

World News of Natural Sciences

WNOFNS 6 (2017) 20-35

EISSN 2543-5426

Natural Resources, Classification of Natural Potential, Sustainable Development

Goran Rajović^{1,a}, Jelisavka Bulatović^{2,b}

¹International Network Center for Fundamental and Applied Research, Sochi, Russian Federation ²College of Textile Design, Technology and Management, Belgrade, Serbia E-mail address: dkgoran.rajovic@gmail.com, jelisavka.bulatovic@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Natural resources are limited, whether as a non-renewable or renewable. Planet Earth has a natural capacity and it is a given for the human community. The current pace of development of the world economy and the accelerated population growth threaten to soon lead to exhaustion of non-renewable energy resources and to exceed the speed of regeneration of renewable resources (water, energy, food) and thus lead into questioning the survival of human communities and future generations. Only through the application of the principles of sustainable development (sustainable use of resources) and implementation of logic of survival can a safe and steady growth be followed and present and future needs catered to [1].

Keywords: Natural resources, classification, natural potential, sustainable development

1. INTRODUCTION

Developing countries are usually deficient in physical and human capital, two important factors of production. Some of these countries have a relatively large stock of natural resources that can potentially play a crucial role in the initial stage of growth and development. However, these countries often face a difficult choice of using natural resources (or revenues from them) for current consumption or for building physical and human capital. Of course, the first choice may make the country prosperous in the short-run but will not place it on a path of sustainable growth and development. This is particularly true if the resources

are nonrenewable. In contrast, if a country chooses to transform its natural resources into physical and human capital, it will set the country on a course of sustainable growth and development. Sometimes a country is so poor that it is forced to use its natural resources for current consumption and thus gets trapped in abject poverty in the long - run. Thus, formulating and implementing an appropriate policy on how to harness natural resources for sustainable development could be a formidable task [2].

Mbaiwa and Darkoh [3] citing research Wood [4] notes that a holistic view of the circumstances in which people live and use natural resources is needed. These circumstances are affected by a range of socio - economic and political considerations which affect the supply of, and demand for, natural resources, and also the alternative ways in which human needs can be met. So Mbaiwa and Darkoh [3] according to Opschoor [5] propose two ways that can be adopted as a solution in situations of conflicts over natural resources and environmental insecurity. These are "technological developments that try to raise productivity levels and/or otherwise push environmental space outward" and "economic diversification". So that response to economic diversification very often is "not possible due to the marginal aspect of economic development of the communities concerned".

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The presented material was mainly based on the study of many international specialty papers (see references at the end of the paper), from the observation of Natural Resources, Classification of natural potential, Sustainable Development, on the occasion of documentation, as well as in consultation with numerous articles and studies published on Internet [see 6-7]. A number of official websites of institutions and central and local management bodies has been taken from: (WCED) [8], United Nations [9], FAO [1], R&DID [10] and others.

3. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSION

Mishra [11] citing research Sawyer [12] indicates that the United Nations Millennium Ecosystem Assessment Synthesis Report (MEASR) [13] reveals that people now are transforming ecosystems throughout the world at a faster and more extensive pace than any other time in human history. Of particular significance: 60 percent (15 out of 24) of the ecosystems examined by the authors (of the Report) are being used unsustainably; the changes being made to these ecosystems are increasing the likelihood of "nonlinear" changes (e.g., the emergence of diseases); and poor people are disproportionately being impacted by the harmful effects of ecosystem degradation. According to Mishra [11] quote from MEASR [13]: "The structure of the world's ecosystems changed more rapidly in the second half of the twentieth century than at any time in recorded human history, and virtually all of Earth's ecosystems have now been significantly transformed through human actions. The most significant change in the structure of ecosystems has been the transformation of approximately one quarter (24 %) of Earth's terrestrial surface to cultivated systems... More land was converted to cropland since 1945 than in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries combined... Between 1960 and 2000, reservoir storage capacity quadrupled...; as a result, the amount of water stored behind large dams is estimated to be three to six times the amount held by natural river channels (this excludes natural lakes)... In countries for which sufficient multivear data are available (encompassing more than half of the present-day mangrove area). approximately 35 % of mangroves were lost in the last two decades... Roughly 20 % of the world's coral reefs were lost and an additional 20 % degraded in the last several decades of the twentieth century... The ecosystems and biomes that have been most significantly altered globally by human activity include marine and freshwater ecosystems, temperate broadleaf forests, temperate grasslands, Mediterranean forests, and tropical dry forests... Globally, the rate of conversion of ecosystems has begun to slow largely due to reductions in the rate of expansion of cultivated land, and in some regions (particularly in temperate zones) ecosystems are returning to conditions and species compositions similar to their preconversion states. Yet rates of ecosystem conversion remain high or are increasing for specific ecosystems and regions... Ecosystem processes, including water, nitrogen, carbon, and phosphorus cycling, changed more rapidly in the second half of the twentieth century than at any time in recorded human history... The distribution of species on Earth is becoming more homogenous. By homogenous, we mean that the differences between the set of species at one location on the planet and the set at another location are, on average, diminishing. The natural process of evolution, and particularly the combination of natural barriers to migration and local adaptation of species, led to significant differences in the types of species in ecosystems in different regions. But these regional differences in the planet's biota are now being diminished... Across a range of taxonomic groups, either the population size or range or both of the majority of species is currently declining... Between 10 % and 30 % of mammal, bird, and amphibian species are currently threatened with extinction... Over the past few hundred years, humans have increased the species extinction rate by as much as 1.000 times background rates typical over the planet's history... Genetic diversity has declined globally, particularly among cultivated species... Human use of all ecosystem services is growing rapidly. Approximately 60 % (15 out of 24) of the ecosystem services evaluated in this assessment (including 70 % of regulating and cultural services) are being degraded or used unsustainably".

Fundamental problems in the field of natural resources according to Zaharia and Şuteu [14] the principal elements that must be mentioned concerning the natural resources are synthesized in the below figure (Figure 1). There are taken into account aspects on: (1) the stock of some specific vital natural resources; this is finite (e.g., fossil fuels); (2) the consumption rate of reserves; this was emphasizing in last time, having higher consumption rate comparison with the historical consumption rate; (3) the existence of some important systems of renewable resources.

Moreover, in the field of natural resources it must be considered the following fundamental problems interrogatively or globally enunciated as follows:(1) How much and in what conditions the society exists with finite reserves of 'in situ' stocks, with renewable resources but destructive and limited systems of environment supervision?; (2) The placement of known natural resources; (3) The passing of humanity from the utilization of non renewable resources to the renewable ones and reversely; (4) The evaluation of behavioral models concerning the utilization of natural resources; (5) The correct understanding of the role and importance of the natural resources and environmental services, as factors of sustainable development; (6) The emphasizing of increasing dependence of inferior natural reserves; (7) The evolution of global restrictive conditions of environment quality; (8) The role of production and consumption processes in the management of natural resources vs.

time [14]. Some procedural expedients of assessing the natural resources and natural resource potential as used by geographical and other sciences are considered. It is stated that there is no consensus understanding of the content of the notions of "natural resources", "natural conditions", "natural - resource potential", "economic assessment of natural resources" and "economic-geographical assessment of natural resources" [15]. Classification of natural resources can be based on: the very nature of character I use to use or be combined (natural and economic ecological or economic). The geographical distribution of the literature of natural resources is possible with the physical - geographic or economic - geographical point of view [see 16-18]. For us it is an interesting economic and geographic classification that seeks to examine the natural resources in the context of its exploitation and use. And if this classification is not made explicit, we have shown in Table 1, based on the basic principles of the valorization of natural resources and conditions. It is understood no matter how natural resources were great, they are not unlimited and inexhaustible (see Figure 1). Therefore, their use should be planned and rational (see Figure 3). All the more so since many natural resources are virtually no - renew or to a very slow and the pressure of population on the environment is increasing. It is therefore necessary to determine resources natural potential of each area [see 19-21] as well as the ability to increase productivity which is a prerequisite for rational use [see 22-23].

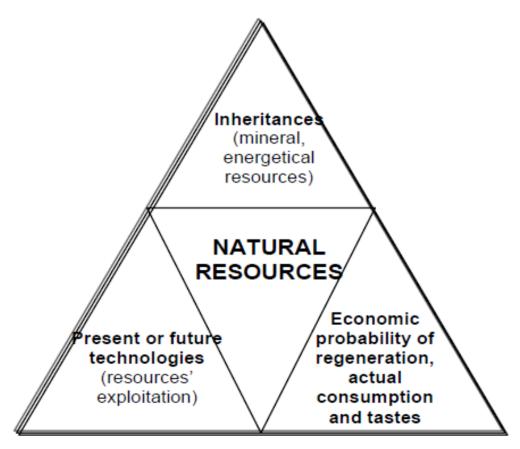


Figure 1. Principal elements concerning the natural resources [14].

Climate change might become one of the key drivers pushing integrated approaches for natural resources management into practice. The National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA) is an initiative agreed under the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change. An analysis was done to find out how widely ecosystem restoration and integrated approaches have been incorporated into NAPA priority adaptation projects. The data show that that the NAPAs can be seen as potentially important channel for operational zing various integrated concepts. Key challenge is to implement the NAPA projects.

The amount needed to implement the NAPA projects aiming at ecosystem restoration using integrated approaches presents only 0.7 % of the money pledged in Copenhagen for climate change adaptation [24].

Today, generally speaking endangered all natural resources. According to the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) each year as a result of environmental pollution, habitat loss and the introduction of alien species, climate change and over-exploitation of natural resources disappears 0.01 - 0.1% of the total number of species. Species extinction is a natural process, but the destructive influence of man caused him to be as much as 1.000 times faster than so - called normal rates of extinction [25]. In Table 2, shows the structure of pollution caused from the use of fossil fuels.

Table 1. Classification of Natural Resources.

Element of Natural Environment	Natural Source	Natural Condition for
Earth of the crust	Mineral resources (metal and non - metal raw materials), mineral fuels and geothermal energy	All forms of construction to his geological engineering decisions; volcanic activity and seismic activity.
Relief		Types of agriculture, tourism, transport, development of their village: a morphometric structure (high structure, the structure of the slope and exposure, horizontal and vertical dissection) and morphs dynamic characteristics (activity of recent processes).
Climate	Wind energy and solar energy	Agriculture Like: thermal regime, rainfall, sunlight, tourism, traffic, construction activities, as a general condition of existence.

Hydrosphere (underground water, river and lake water, glaciers, global sea).	Water as: raw material (underground of sweet and mineral, river and lake water); Energy source (thermal waters and HE- potential river); Raw material and energy sources should I submarine bottom (the mineral components of seawater, mineral wealth and energy of the submarine bottom tidal waves).	Water supply population I utility industry (underground and river water); water agriculture (irrigation) Unwinding river, lake and maritime transport; tourism, recreation, health and wellness activities (thermal mineral, river, lake and sea water).
Biosphere (pedosfere, fitosfera, zoosfera)	Agricultural land; wood as raw material; Pastures and meadows; Forest fruits and medicinal plants; Fauna of land and sea.	Tourist, recreational and health - health resort activities, general condition existence.

Source [16].

Table 2. Overview of the environments that are affected by pollution - fossil fuel

Environments, which is polluted	Description of pollution
Geological environment	There is an imbalance in the Earth's crust (landslides and underground landslides) degrade the geological environment polluted the vibration and noise during exploitation
Land	Directly destroys the land, there is a mechanical soil pollution (coal dust, coal, oil, ash). Large tracts of land are exposed to erosion (deforestation, construction and hydraulic works), due to the construction of surface dug, oil fields, water reservoirs, refineries. Land is polluting and waste products of fossil fuel: slag, fly ash, coal dust, soot, varnishes, paints, solvents, plastics, pesticides, fertilizers, acid rain. Pollute land and contaminated water

	produced in the process of production or
	produced in the process of production or processing of fossil fuels and from thermal
	power plants, car exhaust (lead, carbon
	black).
	Global effects of pollution are manifested in
	the overall climate change in the country, to
	reduce solar radiation and the greenhouse
	effect occurs.
	Local effects manifested in the change of
	microclimate, appears acid rain, increased
	rainfall and cloudiness, relative humidity of
	the air is reduced, fog more often
Air (atmosphere)	The first typical air pollutants are the
	processes of combustion in stationary energy
	sources (power plants, heating plants) and
	other typical air pollutants and no less
	harmful to various means of transport: cars,
	trucks, ships, diesel locomotives, airplanes.
	In developed countries, this category of
	pollutants exceeds the character and quantity
	of manufactured goods group stationary
	sources.
	In addition to biological and radioactive
	agents that pollute the water in the process of
	exploitation, processing and consumption of
	fossil fuels and the resulting toxic chemicals,
	physical agents, inorganic salts, acids and
	bases, as well as heat.
	Chemical water pollution as the most
	important and the most comprehensive source
	of artificial water pollution can be organic
	and inorganic (from acidic residues of soluble
	salts, mainly from the so-called
Water	waste water).
	The specific source of pollution is various
	means of transportation: ships, tankers,
	barges. Represent a great danger and damage
	to various means of transport and oil rigs.
	During the processing of coal in the so-called
	wet separation, i.e. in coal washing, there is a
	large amount of waste water full of dissolved
	carbon dust.
	Physical water pollution, through changes of
	basic physical properties of water
	(providence, temperature) occurs through
	thermal pollution and industrial cooling

	water.
	Adverse effects are directly or indirectly
	reflect the living world.
	Reduces the solubility of oxygen in water.
	Waste water from thermal power plants is
	very physically polluted, and thermal
	contaminated water cooled before discharge.
	Biogeochemical cycles of some elements are
	more or less disrupted mining, processing or
	consumption of fossil fuels.
	A large number of different substances are
	released into the biosphere as a product of
Biosphere	exploitation of fossil fuels so that the
	biosphere is additionally burdened by large
	amounts of carbon dioxide, sulfur dioxide,
	nitrogen oxides, acid rain and heavy metals.
	Eerily act anthropogenic desert arose on the
	site of ore dumps, tailings and ash where
	often unsuccessfully, over decades apply
	methods of biological revitalization of the
	area.

Source [1].

Economics as study of choice can contribute to natural resource and environmental management by: denitrifying circumstances which generate natural resource problems; determining the causes of these problems and identifying possible solution and comparing their cost and benefits. In making the choices, tradeoffs have to be made, that is giving up one thing in order to get something else. Economists have three main areas where trade - offs are made: what is produced with the available (natural) resources such as land, how much is produced (food crops or forest products) and for whom goods and services are produce (who will enjoy the food crops and the forest products produced from the land resource) [25].

The net sum of all the relevant WTPs and WTAs defines the total economic value (TEV) of any change in well-being due to a policy or project. TEV can be characterized differently according to the type of economic value arising. Between the two groups (use and non-use values) one can find the option value - people are not sure about their future demand for a service and they would like to maintain the environment in order to use it at a later time. This value will become a use value in the future, e.g. new sorts or drugs derived from genetic information of wild species (Thus, TEV = use value + non - use value + option value). The decision on which TEV components to take into account depends on what kind of natural resources will be evaluated. For biotic components (chemical/physical parameters) like water or air quality, direct or indirect use values are of central interest. Non - use values may be neglected. But in the case of nature conservation where species or habitats are involved non-use values are known to make up an important part of the economic value. In this case use and non - use components have to be taken into consideration too in any economic valuation [25].

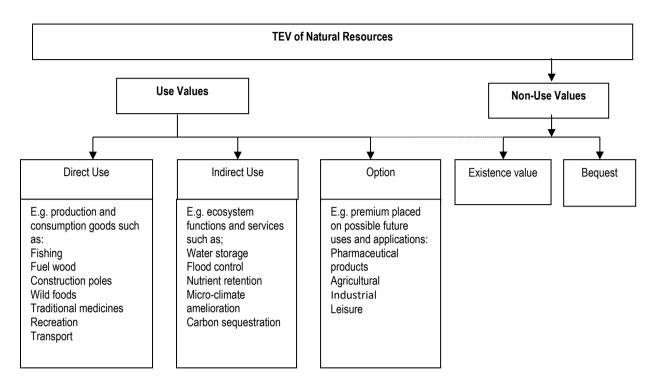
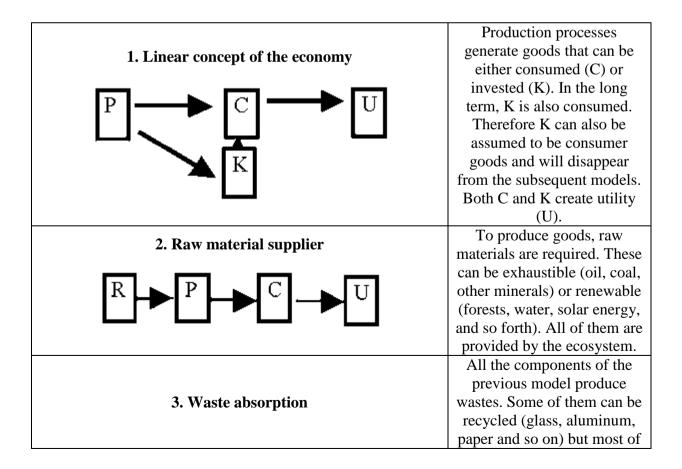
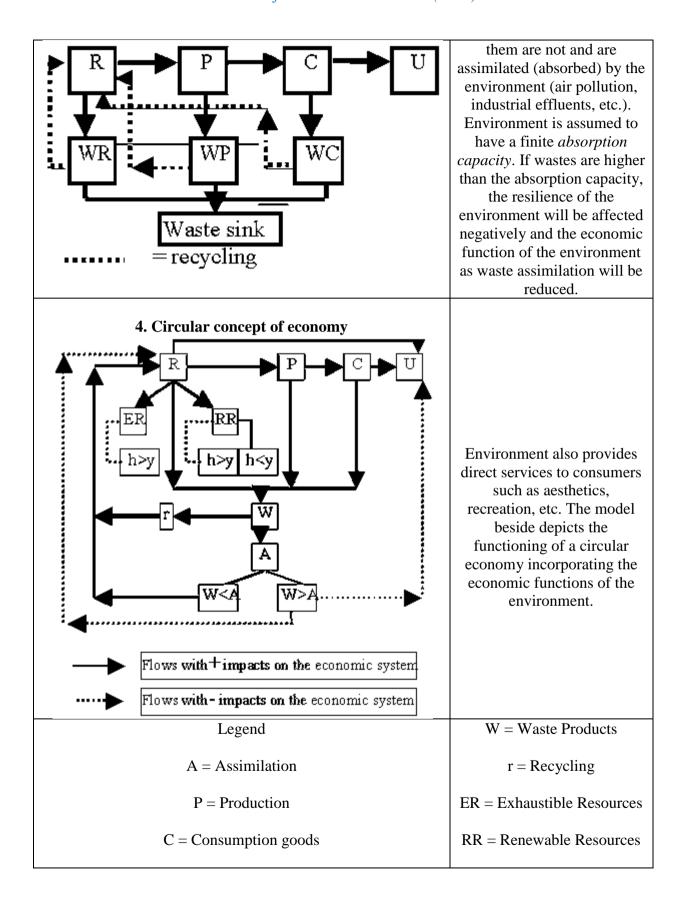


Figure 2. Classification of economic values (benefits) of natural resources [25].





K = Capital goods	y = Yields
U = Utility	h = Rate of harvest
R = Natural Resources	

Figure 3. Environment - economy interaction [9] according to [26].

Prior to the release of the famous report "Our Common Future" in 1987, it sufficed to define sustainability in consonance with the definition of sustain - "to keep in existence, maintain, prolong". After the Brundtland Commission (World Commission on Environment and Development) was created, a new definition emerged that successfully ensconced sustainability in the development arena. Although this definition is somewhat vague and has been a source of contention, concern for sustainability is now manifestly ubiquitous [see 8]. Ravage et al [27] with reference to Hardi and Zdan [28] indicates that governments, private organizations, and multilateral institutions strive to pursue economic development that is compatible with environmental objectives. As sustainability has become increasingly politicized, it is now widely used to refer to a systems approach that incorporates environment, economy, and society. The scope of sustainability has become so broad that it can include income distribution, gender equity, culture, and a host of other political goals of NGO's and their donors. The Commission defined sustainability as, "...development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" [27]. Returning to the original Brundtland concept, according to Ravago et al [27] sustainable development must allow for is inter - linkages between poverty, population pressure, and the degradation of environmental resources. The conclusion reached by the Commission is that the problems could be addressed only if these three are taken into account collectively. Figure 4 depicts the interaction of population pressure and poverty as the notorious Malthusian vicious - circle and environmental degradation, which exacerbates that circle. Population growth, in the face of a limited resource base, exacerbates poverty by lowering the return to unskilled labor. This in turn prevents mechanisms whereby increased incomes and the rising productivity of human capital lower the demand for children. The population poverty cycle is exacerbated as households with limited resource-access strive to eke out a living from hillsides, wetlands, and other environmentally fragile areas, thus degrading the limited natural capital available to the poor.

Mbaiwa and Darkoh [30] with reference to Mbaiwa [31] and Darkoh and Mbaiwa [32] indicates that conflicts over resource use arise when several interest groups use resources differently in the same natural system or geographical location. Shortages of natural resources also lead to competition that may result in conflict amongst the various resource user groups. State actions and policies affect natural resource use and may sometimes give rise to conflicts. Furthermore, security and control over natural resources, or the lack of these, may prevent appropriate management of natural resources, exacerbate dissatisfaction and competition, and worsen conflict and the unsustainable use of resource utilization.

Lakićević and Tatović [33] citing research Shepherd [24] and Shepherd [35] suggest that the ecosystem approach is a strategy for the "integrated management of land, water and living resources that promotes their conservation and sustainable use in an equitable way" that

is required inclusive and flexible management, which should deal with complex and dynamic nature of ecosystems and to complete knowledge about its functioning. Can unite other skills of conservation approaches or methodologies are to respond to the challenge of solving problems in complex situations. There is no single way to implement the ecosystem approach; its implementation depends on the local, national, regional and global conditions. The ecosystem approach is an innovative management strategy and differs from conventional approaches. Table 3 shows the basic difference between the conventional and the ecosystem approach.

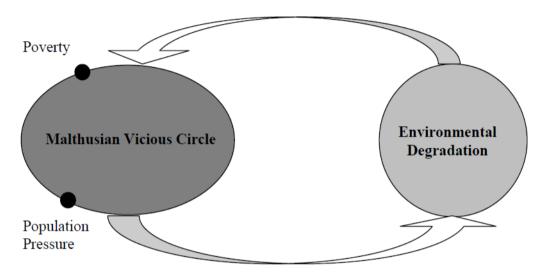


Figure 4. Brundtland vicious circle [29] according to [27].

Table 3. Conventional approaches and ecosystem approach.

Conventional approaches	Ecosystem approach
Emphasis on conservation	Emphasis on adaptive management
Sectoral management	Integral management
Exclusively based on science knowledge	Involves other forms of knowledge
Give priority to nature conservation	Oriented toward environmental and social conservation
Top-down approach	Two way approach, top - down and bottom-up
Short - term vision	Long - term vision
Ecosystems' goods and services are considered in an independent way	Ecosystems' goods and services are considered as part of management procedure and not as the final goal

Source: Lakićević and Tatović [33] according to Pérez [36].

Lakićević and Tatović [33] were according to Shepherd [34] and Hadley [37] allegations that for the realization of the principles of the ecosystem approach it are necessary to implement the five steps according to the schedule. Each of the steps involves a series of actions and is directly linked with at least one of the twelve principles. Step A: Determination of the main stakeholders and areas of the ecosystem; Step B: Set up mechanisms for the management of ecosystems; Step C: Identification of important economic issues; Step D: Determination of the expected impact on give and neighboring ecosystems; Step E: Deciding on long-term goals. One of the first questions to ask is: What is the size of the managed ecosystem territories should be selected on the basis of which criteria? Appropriate size is one that meets the scientific criteria, corresponding to administrative, legal and cultural boundaries and represents a solvable task for the existing management capacity, knowledge and experience.

4. CONCLUSIONS

It is ironic that fears in the 1970s that shortages of natural resources might halt economic growth have given way to concern that the mismanagement of natural resource abundance intensifies environmental problems. Environmental policy makers and their advisers can benefit from a fuller awareness of how macro policy failure adversely impacts on environmental policies. They need to adapt environmental policies to the macroeconomic limitations and to recognize that some past policies may have failed because of those limitations rather than through systemic flaws in the policies themselves. They also need to be more supportive of the efforts of the IFIs to ease the constraint of maladroit macroeconomic management. The strengthening of sanctions against anti-social governance can help here.

This will improve the design of sound environmental policies guided by total economic value to price in externalities, green accounting to achieve positive genuine saving, and cost effective pollution abatement measures to flatten the EKC. In this way, developing countries can leapfrog the environmental learning curve of the advanced economies and limit the mismanagement of natural resources and minimize the damage to environmental services [38].

"Literature is not unified, and at least two significantly different currents can be distinguished [39]. A sociological-historical current [40-45], which concentrates mainly on the transformation of systems of property rights in contextual terms, and is based on a narrative historical method. The other current is based on a hypothetical-deductive logic, and highlights the question of collective action. Craig [39] indicates that the hypothetical deductive approach has incontestably become the dominant trend for dealing with the management of natural resources" [46]. Not only because this approach is theoretically dominant, according to Balet et al [46] but also because it has developed tools for analysing the situations of natural resources management that have had a significant impact on international institutions, such as the IAD framework (Institutional Analysis and Development) developed at Indiana University by Ostrom and her colleagues. In these countries, the funding organizations, notably the Breton Woods institutions, have made comanagement the keystone of their development programs. In practice, this involves setting up projects that are subject to conditions, and require local people to be involved. By Balet et al [46] indicates that this means that the sphere of influence of reflex ion on co - management

has been significant in the developing countries via both international institutions and also some NGOs that have switched from a purely conservation-based vision to a co-management vision.

References

- [1] J. Milivojević, A. Arsić Kokić, K. Kanjevac Milovanović, The intensity of use of resources essential for life and survived of human species, 39 National Conference on Quality and 7 national conference on quality of life, pp. B1 B12, Quality of the festival, Kragujevac, 2012.
- [2] K. H. Nath, Natural Resources and Sustainable Development, SHSU Economics & Intl. Business Working Paper No. 14 09, Sam Houston State University Department of Economics and International Business, 2014.
- [3] E.J. Mbaiwa, K.B.M. Darkoh, *Botswana Notes and Records* 37 (2005) 40-60.
- [4] A. Wood, Natural Resource Conflicts in South West Ethiopia. In: Hurskanien, A. & Salih, M. (Eds.), *Social Science and Conflict Analysis*, pp. 83 -102, Uppsala: Nordiska Afrikainstitutet, 1993.
- [5] B. J. Opschoor, Towards Security, Stability and Sustainability Oriented Strategies of Development in East Africa, In: Salih, M.A.M., Ditez, T. & Ahmed, A.G.M. (Eds.), *African Pastoralism: Conflicts, Institutions and Government*, pp. 23 38, London: Pluto Press, 2001.
- [6] V. Chiritescu, Agricultural Economics and Rural Development 1(1) (2011) 147-160.
- [7] G. Rajović, J. Bulatović, World Scientific News 61(2) (2017) 56-68.
- [8] World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), Our Common Future, London: Oxford University Press, 1987.
- [9] FAO Corporate Document Repository, Chapter 1. Why caring for the environment, Technical Cooperation Department.
- [10] International Conference on Global Competitiveness Through (R&DID), Resource management for Sustainable Development of Island Economies, the 2nd R&DID International Conference on Global Competitiveness Through, on March, Bangkok, Thailand, 2008.
- [11] K.S. Mishra, Journal of Environmental Management and Tourism 1(1) (2011) 12-21.
- [12] S. Sawyer, Unsustainable Development: Symptoms & Causes, Vermont Sustainable Job Fund. (2006), Available from: http://www.vsjf.org (08. 09 2016).
- [13] United Nations, Millennium Ecosystem Assessment Synthesis Report (MEASR): Prepublication Final Draft Approved by MA Board on March 23 (2005), Available from: http://matagalatlante.org (09. 09 2016).
- [14] C. Zaharia, D. Şuteu, Agricultural Research in Moldova (Romania) (2011) 93 -101.
- [15] L. I. Savelieva, Geography and Natural Resources 30(4) (2009) 318-323.

World News of Natural Sciences 6 (2017) 20-35

- [16] J. Dinić, Economic geography principles, methods, spatial structure, Belgrade: Faculty of Economics, 1981.
- [17] T. Gunton, *Economic Geography* 79(1) (2003) 67-94.
- [18] E.N. Krasnoshtanova, Geography and Natural Resources 35(4) (2014) 365-372.
- [19] G. Rajović, Journal of Sustainable Development Studies 2(2) (2013) 229-241.
- [20] G. Rajović, J. Bulatović, Journal of Energy and Natural Resources 2(2) (2013) 7-20.
- [21] G. Rajović, J. Bulatović, Hyperion Economic Journal 1(4) (2013) 28-42.
- [22] M. A. Mensah, C.L. Castro, Sustainable resource use & sustainable development: a contradiction?!, Center for Development Research, University of Bonn, 2004.
- [23] V. Stucki, M. Smith, Ambio 40(4) (2011) 351-360.
- [24] J. Alcamo, M. E. Bennett, Millennium Ecosystem Asses, Ecosystems and human wellbeing: a framework for assessment, World Resources Institute, Washington, 2003.
- [25] R. Abila, I. Diafas, P. Guthiga, R. Hatfield, S. Kiragu, C. Ritho, Economic Valuation and Environmental Assessment, Center for Development Research (ZEF) and IUCN The World Conservation Union-Eastern Africa Regional Office (IUCN EARO).
- [26] W. D. Pearce, K.R. Turner, Economics of natural resources and the environment, JHU Press, 1990.
- [27] L. M. Ravago, J. Roumasset, K. Burnett, Resource management for Sustainable Development of Island Economies (No. 200804), The 2nd R&DID International Conference on Global Competitiveness Through R&DID on March 3-4, pp. 1-38, Bangkok, Thailand, 2008.
- [28] P. Hardi, T. Zdan, *Assessing Sustainable Development: Principles in Practice*. Canada: The International Institute for Sustainable Development, 1997.
- [29] J. Roumasset, The Yin and Yang of Sustainable Development: Scarcity and Abundance, In Xinjingji, Tiaojianxia, De, Shengcun, Huanjing, Yu, Zhonghua, Wenhua (eds.), The New Economy, Living Conditions, and the Chinese Culture, Hangzhou, China, 2002.
- [30] E. J. Mbaiwa, K. B. M. Darkoh, Botswana Notes and Records 37 (2005) 40-60.
- [31] E. J. Mbaiwa, Prospects for Sustainable Wildlife Resource Utilisation and Management in Botswana: A Case Study of East Ngamiland District, pp. 203 (M.Sc. Thesis), Gaborone: Department of Environmental Science, University of Botswana, 1999.
- [32] K.B.M. Darkoh, E.J. Mbaiwa, Sustainable Development and Resource Conflicts in Botswana, In: Salih, M.A. M., Ditez, T. & Ahmed, A.G.M. (Eds.), African Pastoralism: Conflicts, Institutions and Government, pp. 39-55, London: Pluto Press, 2001.
- [33] M. Lakićević, N. Tatović, *Letopis naučnih radova Poljoprivrednog fakulteta* 36(1) (2012) 36-43.
- [34] G. Shepherd, The Ecosystem Approach, Five Steps to Implementation, IUCN, Gland, 2004.

World News of Natural Sciences 6 (2017) 20-35

- [35] G. Shepherd, The Ecosystem Approach: Learning from Experience, IUCN, Gland, 2008.
- [36] A.A. Pérez, Applying the Ecosystem Approach in Latin America, IUCN, Gland, 2008.
- [37] M. Hadley, Solving the puzzle: The Ecosystem Approach and Biosphere Reserves, UNESCO, Paris, 2000.
- [38] M.R. Auty, Natural Resources, Development Models and Sustainable Development, Discussion Paper 03 01, Environmental Economics Programme, 2003.
- [39] P. Blaikie, Africa 59(1) (1989) 18-40.
- [40] T. Beck, The Experience of Poverty: Fighting for Resources and Respect in Village India, London: IT Publications, 1994.
- [41] H. Blair, Development and Change 27(3) (1996) 475-500.
- [42] D. Mosse, Development and Change 28(3) (1997) 467-504.
- [43] M. Goldman, Inventing the Commons: Theories and practices of the Commons' professional, in Goldman, M. (Ed.), Privatizing Nature: Political Struggles for the Global Commons, New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press, 1998.
- [44] F. Cleaver, *Development and Change* 31(2) (2000) 361-83.
- [45] S. N. Jodha, Life on the Edge: Sustaining Agriculture and Community Resources in Fragile Environments, Dehli: Oxford University Press, 2001.
- [46] J. Ballet, K.M.J. Kouamékan, B.K. Komena, Économie internationale 4 (2009) 53-76.

(Received 26 December 2016; accepted 11 January 2017)