

¹¹ Understood as "an actual or constructive taking away of the...property of another without the consent and against the will of the owner or possessor and with a felonious intent to convert the property to the use of someone other than the owner." *Id.* at 881.

measures. This view of unauthorized access to genetic resources as a crime is reaffirmed by the fact that a large number of stakeholders appear to believe that regulation is necessary even if it will be at public expense rather than a self-supporting commercialised sector.

1.2.2 Equity¹²

The issue of equity is closely related to that of sovereignty in the context of regulating access to genetic resources in Seychelles. It is not so much that Seychellois want to exclude others from their genetic resources, rather that they want to encourage research that they consider fair. There appear to be two key elements to this concept of fairness. The first is significantly influenced by the global debate on intellectual property rights and, in particular, although not exclusively, the patenting of life forms.¹³ This element is the view that foreign individuals and organisations are claiming rights to Seychelles' genetic resources, or products or information derived therefrom. The local perception is that the international framework, in the form of UN organisations and the WTO, accepts this alienation and subsequent foreign ownership of Seychelles genetic resources and their derivatives. The desire for an assertion of sovereignty, discussed above, is, essentially, a direct response to this, as a means of asserting a prior claim.

The second element of the concept of fairness relates to the first in that, when individuals or organisations claim exclusive rights to Seychelles' genetic resources, they invariably then seek to exclude others both from the use of these resources, products or information and from any profit accruing from their commercialisation. The majority of individuals and organisations interviewed or participating in workshops where this was discussed were not against the idea of the commercialisation of Seychelles' genetic resources, whether by foreigners or otherwise, but registered strong objections to situations where such activity did not provide any reasonably direct benefit to Seychelles. Such benefit need not always focus on financial reward, but could equally consist of equipment, training, information or any other form of benefit in-kind that could assist individuals or organisations in Seychelles.

In essence, the Seychelles position regarding sovereignty and equity is that Seychelles should have prior claim to its own natural resources and that, where individuals or organisations wish to exploit these resources, Seychelles should be a partner in the process in one form or another. As with the question of the volume of activity, discussed above, perceptions of asymmetrical relationships in ownership and profit from exploitation do not automatically lead to the conclusion that legislation is necessary, although they do suggest that some form of policy intervention is required. To consider what form of policy intervention might be appropriate, one needs to consider the weaknesses stakeholders identify in the current policy regime.

¹² Understood as "the spirit and habit of fairness, justness and right dealing which would regulate the intercourse of men with men." *Id.* at 540.

¹³ For example, trademarks and geographic indications may also become an issue with products trading on the name of coco-de-mer

1.3 Limited effectiveness of current legal and institutional regime¹⁴

Three main weaknesses have been identified in the current legal and institutional regime governing access to genetic resources, one primarily legal and two primarily political. The current regime primarily consists of two parts:

- A research permit issued by the Seychelles Bureau of Standards (SBS) after consultation with relevant lead agencies.
- A material transfer agreement (MTA) developed by, what is now, the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources for use in all authorised access to biological resources.

The legal weakness of the current regime relates to both the SBS permit and the MTA. The key weaknesses of the research permit are twofold. One is that it is a generic permit for all forms of research and, as such, various issues, such as what falls within the rubric of 'research', are not clear. The other is that the obligation for obtaining a research permit is not well entrenched in law, deriving from SBS' general mandate to oversee research activities. In this situation, it is not clear what the consequences of not obtaining a research permit are or what penalties, if any, are applicable if one operates outside the scope of the research permit.¹⁵ The fact that the permit system is not entrenched in law also means that researchers are often authorised by other agencies or line ministries of the Government without going through the system at all, something that is apparently particularly prevalent when researchers approach the Government through diplomatic channels rather than directly. This type of event also appears to be common in the area of large scale marine collections, making it an issue of particular concern. The use of an MTA, in the absence of any supporting policy framework, has also raised two basic problems. One is that it only regulates those who approach the Government through the existing system and, thus, only brings those with some intention of acting equitably within the framework. In such a situation, material that is collected without any authorisation and taken out of the country, or that is already beyond Seychelles jurisdiction, is not provided for under any legal framework. The second basic problem is that, as an *ad hoc* administrative measure, an MTA is technically enforceable under the civil law of most jurisdictions but, given the limited legal capacity and financial resources of the Seychelles authorities, this is a practical impossibility anywhere beyond the domestic setting. While this situation may prove a problem even in the presence of both potential criminal and civil sanctions, as discussed below, it is believed that the existence of a formal framework would give greater weight, both legal and moral, to any violations that might be followed up through diplomatic or other channels.

The first of the two political weaknesses of the current regime relates to the reactions of lead agencies of what is, essentially, a policy lacuna where only the two isolated implementing mechanisms of the SBS permit and the MTA exist. There are several other legal instruments that prohibit the taking or possession of particular species of biological resource or of all material from particular geographical areas (see Payet and Lettington¹⁶), but none, with the limited exception of *coco-de-mer*, contain any provisions

¹⁴ Discussion here focuses on the particular problems with the existing framework identified by stakeholders. For a more general discussion of the existing legal and institutional framework governing genetic resources in Seychelles see Payet, R. and Lettington, R., *Access to Genetic Resources in the Seychelles* in Nnadozie, K., et al, "African Perspectives on Genetic Resources: A Handbook on Laws, Policies and Institutions" at 215 to 230 (ELI, 2003).

¹⁵ Research permits are usually based upon proposals or research protocols submitted by applicants and the main condition subsequent is for the submission of a report on the results of the research undertaken, which is rarely fulfilled once researchers leave Seychelles jurisdiction.

¹⁶ *Supra* note 14.

relating to specific terms and conditions under which material may be accessed, such as benefit sharing or limits on use. Similarly, there is no clear and coherent written policy, at lead agency, ministerial or Governmental level, to guide the authorisation of access to genetic resources.¹⁷ In this situation, lead agencies with limited knowledge of access to genetic resources issues tend to be cautious about authorising any activity due to fears of exploitation of their weak capacity and those with some knowledge tend to be equally cautious due to fears of exploitation of a weak system for recognising and enforcing Seychelles interests. The Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources goes so far as to recognise that it is imposing a *de facto* moratorium on all activity with only very limited exceptions for coco-de-mer, where regulation is in place, and some other very specific projects that are covered by MTAs.

The second of the two political weaknesses of the current regime is one of inadequate coordination among lead agencies and other organisations. This begins with the fact that numerous stakeholders have pointed out that there is no organisation with overall responsibility for access to genetic resources and related issues. By this, it is not meant that there is a strong desire for a completely centralised authority but, rather, the need for a coordinating body that can oversee activities and set general policy appears to be preferred. This basically appears to derive from the general feeling that the basic structure of the existing regime, with an administrative focal point consulting with lead agencies, has been quite effective in some respects and, rather than dismantling this system, there is a need for the establishment of an overall responsible agency to monitor activities and trends in various lead agency sectors and take the lead in policy development. It would also be more feasible for such a coordinating agency to develop at least minimal expertise to address the often complex questions of benefit sharing and enforcement.

1.4 Advantages of independent legislation

Winston Churchill once noted “that democracy is the worst form of government except all those other forms that have been tried from time to time”¹⁸, effectively highlighting the fact that identifying weaknesses in any existing regime is easy enough, whereas proposing measures that might effectively mitigate these weaknesses is quite another. Coordination and monitoring responsibilities within government can often be usefully addressed by a clear policy statement at the cabinet level. However, gaps and other shortcomings in regulatory regimes are rarely so easily addressed. This is particularly true in the case of some of the measures various stakeholders have identified as necessary to improving the access to genetic resources regime in Seychelles. Central to these are the fundamental requirements, recognised as pillars of Article 15 of the CBD, for prior informed consent and mutually agreed terms as the basis of any authorised access to genetic resources in Seychelles. Failure to comply with these fundamental requirements must lead to mandatory consequences. At a more detailed level, pursuant to prior informed consent only declared activities may be authorised and, to mutually agreed terms, some form of proportionate benefit sharing arrangements must be in place. As noted earlier, the view that benefit sharing should be approached in a flexible manner is widespread. As a supporting measure, the need for a requirement for the recognition of the contributions of Seychelles to any products or other developments

¹⁷ There appears to be a general feeling that this situation does not only apply to access to genetic resources but can be considered as representative of the environmental sector in general, although the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources is attempting to make incremental steps towards addressing the problem.

¹⁸ Speech in House of Commons, November 1947.

should be generally applied. Experience to date in Seychelles suggests that only a mandatory regime will be able to impose these conditions. For example, traditionally, coco-de-mer has been exploited for its entire nut and the legislative regime was geared to this activity. However, at a certain point the authorities began to observe the exploitation of the kernel alone, something that was effectively a loophole in the law, and a dramatic increase in what was viewed as piracy or poaching ensued. As soon as the legal regime was amended to expressly include the kernel, as well as whole nuts, poaching came back to manageable levels. Similarly, in the fisheries sector, authorities accept that they will not have the resources and capacity to fully police the EEZ but are equally convinced that the legal threat of boat seizures and other punitive measures in combination with a reasonably flexible permit regime is, at least, somewhat effective as a deterrent to unauthorised or otherwise irregular activities. This example highlights the link between mandatory requirements and penalties for non-compliance. A requirement, for practical purposes, will never be genuinely mandatory unless there are penalties for non-compliance and, anything more than token administrative measures and fines, must have the full force of law to be enforceable.

At this point it appears to be clear that some form of 'hard law' regime is necessary. Prior to beginning research for an access and benefit sharing regime, the process of developing framework environmental legislation had been initiated by the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources. However, the option of including umbrella access to genetic resources provisions in this legislation, and then developing implementing regulations, was rejected for two main reasons. First, concern was registered in a number of quarters that the adoption of framework environmental legislation inevitably raised a number of issues that would be contentious domestically and, therefore, the process of development might well be a lengthy one. Almost all stakeholders were convinced that the urgency that motivated work on access to genetic resources was such that it should be approached independently to ensure that it moves forward as quickly as possible. Second, there was a clear recognition in both governmental and non-governmental circles that any regime for the regulation of access to genetic resources would need to be highly flexible to allow for specific cases and for adaptation to the process of learning that would accompany implementation. Therefore, an independent piece of legislation that assigned clear responsibilities, provided for a basic framework that could be developed and adapted through regulations and imposed a clear structure of offences and penalties was considered preferable.

2. Part I: Preliminary

2.1 Scope and definitions

Scope and definitions are addressed jointly here because key elements of the precise scope of the Bill are dependent upon a series of definitions that have been developed to specifically address concerns and conceptions of Seychellois stakeholders regarding access to genetic resources.

AN ACT to provide for the regulation of access to, and the utilisation of, genetic resources and benefit sharing and connected matters.

Scope:

3. This Act relates to access to, and the utilisation of, the genetic resources of Seychelles and the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits of such utilisation.

At a general level, the scope of the Bill is provided for in the preamble and Section 3, *Scope*. There are several points that should be noted regarding these general level statements of scope. First, while they broadly follow the familiar language of the CBD relating to access and benefit sharing, there is a clear distinction made between access and utilisation, a distinction that is further elaborated in the definitions and that is strongly reflected in the operative content of the Bill itself. The main purpose of this distinction is to emphasise that there are two main types of act that might trigger the provisions of the Bill: the collection of genetic resources and the use of genetic resources, in the latter case whether or not they were collected by the person seeking to make use of them. Second, the mention of benefit sharing, one of several elements of the concept of access to genetic resources in the CBD, is a response to the belief of a broad range of stakeholders that, to emphasise the need for balance in the Bill, there should be an express reference to both the facilitation of access and the conditional nature of this access at the outset. A further point is common to much legislation in common law countries and is the reference to “connected matters” in the preamble. This provides an umbrella for providing for matters that, while they may not be directly connected to orthodox views of access, utilisation and benefit sharing, serve to support the general objectives of the Bill. In this instance, such matters, on a substantive level, include provisions relating to the collection of biological material and, on an administrative level, include the relationship between this legislation and other regulatory structures. A final point is as regards the dependence of the scope provisions on the definitions. This dependence exists in the form of the central role of the terms “access” and “utilisation” in accurately delineating scope, terms which, *inter alia*, are defined in Section 2, *Interpretation*.

Core scope definitions:

“Access” means obtaining genetic resources in accordance with the provisions of this Act pursuant to the recognised international commitments of the Republic of Seychelles;

“Utilisation” means the use of genetic resources for commercial purposes, whether or not for consideration.

As noted above, the definitions of “access” and “utilisation” are fundamental to an accurate delineation of scope and, therefore, they may be regarded as ‘core scope definitions’. Also as noted above, the distinction between access and utilisation is intended to broaden the scope of the Bill beyond activities that depend on the collection of genetic resources. In particular, the aim is to ensure that the provisions of the Bill will be triggered even if the activity in question does not involve the actual collection of genetic resources in Seychelles. For example, this might include situations where intentions change after material is collected, third party transfers of material and, perhaps, in the case of materials held *ex situ* prior to the entry into force of the legislation. The examples of changed intentions and third party transfers commonly arise in the case of collections that are initially undertaken in an academic context, or in the case of the takeover of commercial entities. The example regarding *ex situ* collections reflects the practice of a number of the world’s major botanic gardens, which have undertaken to inform countries of origin of material in their collections when such material is requested for commercial purposes. The ‘perhaps’ is because not all actors, particularly some governments and some private sector organisations, accept these standards of practice. The main legal mechanism in this approach is one that recognises a subsequent act and, therefore, avoids the problem that some utilisation of Seychelles’ genetic resources might not fall within the scope of the legislation. This risk might exist if the legislation only provided for a definition of access to genetic resources that focused on the collection of material in Seychelles jurisdiction and such a collection was made prior to entry into force, i.e. a question of retroactivity.

Regarding the actual detail of the definitions provided, it should first be noted that the CBD does not provide any definition of either “access” or “utilisation”. A definition of “sustainable use” is provided for in the CBD, but this definition focuses almost exclusively on the meaning of “sustainable” and provides only a tautological definition of “use”. Tautological definitions will normally be interpreted according to plain meaning and, even where this is the case, and particularly where the meaning is still potentially ambiguous, they are subject to national interpretation. As a result, Seychelles was free to define both “access” and “utilisation” in the manner it deemed most appropriate to its needs.

The definition of access is tied directly into the provisions of the legislation and has three elements. The first is that access refers to the ‘obtaining’ of genetic resources. ‘Obtaining’ is not defined and, therefore, the default approach of plain meaning applies. According to the most commonly used reference in these cases, the Oxford English Dictionary¹⁹, ‘obtain’ means to “acquire or secure”²⁰ and, in turn, ‘acquire’ means “come to possess”²¹. Therefore, access means coming into the possession of genetic resources. Importantly, this includes whatever means by which this might occur, including collection or third party transfer. The second element is the reference to “in accordance with the provisions of this Act”, which establishes that only access conforming to the legislation’s requirements may be considered as legitimate. The third element is the reference to the “recognised international commitments of the Republic of Seychelles”, i.e. obligations established under international agreements to which Seychelles is a party or by accepted customary law. This primarily refers to Seychelles’ ratification of the CBD, but also encompasses other agreements that touch on issues

¹⁹ Pearson, J. (Ed.), *Concise Oxford Dictionary* (OUP, 2001).

²⁰ Id. at 983.

²¹ Id. at 11.

relating to the exploitation of natural resources, such as the UN Convention on the Law of the Sea²², and broader obligations under international law.

The definition provided for utilisation contains two elements, one that is directed at the question of benefit sharing and the other directed at closing loopholes. The first element is the reference to commercial purposes. Commerce is normally understood as referring to the buying and selling of property or services. However, 'commercial purposes' is not the same as 'commerce' and is intended to broaden the scope to activities that might be considered as preliminary to commerce *per se*. For example, research aimed at the development of a research tool, or even a product, might not be considered as falling within the scope of commerce because nothing is necessarily being bought or sold. Such research would certainly fall within a reasonable understanding of 'commercial purposes', as, however directly or indirectly, the activity ultimately has a commercially oriented purpose. This distinction between 'commerce' and 'commercial purpose' is potentially significant due to the fact that investment is often put into supporting preliminary research and, in the view of Seychelles' stakeholders, the service that Seychelles provides by making its genetic resources available should be factored into this investment in the form of benefit sharing. This approach is reinforced by the second element, the reference to consideration. Consideration, or the interest, profit or benefit accrued, is often viewed in terms of the accrual of benefit from a third party from the result of an activity and, therefore, work designed for in-house purposes or that is funded in advance, academic research being a common example in the latter case, is often not viewed as being for consideration. The second element of the definition of utilisation is, thus, to ensure that such activities are clearly understood as falling within its scope.

Defining access and utilisation takes one a long way forward in understanding the scope of the legislation. However, a key element remains, as even if one understands what access and utilisation refer to, one must also be clear regarding what is being accessed or used. This raises the question of what is a genetic resource, and, critically, what is not a genetic resource, and what might be termed 'substantive scope definitions'.

Substantive scope definitions:

"Biological resources" includes organisms or parts thereof, populations, or any other biotic component of ecosystems with actual or potential use or value for humanity;

"Genetic resources" means biological resources, including parts and components, with the exception of:

- (a) any biological resource for which the intended purpose does not involve cultivation or reproduction by means of any natural or artificial technique, including biological resources for conventional uses, and
- (b) any other biological resource or use of such resource the Minister may prescribe in regulations;

As discussed by Nnadozie et al,²³ the CBD definition of genetic resources only highlights the fact that countries should define the term in a utilitarian, as opposed to a natural or physical, manner but does not actually provide a definition itself. This issue is, therefore, subject to national interpretation, as was the case with access and utilisation. The approach taken in Seychelles is based on the same basic structure that can be found in

²² See <http://www.un.org/Depts/los/index.htm>. Website last checked 150306.

²³ *Supra* note 14 at 9 to 11.

the CBD, namely the identification of a general group and then of a subset of this group. The general group can be found in the definition of biological resources, which is intended to cover all biological material. This matches the CBD definition of the same term, with one exception, which is that the reference to genetic resources has been deleted because it was not felt that this added anything substantive to the broad scope of the definition and created a risk of confusion.

The development of the definition of genetic resources was one of the most thoroughly discussed aspects of the development of the legislation, due to its central role in determining which activities would fall within the scope of the legislation and which would remain outside. Various options were developed and discussed during the research process and the text finally adopted was the result of conclusions reached after more than one half day's discussion by a broad stakeholder group. It would be impractical to describe all the options developed and discussion here focuses on the main steps in the process of developing the definition. Its origins were in the delineation of the intended substantive scope of the legislation. This discussion began with a technical assistance project by FAO that focused on the research, development and distribution systems for plant genetic resources for food and agriculture in Seychelles.²⁴ Much was learnt regarding access and benefit sharing options during this project but a key conclusion was that a regime that only addressed plant genetic resource issues was unlikely to meet national needs. There is an almost universal view among stakeholders that access to genetic resource issues should be addressed in a comprehensive manner, if for no other reason than that the life sciences are developing so fast that it is impossible to predict which resources may be most in demand in five or ten years. Specific examples cited in this context were pollutants and micro organisms but probably the area of most concern was the full range of resources to be found in the marine environment. At the inception of research for this legislation, the thought was to adopt the CBD definition of genetic resources, based on the definition of genetic material, as one that provided the broadest possible coverage.

Discussion of what shouldn't be included in an access to genetic resources regime initially focused on the idea that any regime should allow for specific exclusions. When the question of what these exclusions might be, almost the only example provided of a physical or natural nature was the case of endangered or threatened species where any exploitation might create a risk of harm. The question of "parts and components", could be considered as another exception, as it deals with the physical or natural properties of a resource, but, in reality, probably isn't, as is discussed below. Almost all of the examples that were discussed related not to the physical nature of a genetic resource but to uses of a resource, confirming the view, cited above, that the definition of genetic resources should be constructed from a utilitarian point of view.

The most obvious exclusion was one for commodities, such as fish for consumption and other foodstuffs. This exclusion operates at a range of levels from a need not to burden Seychelles' significant fish processing industry all the way down to the question of household shopping. In a more specific context a range of other activities, including taxonomic research, the production of essential oils and the collection of wild materials

²⁴ The relevant report from the FAO project is on file with the Seychelles authorities and the Development Law Service of FAO. Troedsson, K., *Plant Genetic Resources Issues and Draft Legislation for the Conservation of Plant Genetic Resources in the Republic of Seychelles* (FAO Project Number TCP/SEY/8922 (A), 2000).

for household use, were considered and, to varying degrees, proved controversial. For the purpose of establishing a generally applicable principle, the legal team suggested that the basic line between what use of a biological resource should make it a genetic resource and what use shouldn't (i.e. the line between uses regulated by the legislation and those not provided for) could be drawn on the basis of whether the intended use focused on the commodity nature of a resource or on some other property. The main strength of this approach is that it automatically excludes the majority of foodstuffs and other directly extractive and consumptive activities. The main problems identified, after much discussion, were how to exclude generally accepted uses and how to include the field of taxonomic research. Several lead agencies felt that this latter field had been used as a means to abuse their good faith where material was collected for a declared taxonomic purpose and then subsequently converted to another use.

The basic solution that was developed is the text of subsection (a) of the definition, which focuses regulation on activities that involve cultivation or reproduction, i.e. that mean that the recipient of material is not dependent on the source in Seychelles after the initial collection. Where the recipient of material will continue to be dependent on the source in Seychelles, i.e. commodity transactions, this is not regulated by the legislation on the understanding that such situations are most effectively regulated by traditional natural resource extraction systems. Such systems typically consisting of a price set according to the volume of material and the known uses of that material. To avoid the regulation of generally accepted uses that might fall within this definition of genetic resources the concept of conventional uses, discussed below, is introduced as an exception. While it might also be described as a form of generally accepted use by some, access to plant genetic resources for food and agriculture have been provided for separately, as discussed variously below, with the aim of allowing flexibility for Seychelles to follow the international structure established by the FAO International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture.²⁵ Seychelles has not, at the time of writing, ratified this Treaty but ratification has the support of the relevant lead agencies and the matter has been placed before the Cabinet for consideration. To allow for situations that might not reasonably fall within the description of conventional uses, but that it might not be deemed appropriate to regulate as access to genetic resources, subsection (b) of the definition was introduced to provide the authorities with future flexibility to make exclusions as necessary. This follows the basic principle clearly established by stakeholders: an inclusive approach to regulation with exceptions to be established as necessary.

An alternative text, that was considered until relatively late in the development of the legislation, provided that notwithstanding the general principle, access to material for any form of research would fall within the scope of genetic resources. This was aimed at addressing concerns about taxonomic research. However, this text was problematic, both from the point of view that it made the basic guiding principle difficult to discern and the fact that, as noted earlier, the ambiguity of the term 'research' had been identified as a difficulty with the existing SBS permit system. The option of providing a definition of 'research' was considered but rejected on the basis that it might be extremely difficult to develop with sufficient precision to be useful but also with sufficient flexibility to account for the rapidly changing nature of the life sciences. The problem with taxonomic research is not so much that it is unregulated, but, rather, a lack of good faith on the part of some applicants for permits, something that would remain as much of a problem if it were to be

²⁵ Cite ITPGRFA?

included within the scope of access to genetic resources. Whether taxonomic collections are included within the scope of access to genetic resources or not, the conversion of material collected for taxonomic purposes to uses that do fall within the scope of the legislation would remain a violation of its provisions on the basis that such a collection would represent unauthorised utilisation, even if not unauthorised collection. Another approach to the concerns about taxonomic research was ultimately adopted and is discussed in section 5.6 of this commentary, below.

Supplementary scope definitions:

“Conventional uses” means widely practiced and accepted uses such as –

- (a) The local collection of wild genetic resources for cultivation in home or kitchen gardens and intended primarily for domestic use,
- (b) the sale or exchange of agricultural produce for food or feed purposes,
- (c) traditional fermentation techniques,
- (d) the saving, using, exchanging or selling of farm-saved seed or propagating material among farmers, or
- (e) any other use the Minister may prescribe in regulations;

“Parts and components” includes functional units of heredity, DNA sequences, chemical compounds, secondary metabolites, biochemicals and other similar material and transcriptions of information describing any of the above in terms of structure or similar technical details;

“Plant genetic resources for food and agriculture” means those genetic resources that may be prescribed as such in regulations by the Minister for the time being responsible for agriculture;

As noted in the discussion of substantive scope definitions, above, several terms are used to expand upon or clarify these definitions and might be considered as ‘supplementary scope definitions’.

The term ‘parts and components’ was mentioned earlier as a clarification of the definition of genetic resources that could be considered as an exception to the generally utilitarian nature of that definition. The way in which it might be considered as an exception is that the definition of parts and components largely focuses on physical or natural characteristics. Its intention is to ensure that elements of a genetic resource, in whatever form they are presented, are clearly understood to be within the scope of ‘genetic resources’, i.e. in legal parlance they are non-severable from the whole. This means that any element of a genetic resource should be considered as a genetic resource in its own right and, therefore, the ownership and control, and any associated rights and obligations, also apply equally. There are two main points to note regarding the definition of parts and components.

First, the main element of the definition of parts and components to note is the word ‘include’, which is used to clearly state that the following list of examples is not exclusive. Equally, the items in this list are not necessarily mutually exclusive. For example, a DNA sequence might be considered a functional unit of heredity or a secondary metabolite might be considered a chemical compound. The key point to note is that the list is not trying to be scientifically precise: it is actually a political, rather than scientific, list and the aim is to ensure that it is understood that the definition clearly intends to include any possible element of a genetic resource.

Second, the reference to transcriptions of information is intended to ensure that rights are being claimed to any written source, or some other form of communication, describing the basic characteristics of a genetic resource. This is increasingly important as the details of materials' genetic or chemical structure can be unravelled and then sent by e-mail, fax etc ever more rapidly. Finally, the term 'parts and components' could have been added to the definition of biological resources with equal effect, genetic resources being a subset of biological resources. However, the placing in the context of the definition of genetic resources is intentional, as a means to emphasise its role within the context of the legislation.

A final point to note regarding the definition of parts and components is the fact that it was consciously preferred over the use of the term 'derivatives'. The reason for this choice was that it was felt that using derivatives would involve complexities regarding concepts of novelty, and where to draw lines in cumulative product development processes, when this is a somewhat controversial subject at the international level and Seychelles has relatively limited expertise in the field.

The term 'conventional uses' is different from that 'parts and components' in that, rather than clarifying the definition of genetic resources, it creates an essential exception to its scope. As mentioned earlier, the broad issue relates to what might be considered as generally accepted uses of biological resources that Seychelles deems it unnecessary or counter-productive to regulate through access to genetic resources. Each of the specific exceptions listed was quite thoroughly discussed but not all were necessarily agreed on unanimously.

Subsection (a), providing for local collection, was the basic starting point of discussions with stakeholders pointing out that a survey identified more than 4,000 households (out of a national total of 21,000) as having some form of kitchen garden, often focusing on traditional vegetables. Encouraging such gardens, and expanding them to the broadest possible range of cultivable species and varieties, is official government policy as a means of promoting the conservation of agricultural biodiversity. This policy has been developed as a response to the recognition that government implemented conservation initiatives will always have limits and that active public participation can greatly expand the scope of activities. To potentially restrict activities in this area by subjecting them to access to genetic resources regulation would clearly run counter to ongoing initiatives. Some people were concerned that this exception should be clear in not including the collection of wild material, particularly medicinal plants, from protected areas. However, it was recognised that these concerns arise from problems in the regulation and management of protected areas, rather than from the absence of access to genetic resources legislation, and that they would be best addressed in that context.

Subsection (b) was suggested by the legal team, and was rapidly accepted by all involved in discussions on the basis that most people had assumed that the sale or exchange of agricultural produce for consumption would not be affected by access to genetic resources. Given the focus of the definition of genetic resources on activities that involve cultivation or reproduction, this would probably be correct but, due to the combination of the importance of food and the desire for clarity in the legislation, it was decided to make a specific exclusion anyway. This is obviously important from the perspective of household food consumption, somebody buying a mango should, obviously, not need access authorisation. However, it is also very significant to the

national economy of Seychelles, as one would not wish to add an administrative burden, and thus competitive disadvantage, to industries such as fish processing.

Subsection (d) is closely related to (a) and (b) in that it includes some activities that might also be provided for in those other subsections. It should be noted that Seychelles has no plant variety protection system, seed company or plant breeders and, therefore, this exception will probably relate mostly to the informal cultivation of traditional food crops and medicinal plants for practical purposes. However, the relationship of this exception to Article 9.3 of the FAO International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture (ITPGRFA), and other international discourse touching on Farmers' Rights, was noted and those who were aware of this discourse were clear in stating that Seychelles wanted to be seen as supporting the recognition of Farmers' Rights.

Subsection (c) was probably the most controversial of the specific conventional use exceptions. Discussion covered distillation, both for alcohol and essential oils, and other similar activities as well as fermentation. As with subsection (b), the focus of the genetic resources definition on cultivation and reproduction might be seen to render this exception redundant. However, some activities, particularly fermentation, do involve the reproduction of biological resources. In addition, the fact that some stakeholders feel that the regulation, and taxation, of this kind of activity is currently inadequate suggests that access to genetic resources might be seen as a means to capture benefits. The conclusion, based on a majority opinion, was that fermentation, as an indicative example, should be excluded and that the other related forms of activity, particularly distillation, should also be excluded, as they are not really issues of access to genetic resources. If there are problems based on the perception that, in their commercial form, distillation or fermentation profit from the biological resources of Seychelles in a manner that is inequitable in terms of individual versus national benefit then this could be more effectively addressed through taxation or licensing.

As is suggested by the discussion of subsection (c), above, the list of specific examples of conventional uses is not intended to be exhaustive. It is primarily intended to provide an interpretative guide for use by the authorities. It would be impossible to exhaustively list all possible conventional uses and, if one were to attempt such a feat, any uses that were left off the list would be assumed to be regulated and such an oversight might create unforeseen burdens. To ensure that where there are activities that fall in a grey area, or that technically fall within the definition of access to genetic resources, but that the authorities deem it inappropriate to regulate can be excluded, subsection (e) provides the Minister with powers to gazette further specific exclusions as necessary.

The final supplementary scope definition is that relating to plant genetic resources for food and agriculture (PGRFA). Seychelles, in common with most small island states, is highly dependent on exotic species and varieties for the bulk of its agricultural production. The absence of a seed industry or public research sector also means that this dependence is mostly in the form of improved varieties rather than more basic breeding material. As such, the situation with agriculturally useful genetic resources, where there is a critical need and little or no local supply, is the inverse of that with other genetic resources, such as marine resources with potential pharmaceutical applications, where Seychelles has an abundant supply but limited means to exploit that supply. The definition, therefore, is established to allow the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources to distinguish specific genera and species as PGRFA for regulation

according to specifically tailored criteria. As is discussed elsewhere in this commentary, the intention is for Seychelles to regulate access to PGRFA in a manner mirroring, or, upon ratification, subject to, the ITPGRFA.

Administrative definitions:

“Applicant” means a person or organisation requesting access to, or rights to the utilisation of, genetic resources under this Act;

“Application” means a request for access to, or rights to the utilisation of, genetic resources fulfilling the requirements established by this Act;

“Competent Authority” means the Authority designated pursuant to section 9 of this Act;

“Coordinating Agency” means the Agency designated pursuant to section 11 of this Act;

“Lead agencies” means those agencies identified by the Competent Authority pursuant to section 13 of this Act;

“Minister” means, except as may be otherwise stated, the Minister for the time being responsible for matters relating to the environment;

“Provisional application” means an incomplete request for access to, or rights to the utilisation of, genetic resources; and,

In contrast to the scope related definitions, those provided for administrative purposes are relatively straightforward. Those relating to applicants and applications intend to clarify the status of persons requesting access and the degree to which the authorities are required to respond. A person must formally request authorisation for access to be considered as an applicant, thereby requiring the authorities to respond, and, therefore, requests by other than the stipulated manner need not be entertained. Similarly, only an application meeting the basic requirements of the legislation, including planned subsidiary regulations, need be addressed in any detail. A provisional application can be recorded but no further action need be taken until it becomes an actual application. These measures are included with the aim of limiting the burden on the authorities and promoting well thought out applications.

The definitions relating to the various bodies referred to in the legislation are designed to allow for some flexibility to follow Government structures and capacities. As is discussed later, stakeholders were clear as to which existing bodies should play which role but also wanted the ability to adapt to changing names, structures, mandates and capacities.

The definition of ‘Minister’ addresses two basic issues. First, the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources currently encompasses both environmental and agricultural matters but is the result of a recent merger of those two sectors. However, it is possible that these sectors may, at some point in the future, be separated at the ministerial level, or be subject to some other change, as the result of further restructuring. Should this occur, the definition ensures that the environmental sector will retain the overall power of policy direction for the legislation. However, the text ‘except as may be otherwise stated’ ensures that matters relating to PGRFA will remain within the mandate of the agricultural sector, as is discussed in section 4.5, below.

2.2 Objectives

4. The objectives of this Act are as follows –
- i. Promoting the conservation and sustainable use of the genetic resources of Seychelles;
 - ii. Providing for facilitated access to, and utilisation of, the genetic resources of Seychelles;
 - iii. Limiting or eliminating access to, and utilisation of, the genetic resources of Seychelles other than in accordance with this Act; and,
 - iv. Ensuring fair and equitable sharing of the benefits resulting from facilitated access to, and utilisation of, the genetic resources of Seychelles.

The question of the objectives of an access to genetic resources regime was the first to be addressed in the context of the development of this legislation and, while the objectives, as stated, are apparently relatively straightforward, the discussion and motivations behind them are more complex. The development of the objectives of the legislation serves two purposes. First, the objectives act as the basic instructions for the development of all the other aspects of the legislation: unless you know what you are trying to achieve it can be hard to be precise about how to do it. Many debates about access to genetic resources remain relatively general about their objectives and, without considering what these objectives are built on in terms of practical detail, the assessment of success or failure becomes a subjective exercise. Therefore, the discussion underlying the objectives of the legislation provided the detailed instructions that allowed its various mechanisms to be established. The second purpose of the objectives relates to the future implementation of the legislation. The objectives are the baseline for the development and evolution of policy for implementation. The legislation provides significant discretion to the executive authorities by leaving much of the administrative detail for its implementation to regulations. The aim of this is to provide for a future situation where implementation can be assessed on the basis of the degree to which it meets the objectives and, where weaknesses are identified, the subsidiary regulations, or the administrative approach of the various authorities, to the legislation can be amended to promote the desired effect.

Four basic objectives are provided. These are all closely related in some aspects, a fact that is highlighted when their underlying motivations are considered. Part of the reason for this is that they are all multilayered in at least some respects, with several themes running through each. They should not, therefore, be considered as mutually exclusive, nor as exhaustive, as they are intended to be presented as a whole that provides an overall view.

2.2.1 Conservation and Sustainable Use

The first objective of promoting the conservation and use of genetic resources is relatively straightforward, given the context of access to genetic resources in the CBD and the fact that the legislation is being promoted by the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources. However, this objective was also consistently cited as a top priority by a broad range of stakeholders, albeit with several subtly different perspectives. At a broad level, the most commonly cited view of conservation and use focused on the environment as the primary national asset. Seychelles' isolated geographic location and limited traditional natural resources mean that it has, by necessity, to focus on the creative exploitation of its environment. This chiefly involves the role of the environment

as the foundation of the archipelago's significant tourist industry. However, as noted earlier, tortoises and coco de mer were one of the earliest economic attractions of the islands in the eighteenth century, while spices and essential oils became key activities in later periods. In more recent years, with the expansion of the natural products industry and the development of modern biotechnologies, the options for the exploitation of the environment have been considerably extended. An almost universal view among stakeholders is that Seychelles should take advantage of any opportunities that might arise, provided that they further national interests and do not prejudice the environment in terms of its long term capacity. Given the fragility of many elements of the Seychelles' environment, the need to emphasise a 'protect and manage' approach was frequently highlighted; the essential point being that there is concern regarding the exploitation and depletion of resources but also a recognition that, if there are options to offset some of the costs of conservation initiatives, these must be taken.

While the general nature, if not always the precise detail, of use options is fairly similar across sectors the same cannot be said of conservation priorities. The basic division in the nature of priorities is between the terrestrial and marine environments, however, there are also some fairly clear subdivisions within the terrestrial sector. The key defining characteristic of these divisions is the level of knowledge of ecosystems. In general terms, the terrestrial environment is better known and understood than the marine. For higher plants and fauna, Government authorities and NGOs are reasonably confident that they have a solid base of knowledge and, therefore, the conservation priority is the limitation, mitigation or elimination of threats, such as land conversion or unsustainable extraction. In contrast, knowledge of the marine environment is very limited, not extending much beyond commercial fisheries species and basic mapping of the sea floor. Knowledge relating to non-commercial fish species, microorganisms and other forms of sea life varies between negligible and non-existent. As such, the conservation priority is on the generation of taxonomic and more advanced data to be able to assess the status of species in the marine environment and, subsequently, identify and act on threats. The situation applying to the marine environment also applies, to a large degree, to the terrestrial environment beyond higher plants and fauna. Arthropod and lower plant taxonomy is reported to be fairly well developed but more advanced data, such as life cycles and relationships with plants and animals, is generally unavailable. Almost no information regarding terrestrial microorganisms is available. Once again this means that the conservation priority, beyond basic ecosystem protection, is on the generation of knowledge rather than on addressing threats. As is discussed below, both the need to research and finance the addressing of threats and the need to generate data link the objective of conservation with that of benefit sharing, albeit it in different ways, which is a significant part of the justification for use.

2.2.2 Facilitated Access

The second objective of facilitating access to, and the use of, genetic resources is one that is a key feature of both the CBD and the ITPGRFA approaches to access and benefit sharing. From one perspective it is intended to ease the process of research and, from another, it is the service provided in return for benefit sharing, with the reality being that it should, ideally, serve both of these purposes in equal measure. In the course of research conducted for the development of this legislation facilitated access was cited as a key objective of any regulatory regime almost as often as conservation and sustainable use with, perhaps surprisingly, the objective of promoting research as a global public good being cited at least as often as any relationship to benefit sharing.

Five basic reasons were given for placing a major emphasis on facilitating access in any access to genetic resources regulatory regime:

- i) it promotes research that contributes to the global public good
- ii) providing a legitimate mechanism that is not overly burdensome discourages irregular or otherwise undesirable activity
- iii) Seychelles has an interest, if not fundamental need, in promoting collaborative, low transaction cost, international approaches to genetic resources in the agricultural sector
- iv) A failure to facilitate access will limit the options for any form of benefit sharing, whether financial or in terms of in-kind benefits such as research results or technical assistance
- v) Facilitating access in the context of a controlled regime follows the general Government policy towards natural resource exploitation in other areas.

A variety of examples of access problems were described by different stakeholders as explaining the need for a regulatory regime that creates a clear and predictable mechanism for access to genetic resources. At one end of the spectrum were some regulatory agencies who stated their reluctance to approve all but the simplest activities involving foreign researchers due to the absence of any framework to guide them in protecting national interests. In some cases locally based researchers complained that this protectionist tendency had even extended to their activities in the field of taxonomy. At the other end of the spectrum were problems, or perhaps, more accurately, challenges, experienced by the agricultural authorities in sourcing sufficient appropriate germplasm for local evaluation and distribution. Given that, by volume and significance, the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research's (CGIAR) centres are the most important source of germplasm for Seychelles, and that the CGIAR has indicated its intention to place these collections within the framework of the ITPGRFA, there is a strong local belief that Seychelles must also place itself within this framework to ensure continued easy access to germplasm.

Despite these problems and challenges, almost all stakeholders stated their strong belief that, whether for philanthropic or pragmatic reasons, any access to genetic resources regulatory regime must be based on the encouragement of positive activities, or approaches to them rather than on trying to limit or ban activities. On several occasions this was linked to Seychelles' historical experiences with natural resource management, such as with birds' eggs and coco de mer. In these cases the local population, and within specific limits foreigners, have traditionally harvested resources from the environment. These activities used to be, with some notable exceptions discussed earlier, largely unregulated but, as the population has grown, the pressure on resources has also grown and regulatory regimes have been progressively introduced. However, these regulatory regimes have tended not to ban harvesting but, rather, subject it to licenses, seasonal restrictions or other controlling measures. In a similar line, most stakeholders expressed the desire for a regulatory regime that would encourage access to genetic resources but that could control such access to limit both perceived occurrences of unfair exploitation and the protectionist tendencies that have developed in reaction to these perceptions.

2.2.3 Limiting or Eliminating Irregular Access

While implicit in the discourse relating to sustainable use and facilitated access, above, the concept of limiting or eliminating irregular access, including what is often called 'biopiracy', was raised on several occasions. At a general level, this was usually framed

within the context of equity: “we don’t mind you exploiting and profiting from our resources but what’s in it for us?” being the basic question. A slightly different view of the same concern is the fear of Seychelles losing rights to natural resources that it may not even know it owns yet. There appears to be a widespread belief among governmental and non-governmental actors that there is a significant level of unauthorised access to genetic resources, particularly in the marine environment where enforcement is at its weakest. While concerns in this area include the direct unauthorised removal of samples, there is also considerable concern regarding what might be described as ‘conversion’ where a sample is taken for one stated purpose, usually taxonomy, and then converted to another use, usually with some potentially commercial outcome. The widespread general concern regarding the problem of irregular access appears to be at least partly justified by the fact that almost every agent of a regulatory agency has a story about either irregular access and its outcomes or about suspicious activity. Many of these problems revolve around relatively obvious resources, such as coco de mer, giant tortoises or sea turtles, usually in association with supposed aphrodisiac or medicinal qualities. However, cases such as the patenting of an extract from a sea cucumber for its pharmaceutical properties and recent large scale collections of marine microorganisms by US researchers clearly demonstrate that the field of activity is much broader.

2.2.4 Benefit Sharing

Similar to the case with limiting irregular access, the issue of benefit sharing was raised a significant number of times as an objective of the development of an access and benefit sharing regime. Also as with irregular access, it was most often referred to in the context of either conservation and sustainable use or of facilitated access. It is generally seen as the quid pro quo of access that can create an equitable relationship. The idea of benefit sharing for financial gain, based on applied research and commercialisation, to support regulatory activities was noted in several instances, particularly where the activities surrounding access are not likely to provide any benefit to Seychelles. However, in general, a far greater emphasis was placed on technical cooperation and the generation of information that can inform policy and implementation. In addition, the basic right to be consulted regarding the use of national resources and the use of a regulatory structure as a means to assert rights were highlighted. A further point that was noted in regard to benefit sharing is one that regimes from those of the Philippines and Andean Pact onwards have struggled to provide for: the need to distinguish between different types of applicant, from masters’ students to multinational corporations, and between purposes, from basic to applied research.

3. Part II: Ownership of and Right to Determine, Control and Regulate Access to and Utilisation of Genetic Resources

3.1 Ownership and right to regulate

5. Pursuant to Article 26.1 of the Constitution of the Republic of Seychelles, ownership of genetic resources is recognised as vested in the registered proprietor of the land, the lessee of the land, the agent or trustee of the land or their agent, transferee or assignee, on, below or above which such genetic resources are found.

6. Pursuant to Article 26.2(a) of the Constitution of the Republic of Seychelles, the right to determine, control and regulate access to genetic resources found in the Republic of Seychelles is vested in the Government for the benefit of the public interest and shall be exercised in accordance with the provisions of this Act.

Sections 5 and 6 of the legislation are primarily intended to situate it within the context of the existing Seychellois constitutional order. As such, their purpose could be viewed as purely administrative but they also have a direct practical application. In common with the approaches of most legal systems, including common law and civil code, the ownership of, and rights to, natural resources follow the land on which they are found. There are two basic exceptions to this principle. First, key national resources, such as minerals and oil, are often set aside to the exclusive management or ownership of the state under constitutional provisions. Second, the state usually, as is the case in Seychelles, reserves the right to manage resources for the protection of the environment or for other purposes of national interest. As such, section 5 follows the right to property and recognises the right to private ownership. However, section 6 asserts the power of the State to limit the right of ownership for the benefit of the public interest. Given that, in legal parlance, genetic resources are 'fungible', meaning that individual samples are interchangeable, the case for regulation is a powerful one: it is not the individual genetic resource that is valuable but the ownership of the information it contains. More simply, the ownership of a physical sample of a medicinal plant does not compare to the ownership of the information encoding the chemical compounds that give that plant its power. Therefore, the only way to maximise the value of genetic resources is to regulate access to them collectively, i.e. through the Government.

This approach has strong precedents in Seychelles. The most prominent of these is coco de mer, where private ownership is recognised but the right to sell, licence private sellers and to set the price is reserved to the Government. Similarly, management rights to key agricultural resources, such as breadfruit, have traditionally been limited, as have the rights to pirate treasure found on private land. In short, where resources are collected on private land, private landowners may have the right to claim a share of any resulting benefits but it is the State that has right to determine the parameters of access and to negotiate what the level of any benefits should be.

3.2 Basic functions of the Bill

7. Access to the genetic resources of Seychelles shall only be in accordance with this Act. Access to the genetic resources of Seychelles other than in accordance with this Act shall be an offence.

8. Utilisation of the genetic resources of Seychelles shall only be in accordance with this Act. Utilisation of the genetic resources of Seychelles other than in accordance with this Act shall be an offence.

Sections 7 and 8 are relatively straightforward in their meaning. Where sections 5 and 6 assert the Government's right to regulate, sections 7 and 8 provide the basic framework of the regulation being established: any access or utilisation of Seychelles' genetic resources must be authorised. One further important point to note is that sections 7 and 8 introduce the conceptual distinction between access and utilisation. This distinction was proposed by the legal expert group leading the drafting process and its key purpose is intended to avoid basing all regulatory authority on the act of collecting material. Where genetic resources have been collected and passed to third parties, the act of that third party in seeking to make use of the genetic resource would constitute an independent act subject to regulation. It is recognised that the effectiveness of the regulation of utilisation may be questionable in some cases, particularly where its application is extraterritorial, i.e. where it seeks to regulate activity occurring beyond the geographical jurisdiction of Seychelles. The question of genetic resources originating in Seychelles but collected prior to the entry into force of the legislation and held in *ex situ* collections, such as botanic gardens or genebanks, may be controversial. However, a broad spectrum of stakeholders in Seychelles were clear in stating their belief that the legislation should at least clearly assert Seychelles' rights, even if these might be difficult to enforce in the absence of cooperation from foreign governments or other actors. This is in contrast to the regulation of access, where the Government, enforcement challenges allowing, has direct control of the resource through possession.

4. Part III: Administration

Two basic principles identified by stakeholders informed the development of the administrative structures established by the legislation. The first of these was that the existing *ad hoc* administrative structure used for the regulation of research should be reinforced and used as the basis of the administrative structure in the legislation. There was an almost universal view that these existing structures had the potential to be effective and that their main problem was that they did not have adequate force of law and were not specifically adapted to the needs of access to genetic resources. The second principle was that structures and responsibilities should be kept simple and, wherever possible, complement the existing activities or mandates of regulatory agencies. This was considered important primarily due to the limited human resources, in particular technical expertise, available.

4.1 The Competent Authority

9. The Competent Authority shall be designated by the Minister as he may prescribe in regulations.
10. The functions of the Competent Authority shall be –
- (a) as may, from time to time, be necessary to coordinate the development of policies and guidelines relating to the effective implementation of the objectives of this Act;
 - (b) to co-ordinate all policy and substantive activities relating to access to, and utilisation of, genetic resources in accordance with this Act;
 - (c) to promote harmony and consistency in the implementation of this Act by lead agencies;
 - (d) to collaborate with the Coordinating Agency in the effective implementation of its functions under this Act;
 - (e) to collaborate with lead agencies in, and be responsible for, the management and regulation of the utilisation of genetic resources under this Act;
 - (f) to monitor, in collaboration with the Coordinating Agency and other Lead Agencies, the application and use of genetic resources transferred from Seychelles and deposited outside Seychelles;
 - (g) in collaboration with lead agencies, to ensure that the people of Seychelles benefit from the genetic resources accessed;
 - (h) to collaborate with lead agencies in carrying out public awareness campaigns and designing capacity building programmes;
 - (i) as may be appropriate, to implement, in collaboration with the Coordinating Agency, lead agencies, non-governmental organisations and other interested parties, an integrated training programme for promoting the implementation of this Act;
 - (j) to collaborate with lead agencies in ensuring compliance with, and enforcement of, this Act; and,
 - (k) any other functions the Minister may prescribe in regulations.

Section 9 provides for the establishment, or perhaps more accurately identification, of a Competent Authority. The primary reason for empowering the Minister, rather than directly naming a responsible institution, is the recognition that executive or administrative structures and mandates may change.

The role of the Competent Authority is intended to be primarily in the realm of policy, where it should act as an overseer of the day to day implementation of the legislation rather than be directly involved in the implementation itself. The nature of this role is reflected in Section 10's focus on coordination and collaboration, as opposed to unilateral action. To some degree, the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources plays this role in the current *ad hoc* research approval process with most applications for research permits received by the Seychelles Bureau of Standards being considered in consultation with the Ministry. However, the fact that no specific legal mandate exists, including for the development of a coordinating policy, has led a number of stakeholders to highlight the absence of effective information sharing and coordination of efforts and practice. This is seen as prejudicial to Seychelles' objectives and interests in the field of access to genetic resources because of the varying levels of experience and knowledge in different agencies, thereby providing those intent on irregular access with plenty of loopholes and gaps or overlaps in authority to exploit.

In its *ad hoc* role, the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources has developed working relationships with other Government agencies, including lead agencies under its supervision and with other ministries and lead agencies. For example, it works quite

closely with the Attorney General's Chambers on enforcement and prosecution matters but this tends to be at the level of implementing policy or actions that have been established, or decided upon, by the Ministry rather than in policy formulation. Similarly, key lead agencies, such as the Seychelles Fisheries Authority or the Marine Parks Authority, tend to focus on their core mandates and, to the degree that they address other issues, provide technical input and implementation assistance to the Ministry. In several cases, lead agencies were clear in stating that they would prefer to avoid a role that consisted of more than providing technical input to policy formulation and assistance in enforcement, primarily due to concerns over capacity and the potential for distraction from core mandates.

The issue of capacity, along with the urgent need for information sharing and coordination, was a major factor in opting for the establishment of a policy oriented competent authority. As a result of its small population, Seychelles has a very limited pool of technical expertise and the option of developing access to genetic resources expertise in multiple institutions is not realistically available. However, there appears to be a widespread belief that the possibility of developing some centralised expertise is realistic, even if this has to be developed and supported from Government funds rather than being self-supporting on the basis of benefit sharing arrangements.

A final point regarding section 10 is that the various functions listed in its subsections are intended to be indicative, rather than exhaustive. The dependence on subsection k), a common approach to regulatory functions in most jurisdictions, allows for flexibility to adapt to experiences as the legislation is implemented, something that is particularly important in a sector whose dynamics are still not well understood and have shown considerable potential for controversy. In addition, experience around the world tends to show that, while there is a need for clarity in regulatory mandates, there is also a need to be able to adjust more rapidly than legislative processes usually allow for.

4.2 The Coordinating Agency

11. The Coordinating Agency shall be designated by the Minister as he may prescribe in regulations.
12. The functions of the Coordinating Agency shall be –
- (a) to receive and facilitate the expeditious processing of all applications for access to, or utilisation of, genetic resources submitted to it;
 - (b) Upon receiving written authorisation from the relevant lead agencies, grant permits for access and utilisation of the genetic resources Seychelles;
 - (c) Receive notifications of the collection of biological resources pursuant to Section 22 of this Act and forward such notifications to the relevant lead agencies;
 - (d) to co-ordinate all administrative activities relating to access to, and utilisation of, genetic resources in accordance with this Act;
 - (e) to establish and maintain a depository for all applications, permits, material transfer agreements, reports and other relevant documentation, including communications and notifications;
 - (f) to establish administrative mechanisms for the implementation of this Act;
 - (g) to ensure that that digital specimens of genetic resources accessed or utilised under this Act are deposited in Seychelles, such digital specimens to be provided in appropriate electronic format and to include –
 - (i) an image of the genetic resource or the specimen from which it was derived or extracted,
 - (ii) any available accompanying taxonomic or passport data,
 - (iii) any other information the Minister may prescribe in regulations or the Competent Authority or lead agencies require on a case-by-case basis.
 - (h) as appropriate and in collaboration with lead agencies, to ensure that representative samples and specimens of genetic resources accessed or utilised under this Act are deposited in Seychelles;
 - (i) as appropriate and in collaboration with lead agencies, to advise on and approve the location for depositing of samples and specimens of genetic resources accessed or utilised under this Act;
 - (j) as appropriate and in collaboration with lead agencies, to ensure that samples and specimens accessed or utilised and held outside of the jurisdiction of Seychelles remain reasonably available to Seychelles upon request;
 - (k) to monitor technology transfer and information exchange in relation to genetic resources;
 - (l) in collaboration with lead agencies, to facilitate negotiation and conclusion of all material transfer agreements, including the terms and conditions upon which access or authority for utilisation is to be granted;
 - (m) to ensure that all material transfer agreements or permits contain sufficient provisions for the sharing of benefits accruing to any person or entity from access to, or utilisation of, the genetic resources of Seychelles;
 - (n) to submit to the Competent Authority reports relating to the implementation of this Act; and,
 - (o) any other functions the Minister may prescribe in regulations.

Section 11 provides for the designation of a coordinating agency, a body which, like the Competent Authority, has its origins in existing Seychellois structures and practice.

A cursory examination of the functions of the coordinating agency shows that its purpose is primarily administrative. Its main functions are to act as a focal point for the receipt of applications for access to, or the utilisation of, genetic resources and, upon determining that such applications are in order, liaise with lead agencies in the completion of any necessary agreements. Ultimately, the coordinating agency will be responsible for the issuance of permits pursuant to authorisation by lead agencies. The purpose behind

these functions is to promote effective coordination in the implementation of the legislation at an administrative level, with particular attention to the question of possible gaps or overlaps in mandates. It is the coordinating agency, not the applicant, who will determine the relevant lead agencies for any particular application. This is intended to facilitate the process for applicants, in that they can channel any communication through a single body safe in the knowledge that this is appropriate, while also closing off any loopholes that may result from limited capacity in particular lead agencies or from any ambiguity in mandates. Similarly, it ensures that all of the relevant lead agencies, and available capacities, are involved in any access or utilisation negotiation or decision. In addition, the coordinating agency will serve as a central repository of information regarding all access and utilisation activities, thereby providing an institutional memory and reference point for lead agencies and the Competent Authority. To a limited degree, this service already exists in the form of a database maintained by the Seychelles Bureau of Standards, which is accessible through the internet.

To date, the Seychelles Bureau of Standards (SBS) has performed many of the functions that are envisaged for the Coordinating Agency and the overwhelming view appears to be that it should continue in this role. It has been noted for its efficiency in the delivery of its functions and it was frequently remarked that it was generally perceived as a neutral body that could be effective in linking ministries and lead agencies, perhaps because of its inter-ministerial governance. A further advantage in SBS performing the functions of the Coordinating Agency is that it oversees the issuance of generic research permits and, therefore, will be in a unique position to see any links, or gaps, between that permit system and the legislation.

The key weaknesses identified in the existing system implemented by SBS are several. First, there is no definition of research and, therefore, it is not always clear which activities require authorisation and which not. Second, the legal force of the system is open to question, with SBS empowered to issue research permits by the 1997 SBS Amendment Act but with the situation regarding enforcement and penalties left unclear. Third, there is concern that the current research permit requirements do not provide the necessary baseline information to allow for effective decision-making in some specialist sectors, including access to genetic resources. Finally, there is the fact that the existing system includes no formal mechanisms for benefit sharing, whether in-kind or otherwise. There is not even any formal schedule of fees. These gaps severely hamper the options for achieving optimal levels of technical assistance and financial return within an equitable system.

4.3 Lead agencies

13. Lead agencies shall be identified or designated by the Competent Authority as necessary and appropriate.
14. (1) Lead Agencies shall be responsible for the management and regulation of access to genetic resources under this Act.
- (2) The Coordinating Agency shall forward to the relevant Lead Agency an application for access to genetic resources submitted to it by an applicant.
- (3) The functions of a Lead Agency in respect of an application for access to genetic resources submitted to it under section 14.2 shall be –
- (a) to review the application and provide authorisation to the Coordinating Agency, in writing, consenting to the grant of access or rights of utilisation or otherwise;
 - (b) to maintain a depository of all documentation of relevance to access and utilisation of genetic resources within their respective responsibilities or mandates and to ensure that duplicates of such documentation are provided to the Coordinating Agency in a timely manner;
 - (c) to ensure that a member of staff of an appropriate lead agency accompanies all applicants granted access to genetic resources under this Act in activities relating to the collection of such resources;
 - (d) As appropriate and in collaboration with the Competent Authority, ensure the effective enforcement of this Act;
 - (e) to ensure that the rights of the local communities which use, collect or research into genetic resources are protected, including verifying compliance with consent requirements;
 - (f) as appropriate and on the approval of the Coordinating Agency, to establish a depository or designate an existing depository for representative samples or specimens of genetic resources taken out of Seychelles; and,
 - (g) any other functions the Minister may prescribe in regulations.
- (4) In the exercise of its functions under this Act, a lead Agency shall continue to execute its mandate as prescribed by law.

In many respects, sections 13 and 14 establish lead agencies as the on the ground implementers of the legislation. In line with its role as the provider of policy guidance for the legislation, Section 13 empowers the Competent Authority to identify or designate lead agencies in the context of the legislation. This points at the key element of the relationship between the Competent Authority and lead agencies, which is implicit rather than explicit in Section 14: that lead agencies will implement their functions under Section 14 within the scope of the policies formulated by the Competent Authority. This element of the relationship is one that will often also involve the Coordinating Agency as an interlocutor. Another element of the relationship between the Competent Authority and lead agencies, which involves a lower profile for the Coordinating Agency, is that of enforcement, where the link between policy and action on the ground is quite direct. Subsection 14.4 recognises the existing mandates of lead agencies and is intended to highlight that their activities under the legislation should complement these existing mandates. This, final, point highlights that, following the prevailing view, the legislation does not seek to fundamentally alter existing structures and mandates but, rather, to clarify and reinforce them.

4.4 Collaboration with other organisations

15. Where necessary and appropriate, the Competent Authority, Coordinating Agency, lead agencies and any other agencies of the Government of Seychelles shall collaborate with local, foreign and international organisations, whether governmental or non-governmental, in the effective implementation of this Act.

Section 15 is a blanket administrative provision applying to all the agencies with mandates under the legislation. Its intention is to empower agencies to work with all other organisations necessary for, or simply supportive of, the better implementation of the legislation. The most obvious organisation with which agencies will need to collaborate is the CBD Secretariat, as well as associated bodies such as the UN Environment Programme and the Global Environment Facility. If, as has been suggested in some quarters, the CBD's Clearing House Mechanism takes on an expanded role in information sharing for access to genetic resources, such collaboration could easily expand beyond policy coordination and funding. Similar to the case of the CBD, it is likely that all types of agency will find it beneficial to collaborate with FAO and the Governing Body of the ITPGRFA. Seychelles is currently a little isolated from the Global Crop Diversity Trust, the element of the funding mechanism of the ITPGRFA that is already functional, due to its distance from regional strategies for the conservation of plant genetic resources for food and agriculture but this may change with time.

Collaboration with a number of other organisations is also likely to prove beneficial. Some NGOs, in both developing and developed countries, are beginning to provide technical assistance in both policy formulation and in the event of disputes. Similarly, NGOs have played a valuable role in monitoring and encouraging accountability on a number of occasions in various regions.

Most of these potential relationships might be assumed as natural given the mandates for different types of agency established by the legislation. That Section 15 specifically empowers agencies to enter into them is to be clear that they have this authority, both for the purpose of encouraging collaboration and to avoid the possibility that collaboration, particularly in the area of enforcement, might be challenged in the context of a dispute.

4.5 Prescribing of regulations

16. The objectives and provisions of this Act shall be carried into effect by means of regulations that may be prescribed, including –

- a) The Minister for the time being responsible for agriculture shall prescribe measures for access to, and utilisation of, plant genetic resources for food and agriculture under this Act; and,
- b) The Minister shall prescribe measures for access to, and utilisation of, genetic resources other than those provided for in paragraph (a) of this section under this Act.
- c) Notwithstanding the provisions of sub-section b) of this section, the Minister shall have powers to regulate access to, and the utilisation of, specific genera, species or sub-species in a more restrictive than the provisions of this Act, where the Minister, in consultation with the Competent Authority and relevant Lead Agencies, deems necessary or appropriate.

As noted elsewhere in this commentary, the prescribing of regulations, and, therefore, Section 16, is critical to the regulatory structure established by the legislation. There are four key points to be noted regarding Section 16. First, by use of the word 'including', the chapeau establishes a general power to prescribe regulations, notwithstanding the regulations specifically referred to in the subsections. This general power is particularly important to allow room for flexibility in the face of unforeseen events. Subsection (a) is the reason for the exception to the definition of 'Minister', provided for in Section 2, discussed above. Plant genetic resources for food and agriculture have been managed by a distinct unit, which falls within the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources. Therefore, for the time being, the 'Minister' and the 'Minister for the time being responsible for agriculture' are one and the same but, in the past, agriculture and environment have been under separate ministries and the possibility of further restructuring in the future is allowed for. The reason for providing for such a clear division between plant genetic resources for food and agriculture and other genetic resources is twofold. One, Seychelles' almost complete dependence on exotic material for its agricultural sector has led to the recognition that there are very different dynamics prevailing in different genetic resource sectors. Second, there is considerable support for ratification of the ITPGRFA among the agricultural authorities and it is recognised that, in the event of ratification, there will be a need to implement mechanisms that are very specific to that framework, such as an internationally agreed standard material transfer agreement. The fact that the ITPGRFA framework was developed in harmony with the CBD means that the broad provisions of the legislation, prepared in accordance with the CBD, should provide an adequate umbrella for implementing regulations that follow the multilateral approach of the ITPGRFA as well as the bilateral approach usually preferred for the regulation of non-agricultural sectors.

A final point regarding the critical role of the power to promulgate regulations in the structure established by the legislation relates to the flexibility this provides. In almost all jurisdictions, regulations are recognised as a more flexible instrument than legislation because their promulgation does not involve time consuming legislative processes. In Seychelles, this principle is, perhaps, even stronger than in most other jurisdictions: there is a history of regulations being changed extremely rapidly to adapt to changing circumstances or new phenomena. One example cited by stakeholders related to the protection of sea cucumbers, which have a significant market in Asia, in Seychellois waters. Several years ago the relevant authorities noted a significant rise in the poaching of sea cucumbers and, in less than three weeks, introduced new regulations specifically addressing the problem. While such rapid action can sometimes be problematic, these new regulations have been amended several times since their initial promulgation to improve the structure they establish. Recognising that the establishment of a regulatory regime that both furthers and protects national interests while also genuinely facilitating and promoting research has been an elusive goal in other countries and regions, it is expected that the flexibility provided by a heavy dependence on regulations, rather than the core legislative regime, will allow the relevant authorities to rapidly address problems as and when they be identified.

5. Part IV: Conditions of Access

As noted in 3.2, above, the legislation makes a conceptual distinction between ‘access’ and ‘utilisation’ for the purpose of ensuring that the scope of regulated acts is clear. Part IV of the legislation provides the basic outline of the regulatory approach to access.

5.1 Prior informed consent

17. Access to the genetic resources of Seychelles shall be conditional upon the granting of prior informed consent by the following –

- (1) The relevant authorities of Seychelles, as prescribed in regulations; and,
- (2) As may be appropriate, any holder of private rights that may be relevant to the grant of access.

Private rights in this section shall be understood so as to include the rights of the holders of the knowledge, innovations and practices of local communities embodying traditional lifestyles relevant for the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity, whether or not these rights may be formally recognised in law.

Article 15.5 of the CBD, provides that access to genetic resources shall be subject to the “prior informed consent of the Contracting Party providing such resources, unless otherwise determined by that Party.” Section 17 follows Article 15.5 by requiring the prior informed consent of the relevant authority, as a representative of the State, and, in addition, requiring the prior informed consent of any holder of private rights relating to the genetic resource in question, or relating to any other aspect of access.

The relevant authority to provide prior informed consent is not specified, because, as noted earlier, lead agencies provide the primary consent, through the Coordinating Agency, and the relevant lead agency may vary depending on circumstances. However, it is important to note that this should not complicate matters for an applicant, as they will not be asked to identify the relevant authority: this is one of the roles of the Coordinating Agency acting as a focal point.

Similarly, applicants will not be required to identify any holders of private rights relating to a resource or to access to that resource. In its role of facilitating negotiations, the Coordinating Agency will, in collaboration with lead agencies, identify private rights holders and ensure that they are adequately aware of the circumstances of any application. As noted elsewhere in this commentary, the recognition of private rights is solidly entrenched in the Seychelles’ Constitution and is therefore clearly recognised in the legislation. The concluding paragraph of Section 17 links partly with Article 8(j) of the CBD, but also with the wider international discourse relating to traditional and indigenous knowledge. Seychelles has no “indigenous” communities in a strict understanding of that term, having been uninhabited prior to the 18th Century, but has a long history of traditional medicine that is widespread among its communities. The reference to the formal legal recognition of rights to traditional knowledge is to allow for the fact that, at the time of writing, Seychelles is largely still at the research phase of considering options for the protection of traditional knowledge.

A final point is that Section 17 doesn’t actually specify what ‘prior informed consent’ means. This can sometimes be a complex concept, particularly as regards what it means to be informed. In this context, it is planned that the information required in any application will be specified in regulations, allowing flexibility for both adaptation to perceived needs and, perhaps, to the varying activities and capacities of applicants.

5.2 Benefit sharing

18. Access to the genetic resources of Seychelles shall be conditional upon measures for the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits of such access, as may be prescribed in regulations.

Article 15.7 of the CBD establishes benefit sharing as one of the cornerstones of an access to genetic resources regulatory regime. As discussed in 2.2.4 above, benefit sharing is seen as a necessary complement to facilitated access. Also as noted in 2.2.4, there is a heavy emphasis on in kind benefits and the recognition that varied approaches will often be required. Two possible texts were proposed by the legal expert group. The first option referred to the principle of benefit sharing and then provided a set of simple indicative examples. It closed with a requirement that benefit sharing arrangements reflect the various public, community and private interests that may be involved in any proposed access. The second option was ultimately adopted and is that presented above. This establishes the basic principle and leaves all detailed matters for regulations.

The reasons for choosing the simpler text were twofold. First, it provides maximum flexibility in forms and levels of benefit sharing. To the degree that any mandatory requirements are deemed necessary, they can be provided for in regulations and, therefore, adapted relatively quickly on the basis of experience. Second, and most significant, is the fact that it is recognised that benefit sharing, and particularly financial benefit sharing, will be less important in the context of access than in that of utilisation. It was frequently remarked that, in many cases, the main benefit that might be derived from the granting of simple access would be the provision of information.

5.3 Protected or threatened species

19. Access to the genetic resources of Seychelles involving any species listed or otherwise officially recognised in law or practice as protected or threatened shall not be granted unless written approval for access is received from the lead agency responsible for the conservation and management of such species including, where relevant, the CITES Management Authority.

Section 19 is a basic conservation provision, highlighting the fact that access to threatened or endangered species will inevitably be more complex than access to other species. Its direct function is to recognise the existence of other regimes controlling access issues. Section 19 also includes recognition that rapidly changing circumstances, or new information, may mean that a species has not been formally listed as threatened or endangered but that it is, nevertheless, recognised as such in practice.

5.4 Discretion to refuse access

20. The Competent Authority, in consultation with the Coordinating Agency and lead agencies, shall have the discretion to refuse access to the genetic resources of Seychelles where it is reasonably believed that the applicant is from, or otherwise based or operating in, jurisdictions that do not provide adequate guarantees for the respect and enforcement of this Act.

Section 20 reflects a currently *de facto* administrative practice implemented by a number of lead agencies and other institutions: the right to refuse access where the authorities are not reasonably sure of an applicant's commitment to the terms and conditions under which access might be granted or of their ability to seek redress in the event that an applicant breaches those terms and conditions. A number of examples were given where applications for a particular activity by institutions or individuals from one country had been approved but applications for the same activity by institutions or individuals from another country had been refused. The most commonly cited reasons for these distinctions were that, in the case of the applications that had been refused, the authorities felt that did not have adequate guarantees or were uncertain of how exported material might really be used.

While providing scope for the relevant authorities to act on their concerns, it is also hoped that Section 20 may influence the approaches of applicants. In particular, it should highlight a key regulatory concern to applicants in advance of their submission of an application, thereby encouraging them to seek to address this concern in their applications. However, it should be noted that the view that adequate guarantees or security would not exist in all countries in the absence of an, at least minimal, international regime on access and benefit sharing. For the agricultural sector, the ongoing negotiations regarding the dispute resolution mechanisms to be included in a standard material transfer agreement could, therefore, be seen as critical and, potentially, as something that may have broader implications in non-agricultural access and benefit sharing dispute resolution.

5.5 Limitation on time and scope of access

21. Access to genetic resources other than plant genetic resources for food and agriculture shall be expressly limited in both time and the nature and scope of authorised activities.

Section 21 is largely intended to ensure control of access to genetic resources by third parties and to discourage unauthorised utilisation, whether by applicants or third parties. It is a measure that is found in the material transfer agreements of a number of institutions around the world and its inclusion here merely reflects this emerging standard. The specific exclusion of plant genetic resources for food and agriculture from this requirement reflects the fact that the provisions of the International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture preclude its application to that sector and, indeed, are intended to facilitate third party transfers and limited, if any, reporting on, or monitoring of, the nature of activities.

5.6 Collection of biological resources

22. Any collection of biological resources for taxonomic, or other research purposes not falling within the provisions of this Part, shall, notwithstanding any permits or authorisation that may be required, be notified to the Coordinating Agency, including details of the purpose, nature and scope of such collection.

Section 22 is a specific response to a concern raised by regulatory authorities and, to some degree, other stakeholders. This is that a number of actors have sought access to genetic resources in recent years stating that their intended purpose is taxonomic research. While the authorities are keen to encourage such research, they are worried that such applications have sometimes been made in bad faith and that resources have been converted to other uses once accessed. Such conversion would be an offence under the provisions of the legislation relating to utilisation and, probably, also a violation of the terms and conditions under which access might be granted. However, by the time the offence was committed the applicant would, most likely, be beyond Seychelles' jurisdiction and, therefore, the authorities wanted some means of monitoring access that might not require authorisation under the legislation to allow for possible action to limit abuse. It is important to note that Section 22 is purely a matter of notification and does not involve any process of authorisation.

5.7 Additional conditions for access

23. As appropriate and necessary, the Minister may prescribe additional conditions for access to the genetic resources of Seychelles in regulations.

The provisions of Part IV only address the basic structure of an access regime and, as has been discussed in the context of the legislation more generally, subsidiary regulations are necessary to add detail in a manner that will allow for flexibility in implementation. Section 23, therefore, serves a dual purpose. On the one hand it empowers the Minister to add and, as may be necessary, amend this detail and, on the other, it allows the Minister to go beyond the scope of the core structure established by the legislation. This latter point can be particularly important in ensuring that conditions of access, such as the payment of application fees or requirements that local staff accompany any collecting missions, established in subsidiary regulations cannot be held to be *ultra vires*, or beyond the scope, of the parent legislation.

6. Conditions of Utilisation

6.1 Prior informed consent

24. Rights to the utilisation of the genetic resources of Seychelles shall be conditional upon the granting of prior informed consent by the relevant authorities of Seychelles, as prescribed in regulations.

Section 24 varies from the text of Section 17 in that it does not provide for the prior informed consent of private rights holders. This is primarily due to the fact that Section 24 only applies where an application is exclusively for rights to utilisation and where no collection of material is involved. This situation may occur where one is dealing with material already held in *ex situ* collections or where a new possibility for utilisation is identified subsequent to collection. In the former case, the resource has already, at least for practical purposes, been alienated from any local private rights and, in the latter case, the authorities may still work with the holder of any private rights pursuant to any terms and conditions that might have been agreed to as a condition of access. It is also important to note that the question of prior informed consent does not determine

outcomes relating to benefit sharing and, therefore, private actors could, and in some cases must, be included in benefit sharing even if they are not directly involved in the negotiation of those benefits.

6.2 Intellectual property rights notification

25. Any grantee of rights to the utilisation of genetic resources shall notify the Coordinating Agency of any intention to apply for, assert or otherwise claim any form of intellectual property rights relating to such utilisation.

Section 25 was included in the legislation by majority, rather than unanimous, decision. Its purpose is to facilitate the monitoring of any authorisations for utilisation, as, at least in the commercial sector, intellectual property rights applications are often an effective way of having an overview of research activities. Requiring that notification be given of intent, rather than of actual applications, allows the authorities to act early where they believe there may be a violation of any term or condition of rights to utilisation while also maintaining the option of opposing an application for intellectual property rights where they believe such an application to be improper.

The debate regarding the inclusion of Section 25 in the legislation was generated more by the question of its relative utility rather than because of any concern that it might be prejudicial to the objectives of the legislation. The questions relating to its utility were twofold. First, it was pointed out that it would probably only be complied with by those who intended to act in good faith anyway. Second, it was noted that the main motivation behind monitoring utilisation is to ensure that any financial benefits are effectively captured and that intellectual property rights are not always the most effective proxy for identifying commercial profit.

6.3 Benefit sharing

26. Any grant of rights to the utilisation of the genetic resources of Seychelles shall be conditional upon measures for the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits of such utilisation, as may be prescribed in regulations and including –

- (1) monetary benefits such as fees, royalties or milestone payments; or,
- (2) non-monetary benefits such as the provision of research results, training, equipment or information contributing to the conservation and sustainable use of the genetic resources of Seychelles.

Provided that such benefit sharing shall include due consideration of the public interest and of the interests of the holders of private or community rights including to the knowledge, innovations and practices of local communities embodying traditional lifestyles relevant for the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity.

In many ways, the provisions of Section 26 are the result of that same discussion that produced the provisions of Section 18, although the conclusion was different. The objective was to provide flexibility while promoting equitable relationships. While access to a resource may, or may not, generate tangible benefits beyond the availability of information it is considered that the utilisation of that resource is far more likely to generate at least in kind benefits, if not financial returns as well. Given this relative

likelihood of the generation of benefits, it was felt that more detail should be provided in Section 26 as compared to Section 18. The text adopted here is very similar to the alternative option proposed, but ultimately rejected, for Section 18, as discussed above. The examples of forms of benefit sharing are non-binding and indicative and, therefore, do not really limit flexibility but are intended to highlight the greater emphasis placed on benefit sharing in the context of utilisation as opposed to simple access. The key distinction between Section 26 and Section 18 is, therefore, the binding requirement that any benefit sharing arrangements relating to rights to utilisation consider private or community rights as well as the public interest. In cases of simple access, where the benefits generated are often likely to consist of research results, a sharing of benefits at the private or community level may not always be effective or desirable. However, the increased likelihood of the generation of direct tangible benefits in the context of rights to utilisation means that private and community rights must be considered if a generally equitable arrangement is to be established. This reflects the provisions of Sections 5 and 6, discussed above, recognising the existence of private ownership of genetic resources found on private land but within the context of a Government assertion of the right to regulate such privately owned resources. In other words, while the private owner of a genetic resource may not have the right to determine the outcome of any application for utilisation they do have the right to claim a share in any benefits that might be generated.

6.4 Declaration of origin

27. Any grant of rights to the utilisation of the genetic resources of Seychelles shall be conditional upon the grantee declaring Seychelles as the provider of such genetic resources in any patent application or claim or other form of intellectual property rights application, claim or assertion. The Competent Authority may, upon notification by a grantee pursuant to section 25 above, waive the condition provided for in this section, provided that such waiver is strictly limited in scope and only applied on a case-by-case basis.

The background to Section 27 is, in many ways, similar to that of Section 25, discussed above. The same debate as to the relative utility of its provisions applies. However, in the case of Section 27, there was concern not only relating to the relative utility of the provisions but, also, as to possible impacts that might be prejudicial to the objectives of the legislation. In particular, it was pointed out that some private sector actors might be reluctant to undertake research in Seychelles under this condition. However, it was also noted that private sector objections to declaration of origin requirements primarily relate to where these are included in intellectual property rights legislation and, in particular, where they might threaten the validity of intellectual property rights, as opposed to forming the basis of a claim for damages. Section 27 was ultimately included because a majority felt that it had the potential to be useful in monitoring and probably wouldn't inhibit research for two reasons. First, such declaration requirements have been routinely included in material transfer agreements in various parts of the world without major controversy and, second, where a genuine reason for not including a declaration in an intellectual property rights claim exists, the Competent Authority may, within limits, grant a waiver of the requirement.

6.5 Protected or threatened species

28. Rights to the utilisation of the genetic resources of Seychelles involving any species listed or otherwise officially recognised in law or practice as protected or threatened shall not be granted unless written approval for access is received from the lead agency responsible for the conservation and management of such species including, where relevant, the CITES Management Authority.

The purpose and function of Section 28 is largely as that described for Section 19, above. However, there is a slight difference in that regimes for the protection of threatened species usually focus on access to those species. Regulations relating to their utilisation are more of a secondary mechanism to ensure that the rules relating to access have been complied with.

6.6 Discretion to refuse rights to utilisation

29. The Competent Authority, in consultation with the Coordinating Agency and lead agencies, shall have the discretion to refuse rights to the utilisation of the genetic resources of Seychelles where it is reasonably believed that the applicant is from, or otherwise based or operating in, jurisdictions that do not provide adequate guarantees for the respect and enforcement of this Act.

The purpose and function of Section 29 is exactly as that of Section 20, discussed above.

6.7 Limitation on time and scope of utilisation

30. Rights to the utilisation of genetic resources other than plant genetic resources for food and agriculture shall be expressly limited in both time and the nature and scope of authorised activities.

The purpose and function of Section 30 is exactly as that of Section 21, discussed above.

6.8 Additional conditions for utilisation

31. As appropriate and necessary, the Minister may prescribe additional conditions for the grant of rights to the utilisation of the genetic resources of Seychelles in regulations.

The purpose and function of Section 31 is exactly as that of Section 23, discussed above.

7. Part VI: Measures to Support Prior Informed Consent and Mutually Agreed Terms, Including Benefit Sharing, in Countries of Origin or Countries Providing Genetic Resources

Part VI of the legislation may be clearly distinguished from parts IV and V in that it relates almost exclusively to the role of Seychelles as a user of genetic resources rather than its role as a provider. The main motivation for the inclusion of what have come to be known as ‘user measures’ was one of morality or equity: if Seychelles is to expect

foreign jurisdictions to respect its legal framework for access to genetic resources then it must, within reasonable limits, be prepared to respect other countries' legal frameworks in the field. A second motivation relates to the fact that, in the absence of any effective international regime, it might be possible to at least mitigate challenges in monitoring and enforcement by the development of some form of less formal cooperation based on reciprocity. This sort of semi-formal cooperation has some precedents in, for example, the relationship with Mauritius, where the Mauritian authorities will generally confiscate any *coco de mer* nuts found in their jurisdiction without official Seychelles certification.²⁶ The basic belief underpinning this approach is that the existence of an international regime that, at a minimum, addresses some level of monitoring and enforcement concerns, or, in the absence of such a regime, some less formal structure of reciprocity, would allow for a far more open approach to authorising access and utilisation.

The direct functions of Part VI are to provide for monitoring of access to genetic resources by Seychellois in other jurisdictions and to establish measures for the limited recognition and enforcement of foreign regulations or material transfer agreements. The limited nature of this recognition is largely due to the fact that it is based upon the principles of equity and reasonableness.

To some degree it has to be admitted that the question of user measures may be an easy one for a country like Seychelles that, with the exception of the agricultural sector, is clearly a net provider of genetic resources. However, the user measures provided for in Part IV do apply to agricultural material and they would also apply to some other activities that are already present in Seychelles, including aquaculture based on foreign brood stock and, potentially, the growing natural products industry.

7.1 Compliance with law of source jurisdictions

32. Any person or other entity based in or otherwise subject to the jurisdiction of Seychelles shall comply with the laws or other regulatory regimes of other jurisdictions in which they may access or seek authorisation for the utilisation of genetic resources.

Section 32 establishes the basic principle that any Seychellois should comply with any laws or rules that may exist in countries in which they access genetic resources. There are three points that should be noted regarding this Section. First, the key function of Section 32 is to make it an offence under Seychelles law to access genetic resources in violation of any foreign law or rule. Second, this key function depends upon the existence of laws or rules in those foreign jurisdictions. Section 32 does not establish any fundamental right to benefit sharing or prior informed consent. However, any law may not need to be specifically directed at access to genetic resources, for example, many laws on protected areas establish a basic requirement that nothing should be removed from a protected area without authorisation. Third, it should be noted that, because of the reference to "access or seek authorisation", Section 32 applies whether one is alleged to have breached accepted terms and conditions of access or where one is alleged to have completely circumvented any access law or rule.

²⁶ Although this is technically regarded as a violation of Mauritian import regulations rather than of Seychellois sale and export regulations. *Supra* note 24 at 28-29.

7.2 Compliance with terms and conditions of source

33. Any person or other entity based in or otherwise subject to the jurisdiction of Seychelles shall comply with the terms and conditions upon which they have been granted access or authorisation to utilise genetic resources in any other jurisdiction, including any material transfer agreements or permits.

Section 33 largely mirrors Section 32 but, where Section 32 addresses legislative and regulatory measures, Section 33 focuses on the enforceability of any specific terms and conditions that may have been agreed to. Section 33, therefore, does not necessarily depend upon the existence of laws or regulations but could, depending upon the circumstances, also provide for the *ad hoc* arrangements that are in place in many countries at the present time. Where a material transfer agreement, or a form of permit that could be understood as a contract, is in place there would, notwithstanding Section 33, obviously be a cause of action under Seychelles law for breach of contract for any aggrieved person. However, Section 33 moves beyond this by making such a breach something that the Government of Seychelles can act upon, thereby providing greater security for anybody authorising access to genetic resources by Seychellois in their jurisdictions.

7.3 Notification to source and Competent Authority of access or utilisation

34. Any person or other entity based in or otherwise subject to the jurisdiction of Seychelles and accessing or utilising genetic resources originating in or provided by other jurisdictions shall notify the relevant authorities, including any access and benefit sharing competent authority, of that source country and the Competent Authority of such activities and of any permits issued or material transfer agreements executed and provide details of the same.

Section 34 is intended to facilitate the monitoring of access to genetic resources activities involving Seychellois both by the authorities of countries of origin and, for the purposes of the implementation of Part VI, the Competent Authority in Seychelles. It is recognised that the notification requirement assumes that relevant authorities are identifiable,²⁷ which may not always be the case. In the development of Section 34 it was assumed that compliance would have to be judged by some form of good faith, or reasonableness, rather than absolute, standard, given the lack of clarity prevailing in some countries. In the case of notification of the Seychellois Competent Authority, the main objective is to establish the said Authority as a central source of information on the activities of persons subject to Seychellois jurisdiction and to facilitate the implementation of Part VI generally. A further, incidental, benefit is that the recording of permits and material transfer agreements originating in other countries will provide a useful source of information for the Seychelles' authorities in assessing their own policies.

²⁷ Through its Clearing House Mechanism, the CBD maintains a list of contacts for the access and benefit sharing competent authorities and focal points of which it has been notified. At the time of writing, consisting of 15 countries in the former category and 43 in the latter. See <http://www.biodiv.org/world/map.aspx>, website last checked 130306.

There was some discussion, particularly among the Legal Expert Group, regarding whether Section 34 should be mandatory or not. The focus of discussion was the requirement to inform the Competent Authority in Seychelles but, to some degree, also touched on the question of authorities in countries of origin. In the former case, the concern was that such a requirement would create an additional burden for the Competent Authority and would probably only be complied with by those acting in good faith anyway, thereby rendering the marginal utility of the requirement in terms of monitoring somewhat negligible. However, recognising the likely low volume of import activity in sectors other than plant genetic resources for food and agriculture, and the fact that government agencies are almost the only actors in the import of plant genetic resources for food and agriculture, the various Seychelles authorities were clear in their view that any burden involved would be manageable. Given that the likely burden is presumed to be low, both on the authorities and on those accessing genetic resources, it was felt that the question of relative utility became less of an issue and notification could be required on the basis that it might be useful. In the case of notifying the relevant authorities in countries of origin, the main concern was as regards the identification of these authorities. As noted above, it was felt that the problem of identification could be adequately catered for by a reasonable interpretation of the text: if there is no relevant authority, or one cannot be identified, a declaration to that effect could be made to the Seychelles Competent Authority and this could be subject to challenge by the source country in the event of a dispute.

7.4 Additional supporting measures

35. The Minister may prescribe in regulations any further measures to support prior informed consent and mutually agreed terms, including benefit sharing, in countries of origin or countries providing genetic resources as he deems appropriate.

In line with the general approach of the legislation, Section 35 provides the Minister with powers to expand, or expand upon, the various provisions of Part VI. As suggested in various places in the discussion above, it will, at a minimum, be necessary to provide greater detail in areas such as notifications under Section 34 and, perhaps, regarding the degree to which agencies should be proactive under sections 32 and 33 or to more precisely define the scope of Section 33. In addition, experience in the implementation of user measures is somewhat limited beyond some structures for the recognition of foreign arbitral awards and similar matters. This suggests that some flexibility in implementation will be required as experience develops.

7.5 Reciprocity and unconscionable terms and conditions

36. The provisions of this Part shall only apply in respect of the laws or other terms and conditions of access or utilisation of foreign jurisdictions providing equivalent or reciprocal protections to those contained in this Part and shall not be enforceable where any relevant terms and conditions are declared unconscionable.

Section 36 sets limits upon the enforceability of Part VI based upon two basic principles. The first of these is the principle of reciprocity, which reflects the objective of equity that influences much of the structure of the legislation. Reciprocity is a common concept in

many fields of law, most often in a situation where it can be a bar to actions for the enforcement of agreements by a person when it can be shown that said person has already failed to fulfil their own obligations. The second principle in Section 36 is that unconscionable terms and conditions cannot be enforced. This is also a common theme in most legal systems where terms and conditions that are manifestly unreasonable or unfair can be held to unenforceable even if all parties agreed upon them. In the absence of an international framework for access to genetic resources that establishes, at least, basic standards this principle is a necessity if one is planning to take action regarding breaches of foreign laws or rules.

A final important point regarding Section 36 relates to the authorities that will be responsible for it. In the case of reciprocity, it is assumed that the Competent Authority, as the leader on policy matters, would make any necessary decisions, probably in collaboration with the Attorney General's Chambers. In the case of unconscionable terms and conditions, the text requires a more formal process; the assumption being that only a court of law with appropriate jurisdiction can make a formal declaration that any term or condition is unconscionable. In common with other legal processes, such a declaration could be sought pre-emptively or requested as a defence to a claim of breach.

8. Part VII: Monitoring and Enforcement

37. The Coordinating Agency shall bear primary responsibility for monitoring compliance with the administrative requirements for access to, and utilisation of, genetic resources established under this Act, including –

- (1) Informing prospective applicants of the administrative and documentary requirements of this Act;
- (2) Accepting provisional applications or applications and informing applicants and lead agencies of the status of such Provisional Applications or Applications under this Act;
- (3) Informing the Competent Authority and relevant lead agencies of any actual or suspected breaches of the administrative requirements of this Act; and,
- (4) Maintaining all relevant documents, records or other relevant information that may further the effective implementation of this section.

38. Lead agencies shall bear primary responsibility for monitoring compliance with the terms and conditions of access to genetic resources under this Act, including –

- (1) Ensuring that access does not threaten, or otherwise place at risk, the genetic resources being accessed or any element of the ecosystem or ecosystems within which they are found;
- (2) Ensuring that access is in accordance with the terms and conditions of this Act or any agreement reached, or permit issued, pursuant to it;
- (3) Informing the Competent Authority and other relevant lead agencies of any actual or suspected breaches of the terms and conditions of access to genetic resources under this Act; and,
- (4) Maintaining all relevant documents, records or other relevant information that may further the effective implementation of this section.

39. The Competent Authority shall bear primary responsibility for monitoring compliance with the terms and conditions of rights to the utilisation of genetic resources under this Act, including –

- (1) Ensuring that utilisation is in accordance with the terms and conditions of this Act or any agreement reached, or permit issued, pursuant to this Act;
- (2) Informing the Coordinating Agency and relevant lead agencies of any actual or suspected breaches of the terms and conditions of rights to the utilisation of genetic resources under this Act; and,
- (3) Maintaining all relevant documents, records or other relevant information that may further the effective implementation of this section.

40. The Competent Authority, in collaboration with relevant lead agencies, shall bear primary responsibility for ensuring the effective enforcement of this Act.

41. The Competent Authority, Coordinating Agency and lead agencies shall collaborate with other established agencies and forces of the Government of Seychelles and, as necessary and appropriate, with other national, foreign, regional or international organisations in the effective implementation of this Act.

Monitoring and enforcement is one of the most difficult aspects of access to genetic resources regulatory regimes. The material in question can often be difficult to identify, consisting of things such as seeds, water samples or microorganisms, and even when identified the provenance of material is not always easy to prove. One example that was cited, and that illustrates the point, was the case of a set of water samples that were collected to be analysed in Europe. The Seychelles authorities had no means of assessing what the samples might contain and what uses they might be put to. Compounding this problem is the fact that the collection of material for one purpose

might be quite legitimate while collection of the same material for a different purpose might be an offence makes monitoring a complex proposition. As noted in 2.2.2 and 2.2.3, above, there is clearly a need to focus on the establishment of a regime that encourages compliance rather than one that seeks to force it through monitoring and enforcement actions. This point is emphasised when one considers the relatively limited enforcement capacity of most Seychelles authorities, particularly in the marine environment. Part VII concentrates on the establishment of mandates for particular aspects of monitoring and enforcement according to the functions the legislation assigns to various agencies. Section 37 gives the Coordinating Agency the prime responsibility for monitoring compliance with the administrative provisions of the legislation, which largely relate to the basic requirements of the application process. Section 38 focuses the responsibility of lead agencies on issues of access, which, it is assumed, will largely take place in the field. This area includes matters such as sustainable use and whether collections are undertaken as agreed. This latter point might involve the officers of lead agencies accompanying, or undertaking, collecting expeditions where this is deemed necessary. Section 39 places the monitoring of utilisation within the mandate of the Competent Authority on the understanding that this will most commonly involve activities taking place beyond the jurisdiction of Seychelles. These broad provisions provide considerable scope for the agencies involved to define their own approaches to monitoring. For example, lead agencies could, as part of their strategy, make use of the model provided by the environmental hotline that has been effective in enhancing the monitoring of turtle protection. This was based upon awareness raising among communities and capitalised upon the tendency of many Seychellois to be sympathetic to environmental conservation objectives. If lead agencies were able to rely upon public reporting of collecting activities, this would considerably reduce any burden that might be created by responsibilities for monitoring.

While sections 37, 38 and 39 provide for responsibilities in monitoring, Section 40 places the responsibility for enforcement in the mandate of the Competent Authority. In the majority of cases, this is likely to be a collaborative undertaking and at the national level will primarily involve the consultation and cooperation with the Attorney General's Chambers that is already a strong feature of enforcement in the environmental sector. At the international level, it is assumed that the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources will perform the functions of the Competent Authority and, therefore, as a Ministry, have greater ability to make use of diplomatic channels or to mobilise the resources required for more direct legal actions where necessary. A further advantage of placing responsibility for enforcement within the mandate of the Competent Authority is that, within the regulatory structure established by the legislation, it is uniquely placed to be able to coordinate both expertise and information to address any enforcement problems that may arise.

Section 41 reflects the provisions of Section 15, discussed in 4.4 above. As with Section 15, Section 41 serves two purposes and is intended to both encourage cooperation and to ensure that such cooperation, and its results, are above reproach from a legal perspective.

9. Part VIII: Powers of Authorised Officers

42. The Minister may, by prescribing in regulations, identify authorized officers for the purpose of enforcing the provisions of this Act.
43. For the purpose of enforcing the provisions of this Act, an authorized officer may, with or without a warrant:
 - (1) Search any vehicle, other means of transport or premises;
 - (2) Require any vehicle or other means of transport within the jurisdiction of the Republic of Seychelles to stop and do anything else which will facilitate the search of said vehicle or other means of transport;
 - (3) Require to be produced, examine and make copies of any permit, logbook or other document relating to activities conducted pursuant to this Act;
 - (4) Require to be produced and examine any equipment and inspect any genetic resources; and,
 - (5) Require persons on board any vehicle or other means of transport or present in any premises searched pursuant to this Section to do anything which appears to him to be necessary to ascertain whether any offence has been committed.
44. Where an authorized officer has reasonable cause to believe that an offence against this Act or against any other written law relating to the environment or natural resources has been committed, he may, with or without a warrant:
 - (1) Seize and detain any vehicle or other means of transport including any equipment, stores and cargo found therein or belonging to said vehicle or other means of transport, and seize and detain any equipment or other material abandoned by the vessel; and,
 - (2) Arrest any person who he believes has committed such offence.
45. In effecting the seizure of a vehicle or other means of transport under this Part, an authorized officer may use such force as may be reasonably necessary.
46. A foreign vehicle or other means of transport or other thing detained under this Part shall, as soon as practicable, be delivered into the custody of the Commissioner of Police and shall be released upon demand to the owner or master if no proceedings are instituted within 10 (ten) days of such delivery against the owner or master in respect of an offence against this Act.
47. (1) No action shall lie against the Government or against any authorized officer for damages in any civil court for any act done or ordered to be done in good faith in pursuance of this Act.
 (2) No prosecution of any authorized officer, or action which may lawfully be brought against any authorized officer, in respect of anything done in pursuance of this Act shall be entertained by any court unless it be instituted within 6 months from the date of the act complained of.

The provisions of Part VIII are largely drawn from existing legislation in force in Seychelles and, in particular, legislation that relates to the regulation of the exploitation of natural resources. However, the reasons for adopting this approach generally and for the inclusion of a number of the specific provisions were derived directly from the research and consultation process that preceded the drafting of the legislation.

At the general level, there are three basic reasons why this, relatively robust, approach has been taken to the powers of authorised officers to enforce the legislation. First,

stakeholders broadly expressed the view that access to genetic resources should be viewed as a very serious matter touching on the conservation of, and rights to exploit, a key national asset, i.e. the natural environment. On a number of occasions, the view was rather forcefully expressed that irregular access to genetic resources, or conversion of genetic resources that have already been collected, should be viewed in the same manner as any other case of the misappropriation or conversion of private or state property. If one is to adequately convey the seriousness with which a matter is viewed, the most effective means of doing so in legislative terms tends to involve the enforcement mechanisms and penalties that are associated with non-compliance. Second, Seychelles approach to a number of natural resource extraction issues has, particularly in recent times, been a combination of flexibility and relatively low barriers to entry with fairly strong enforcement powers and penalties in the event of breach. The aim of such a strategy is to provide a framework in which the costs of compliance are reasonable but the costs of non-compliance fairly high. Following the same basic approach in the context of access to genetic resources would, therefore, serve the purpose of policy harmonisation and coherence, as well as being independently justifiable from a national perspective. To a large degree, the third reason for the adoption of the powers of authorised officers presented in Part VIII derives directly from the purpose of policy harmonisation and coherence and links with some of the specific reasons for its provisions. This is that providing powers that are already exercised by the officers of various agencies in the exercise of their existing functions, and simply extending these to a new field, is a lot more straightforward than providing significantly different powers in different fields.

As noted above, the matching of powers under the legislation with those already exercised by the officers of some enforcement agencies links with the specific reason for the adoption of part of the provisions of Part VIII. This refers to Section 42, which provides for the “identification” of authorised officers. The use of the term “identification” means that the legislation does not intend to create a new law enforcement agency but, rather, intends to expand the mandate of existing agencies. As such, the need to match the powers provided with those already being exercised in fields, such as fisheries or customs, with enforcement officers that could act under the legislation becomes significant. Section 42 reflects the general structural approach to access to genetic resources requested by stakeholders: that any regulatory regime to build on, and reinforce, existing structures rather than seeking to create anything new. It also considers previous experience. In particular, collaboration between the Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources and Transport Security and customs, who monitor luggage and cargo and key points of entry, and the Immigration Department, who regularly travel to some of the more distant islands of the archipelago to monitor tourist activity, were noted for their major impact on limiting various forms of poaching. The option of collaboration with the quarantine authorities was also noted, particularly as both areas depend upon the basic ability to monitor what biological material is either entering or leaving the country. However, it was pointed out that there was already a need for more qualified staff in this area, which, in turn, suggests that there may well be a need for some form of training for all of the enforcement officers that will have access to genetic resources issues included within their powers.

The second area in which there is a specific reason for the inclusion of provisions in Part VIII relates to sections 43 through to 46. As has been noted elsewhere in this commentary, a key challenge in the enforcement of access to genetic resources regimes is the fact that a large number of those seeking rights to access and utilise genetic

resources are from jurisdictions other than those in which they are seeking rights and, once they have left a country's borders, the range of enforcement options narrows drastically. This, combined with the fact that most genetic resource samples are easily portable, means that, even where offences can be identified, there is a high risk of flight. To maximise the chances of uncovering irregular activity prior to flight, flexible powers of search are useful. More significantly, to maximise the chances of the authorities being able to recover any fines or damages that may be ordered by a court, and without the extreme measure of routinely imprisoning suspects, strong powers of seizure are essential.

10. Part IX: Offences and Penalties

Basic offences:

48. Any person who commits an offence against this Act shall be liable for both civil and criminal prosecution.
49. Any person who acts in contravention of Section 7 of Part II or Parts IV and VI of this Act shall be guilty of an offence and on conviction be liable to fine not less than SR 5000 and not exceeding SR 500,000 and to a term of imprisonment not exceeding five years.
50. Any person who acts in contravention of Section 8 of Part II or Part V of this Act –
 - (1) shall be guilty of an offence and on conviction shall be liable to a fine not less than SR 10,000 and not exceeding SR 1,000,000 and a term of imprisonment not exceeding five years; and,
 - (2) shall be liable to civil prosecution for the recovery of any profit, whether financial or otherwise, derived, directly or indirectly, from the act contravening the provisions of this Act.

Sections 48 through to 50 establish the offences that may be prosecuted under the legislation. Section 48 provides for the principle that offenders may be subject to both criminal and civil prosecution and applies generally to any offence against the legislation, as opposed to sections 49 and 50, which apply to offences against specific provisions. Criminal prosecution was favoured by the Seychellois authorities as the most effective deterrent. During discussion, it was noted that this is primarily effective where offenders remain, or can be detained, within the geographical jurisdiction of Seychelles, although the prospect of having an outstanding warrant of arrest might still be a deterrent to many actors. However, it was also noted that some more effective means of seeking enforcement in foreign jurisdictions was needed. In the absence of any international regime or foreign reciprocal recognition of Seychelles law, it was felt that the option of enforcing a Seychellois civil award of damages in a foreign court would probably present the best opportunity.

Sections 49 and 50 primarily reflect the distinction between access and utilisation established by the legislation. A violation of the legislation's provisions on simple access is considered a lesser offence than violation of the provisions relating to utilisation. The reason for this is straightforward: in cases of utilisation the offender is seeking to profit, in some direct form, from their violation of the legislation by exploiting the object of that violation. Where a violation of the legislation's provisions on simple access could have more serious impacts is in cases where that violation is prejudicial to the conservation status of a resource, but this is provided for separately in Section 51, discussed below. In subsection 50.2, the legislation expands upon the basic penalties provided for by

requiring civil prosecution for the recovery of any profits derived from irregular acts. It should be noted that this is more a question of emphasis in relation to acts of utilisation, as Section 48 establishes a general liability to civil prosecution.

Section 49 also encompasses violations of Part VI of the legislation, relating to user measures. It is recognised that this could include utilisation related offences, and thereby establish a lesser range of penalties for offences committed by Seychellois in foreign jurisdictions than is applicable to foreign offenders in Seychelles, but the fact that most established regulatory regimes for access to genetic resources do not make the distinction between access and utilisation is deemed to preclude any other option. It should also be noted that, pursuant to Section 48, Seychellois would still be liable to civil prosecution for any profits they may have derived from irregular acts.

The levels of criminal penalty established by sections 49 and 50 are based on the proposals for penalties that are currently under consideration for other environmental offences and may, therefore, be considered in the context of a harmonisation of enforcement policy.

Restitution:

51. In addition to imposing a penalty for an offence arising under this Part, the Court may order the person convicted to compensate any loss or damage to biological resources and to take such steps as may be specified in the order and within such time as may be specified, to pay damage and prevent, control, abate or mitigate any harm to such resources caused by commission of the offence or to prevent the continuance or recurrence of the offence

Section 51, as noted above, applies generally to any offence against the legislation and, as such, may be considered as a supplementary offence that is conditional upon conviction on a primary offence under one, or more, of sections 48, 49 or 50. It reflects the conservation and sustainable use objective of the legislation by making any convicted offender liable for any environmental harm their offence may cause. This provision reflects approaches to offences and penalties that are being considered in the context of the broader reform of environmental laws in Seychelles.

Corporate offences:

52. Where an offence under this Act has been committed by a corporate person, every natural person who, at the time the offence was committed, was in charge of, and was responsible to, said corporate person for the conduct of the business of that corporate person, as well as the corporate person itself, is guilty of the offence and liable to be proceeded against and punished accordingly.

(1) Provided that nothing contained in this Section shall render any such person liable to any punishment provided in this Act, if the person proves that the offence was committed without the knowledge of that person or that the person exercised all due diligence to prevent the commission of such offence. Negligence in the conduct of assigned duties and responsibilities shall not be a defence under this sub-section.

(2) Where an offence under this Act, has been committed with the consent to, connivance of or is attributable to any officer of a corporate person, such director, manager, secretary or other officer is guilty of that offence and shall be liable to be proceeded against and punished accordingly.

The language of Section 52 is drawn directly from precedents in Seychelles law. Its purpose is relatively straightforward in that it makes clear that the senior officers with

authority over the acts of a corporate person, i.e. a legally recognised entity as opposed to an actual individual person, may be held personally liable for those acts. In legal parlance, this amounts to a 'piercing of the corporate veil', whereby a court may disregard the usual immunity of corporate officers from liability for wrongful corporate activities.

Obstruction:

53. Any person who in any way prevents or hinders any authorized officer from exercising the powers conferred by this Act shall be guilty of an offence and liable to a fine not less than SR 5000 and not exceeding SR 500, 000 and a term of imprisonment not exceeding five years.

Section 53 is largely complementary to the provisions of Part VIII, relating to the powers of authorised officers. While preventing or hindering an officer from exercising these powers might be considered an offence under the general provisions of Section 48, Section 53 removes any doubt. It creates the specific offence and establishes its associated penalties, which follow the levels provided for in Section 49. The justification for following the lower levels of penalty associated with Section 49, as opposed to the higher levels associated with Section 50, is that any act that might present a threat to an officer would constitute a separate offence, which would be punishable under Seychelles criminal law, and, therefore, acts that would be primarily punishable under Section 53 will be non-threatening in nature.

Forfeiture and foreign property:

54. When a person is convicted of an offence against this Act, the Court:

- (1) shall order that any genetic resources and related information or products seized shall be forfeited to the Government;
- (2) may, or in the case of a second or subsequent conviction, shall, order that any property used in or in connexion with the commission of an offence shall be forfeited to the Government;
- (3) shall order that any costs incurred in the detention of property, and the costs of the repatriation of any persons, shall be payable by the person convicted.

55. Where the master or the owner of foreign property within the jurisdiction of the Republic of Seychelles has been convicted of an offence against this Act, the property, if not ordered forfeit by the Court, shall be held until such time as the fine, costs and other moneys ordered by the Court to be paid have been paid, and if payment in full has not been made within 30 (thirty) days, the property may be sold and payment made from the proceeds.

Sections 54 and 55 relate to seizure and forfeiture of property and, therefore, can be seen as building upon similar provisions in Part VIII. The reason for their inclusion partly relates to the same concerns regarding flight risk discussed in Part VIII, but also includes several other factors. Subsection 54.1 intends to contribute to the undoing of the wrong that may be created by an offence by restoring possession of genetic resources irregularly acquired or utilised, and any products of that irregular access or use, to the Government. Subsection 54.2 is intended to limit the occurrence of repeat offences by removing, where relevant, the means for the commission of an offence. Section 54.3 is a means of recovering costs that may be incurred in the enforcement of the legislation where these costs relate to the particular circumstances of a case rather than to the general costs of enforcement. Section 55 relates directly to the powers of officers to

detain property by providing for the sale of such property to offset any sums owed in the event of the non-payment of any fines, costs or other moneys ordered by a court.

Compounding of offences:

56. The Minister may prescribe in regulations offences that may be compounded to improve the administration of this Act, provided that,

- (1) The level of any composition fine for an offence under Part V of this Act shall be proportionate to any profit, whether financial or otherwise, derived and, in the case of corporate persons, may take into consideration the annual turnover of such corporate person.
- (2) In the event of the rejection of any offer of composition, the offence shall be investigated and, if there is sufficient evidence, shall be prosecuted to the full extent of the law.

Section 56 is designed to enhance the flexibility available to the authorities in the field of penalties. In practical terms it allows the authorities, within limits to be formally established in detail by regulations, to effectively 'settle' cases through the imposition of fines rather than pursuing the full prosecution of offences. This has two main advantages. As noted variously in this commentary, the range of actors involved in access to genetic resources is enormous: from students to large publicly financed research expeditions to multinational corporations. Accounting for the different levels of intent involved with, and financial capacity of, such a range of actors can be problematic within the somewhat rigid context of legislatively established penalties. Providing the discretionary option of compounding, or 'compromising on', offences allows the authorities to assess penalties less than those statutorily provided for where they believe that this would be in the interests of justice and would limit the burden of cost and time a prosecution would impose upon the authorities and courts. The second advantage is that the power to compound offences also provides the authorities with a wider range of options in dealing with offenders that it might be difficult to bring before Seychellois courts or who hold no assets within the jurisdiction of Seychelles.

11. Part X: Miscellaneous

The provisions of Part X of the legislation are designed to address loose ends that are not fully addressed elsewhere in its text.

57. The provisions of this Act shall not prejudice the existence of rights and obligations established in law.

58. The Minister may prescribe in regulations exceptions to the provisions of this Act where he deems that regulatory mechanisms meeting the objectives of this Act already exist.

59. Any person granted access to, or rights for the utilisation of, genetic resources under this Act shall not require a research permit from the Designated Authority.

60. Activities falling within the scope of this Act but commenced prior to its entry into force shall comply with the provisions of this Act within 3 (three) months of its entry into force.

Section 57 provides that the legislation should not be understood so as to amend the rights and obligations that are already established in law. There are a number of pieces

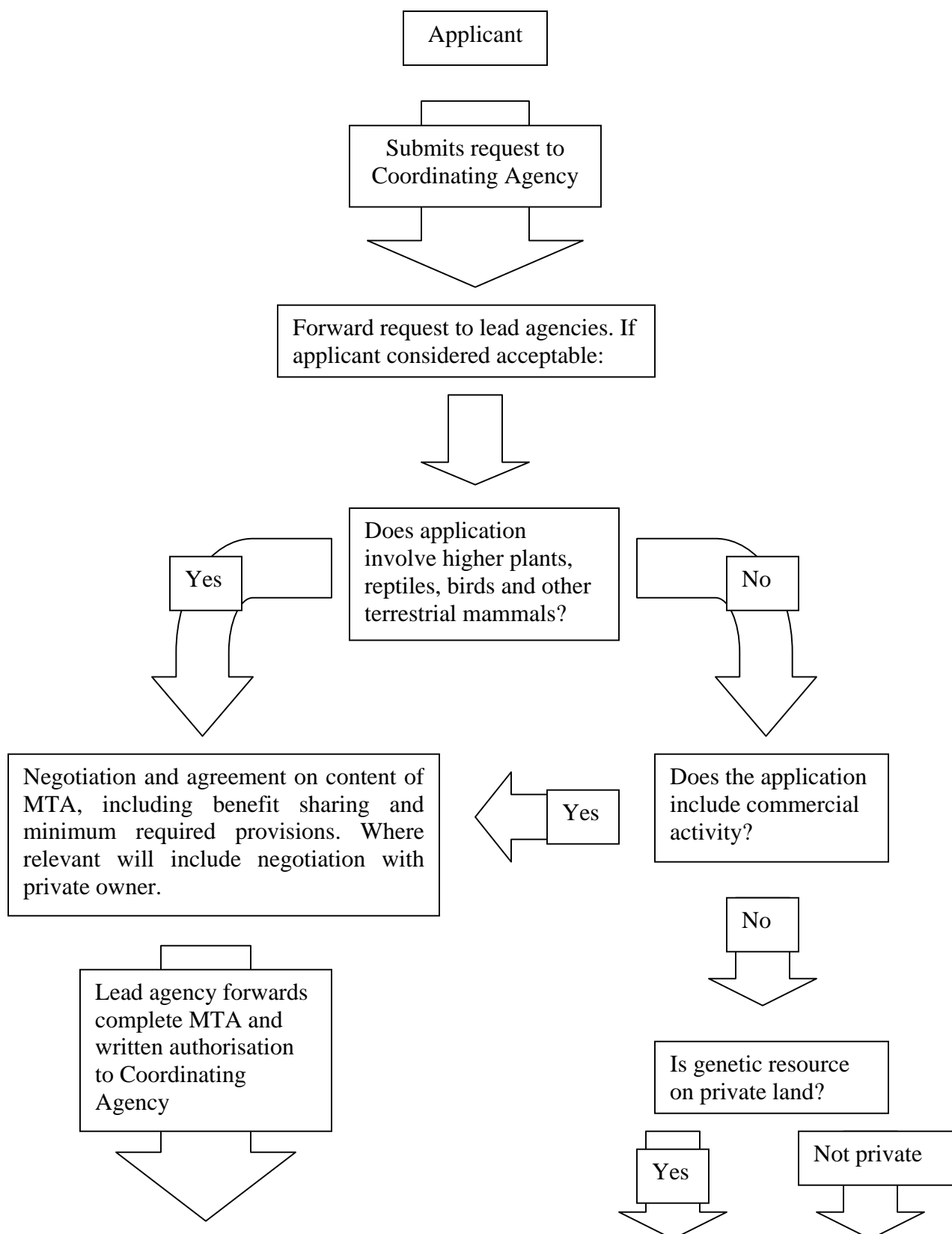
of legislation and sets of regulations, such as those relating to *coco de mer*, that establish specific regimes for particular species, or groups of species, that the authorities do not want to be effectively repealed by the legislation. The intention to bring these instruments within the framework of the legislation has been stated but this will depend upon a case by case analysis of the issues surrounding each instrument.

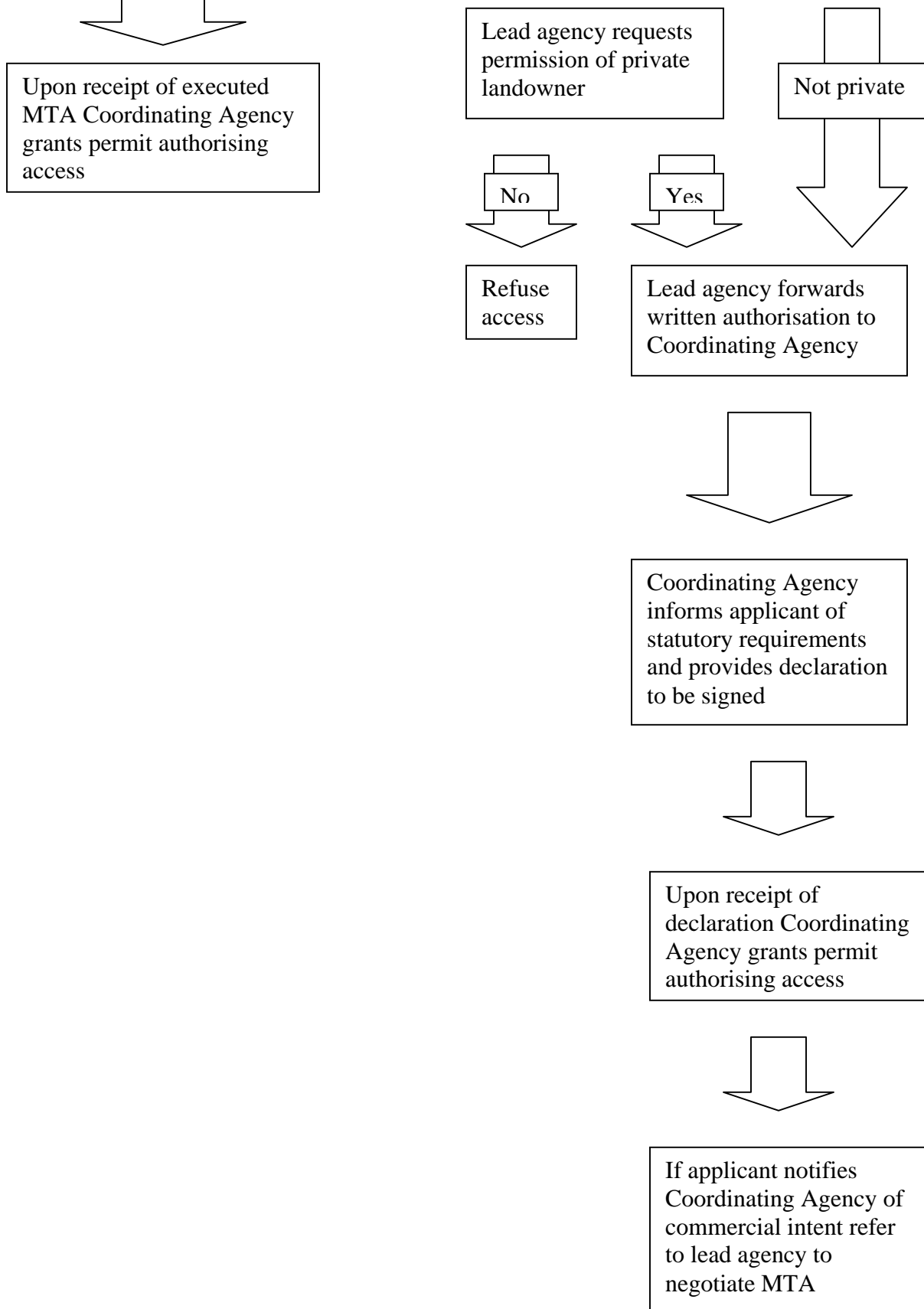
Section 58 provides for the fact that some form of research or collection authorisation mechanism already exists within the regulatory frameworks applicable to specific sectors or geographic areas, such as fisheries. Although there is considerable hesitancy to allow for any form of exceptions, it was deemed useful to allow for the option to establish exceptions to avoid double authorisation requirements where other mechanisms might be more appropriate to their circumstances. It is possible that such exceptions could be general or specific but the requirement that they be prescribed in regulations precludes the possibility that they could be fully *ad hoc*.

Section 59 is, essentially, the opposite of Section 58 and allows for the designation of authorities from whom research permits are not required where an applicant has been authorised pursuant to the legislation. The underlying purpose, of avoiding double authorisation, is the same but, in this case, the concern is that the other mechanisms do not meet the same standards as the legislation for their specific sectors or species. In some cases this may be the result of limited requirements for authorisation and, in others, is the result of authorisation requirements being insufficiently established in law.

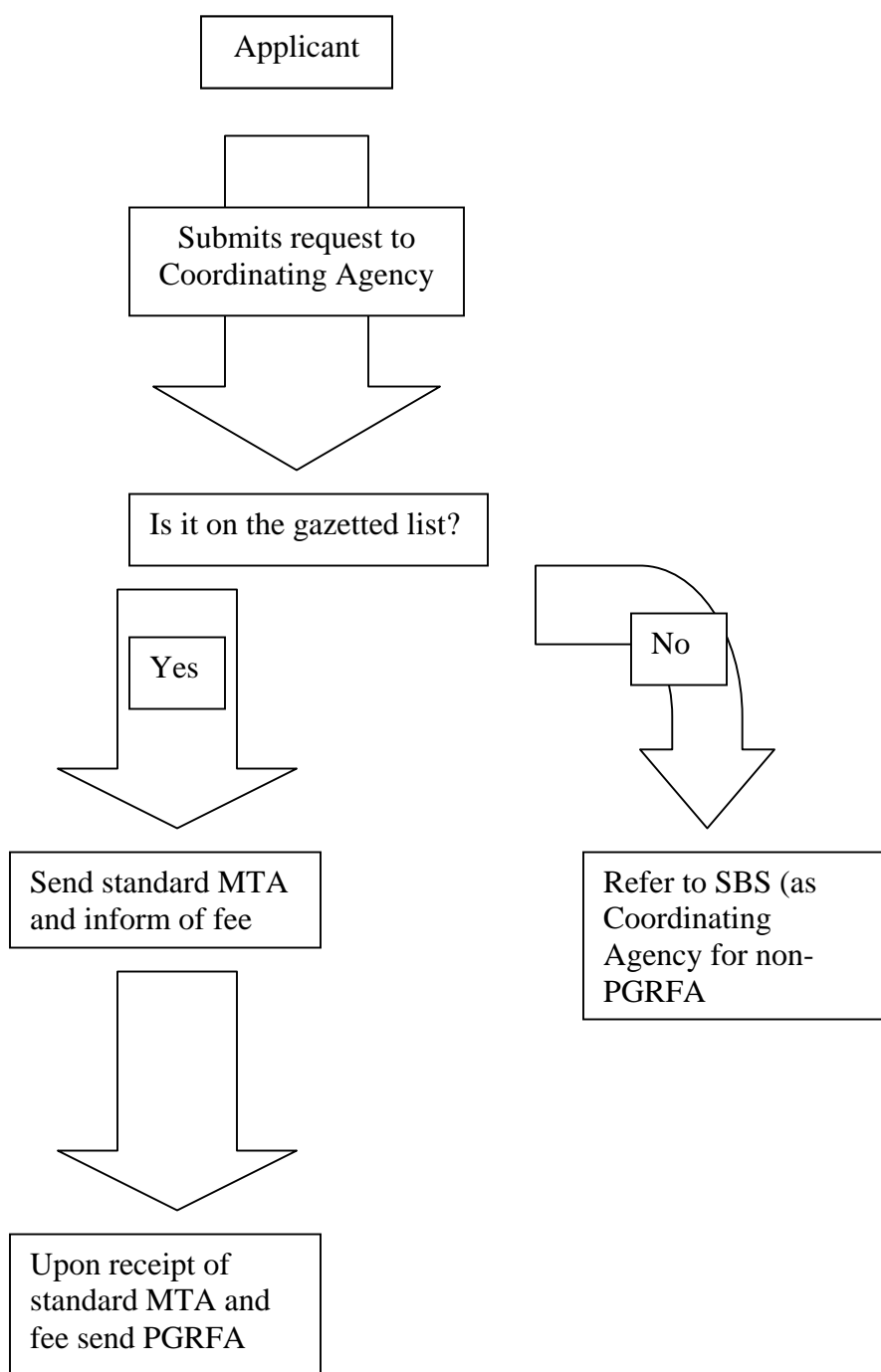
Section 60 is a transitional provision that allows for ongoing activities that fall within the scope of the legislation to be brought into compliance within three months of its entry into force. Three months is a relatively short period but the authorities are confident that they are aware of all activities that are being legitimately conducted, and are, therefore, in a position to complete the necessary processes regarding them. Where irregular activities may be ongoing it was not deemed appropriate to provide additional flexibility solely for their regularisation.

Annex I: STRUCTURE OF REGULATORY APPROACH TO NON-AGRICULTURAL GENETIC RESOURCES





Annex II: STRUCTURE OF REGULATORY APPROACH TO PLANT GENETIC RESOURCES FOR FOOD AND AGRICULTURE



IF A PARTY TO THE ITPGR ENDS HERE AS INTERNATIONAL REGIME WILL ADDRESS MONITORING AND COMPLIANCE

IF NOT A PARTY TO ITPGR: MONITORING AND ENFORCEMENT

