



MEMOIRE Bruno TAYEB

Septembre 2013

ANNEXES

SOMMAIRE

Annexe 1 : Poster « Présentation générale » Nyae Nyae Conservancy	2
Annexe 2 : Poster « Géographie »	3
Annexe 3 : Poster « Comptage des animaux »	4
Annexe 4 : Exemple de budget annuel	5
Annexe 5 : Guidelines for Harvesters of Devil's Claw.....	9
Annexe 6 : « Application for Leave »	18
Annexe 7 : Questionnaire-type	19
Annexe 8 : Exemple de grille d'entretien	20
Annexe 9 : Recueil d'un entretien	22
Annexe 10 : Exemple de déroulement d'une mission terrain.....	30
Annexe 11 : Promotion of Community Based Tourism.....	41
Annexe 12 : Nature Conservation Amendment Act	45
Annexe 13 : Exemple de scénario de film.....	50
Annexe 14 : Presentation of Namibia's Communal Conservancies	54
Annexe 16 : Présentation Ju/'Hoansi Living Museum	77
Annexe 17 : Présentation Khaudum National Park	78
Annexe 18 : Minorities in Independent Namibia.....	80
Annexe 19 : Namibia's Communal Conservancies Report	100
Annexe 20 : MCA-Namibia Annual Report 2012	104
Annexe 21 : MCA-Namibia « Results at year 3 » Report.....	116
Annexe 22 : WWF Community-based Natural Resource Management Manual	122
Annexe 23 : WWF Human Wildlife Conflict Manual	140

Annexe 1 : Poster « Présentation générale » Nyae Nyae Conservancy

Nyae Nyae Conservancy

Tsimanele and the Aardvark Plains for the people of the Mafikeng District

PEOPLE
African is the main language spoken in the conservancy.

People living in the conservancy areas are concerned about the impact of increasing human activities on the natural resources and are a driver of economic growth. Sustainable development is a key business strategy.

& WILDLIFE

Five existing wildlife, such as blue elephants, topi, and various birds, are a key business strategy.

Conservancy residents engage in a variety of livelihood activities including traditional resource uses, livestock, hunting and crop production. The conservancy has a variety of habitats and ecosystems that support a wide range of wildlife and other resources and is a driver of economic growth. Sustainable development is a key business strategy.

a conservancy is:

- a voluntary body of individuals
- formed by the community for the development of residents
- managed by a group elected to serve the interests of all its members
- a place where wildlife populations increase as they are protected
- a place where the value of the land is enhanced through which income and development can be earned for multiple uses to minimize conflict and maximize the interests of all stakeholders

milestones and successes

- 1994 - The Nyae Nyae Development Foundation of Namibia is formed to support the conservancy
- 1996 - The Nyae Nyae community begins the process to register as a conservancy
- 1998 - The Nyae Nyae Conservancy is registered in Botswana, becoming the first communal conservancy in Namibia
- 1999 - The Nyae Nyae Conservancy office is established at Borakae
- 2001 - an annual game count is started in Nyae Nyae
- 2002 - a large game-proof camp is erected to manage the remaining Nyae Nyae bushy population
- 2003 - the conservancy office is moved to Turisamen
- 2005 - the Nyae Nyae Trust is formed
- 2008 - black rhino are introduced into the conservancy
- 2008 - an application is lodged with the Ministry of Agriculture & Livestock to extend the borders of the conservancy to include the village of Nyoma
- 2011 - the conservancy is registered as a conservancy

resources

birds

Over 200 bird species have been recorded in Nyae Nyae. Around 15,000 hectares of cover (60 species seasonally gather in Nyae Nyae Park, including green parrot species, Kingfisher, weaver birds and various other species).

small mammals

Establishment of conservancies, wildlife workers have steadily increased in communal areas. In Nyae Nyae, the wildlife population includes black rhino, kudu, blue elephants, topi, and various birds.

plants

Conservancy members have established a variety of community and individual benefits, including:

- creating employment and paying staff salaries
- distributing cash and material support to households
- developing water points
- supporting small business activities
- supporting small-scale harvesting
- supporting improved grazing
- playing an active role in contributions to traditional authorities

benefits from natural resources

Benefits to the conservancy and its members are obtained from:

- Maati, Dikwena and Kwerndikwa Campsites
- craft sales through Cultural Crafts
- Living Hunter's Museum (community enterprise)
- Living Museum (community enterprise)
- deer's clove harvesting
- new-use building
- tourism and photography (Nambati Country Lodges)
- the conservancy spends money and creates benefits in these markets:

Conservancy Expenses

- Salaries
- Fueling Costs
- Vehicle Expenses
- Other benefits
- Living Hunter's Museum
- Living Museum
- Deer's Clove
- New-Use Building
- Tourism and Photography
- Nambati Country Lodges

The conservancy creates a variety of community and individual benefits, including:

- creating employment and paying staff salaries
- distributing cash and material support to households
- developing water points
- supporting small business activities
- supporting small-scale harvesting
- supporting improved grazing
- playing an active role in contributions to traditional authorities

For more information and updates:

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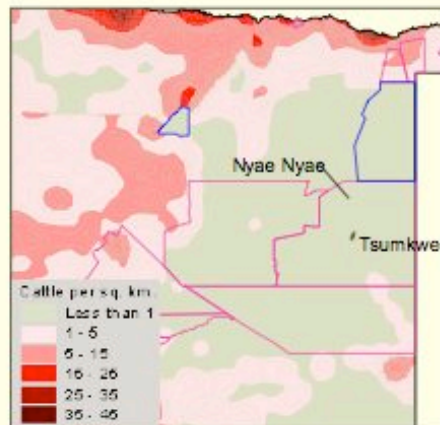
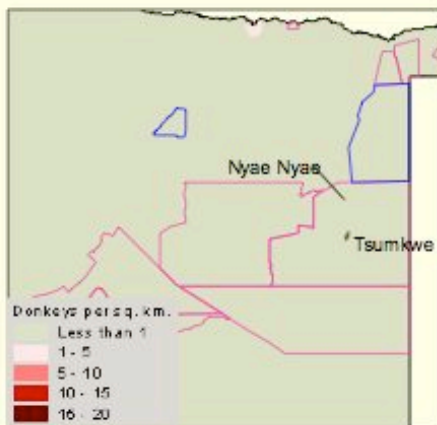
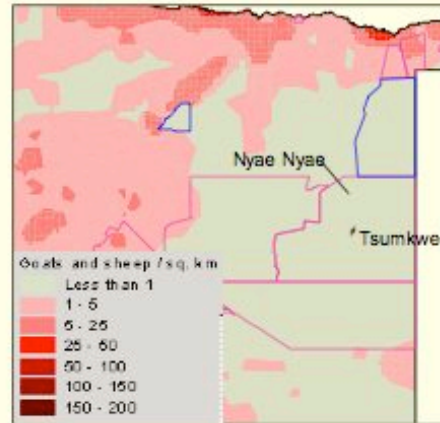
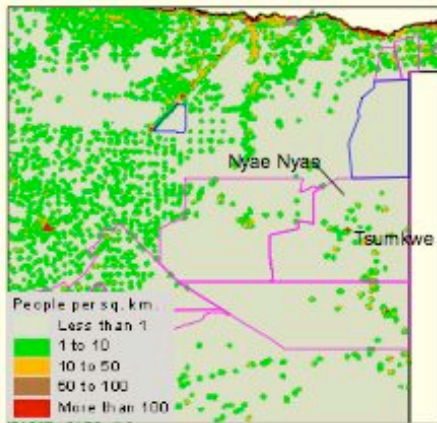
Annexe 2 : Poster « Géographie »

Name: Nyae Nyae
Registered: February, 1998
Size: 8992 km²
Region: Otjozondjupa
Members: 752
Annual rainfall: 400 – 500 mm
Landscape: Kalahari Sandveld.
Biome: Savanna.
Vegetation type: Northern Kalahari.
Key wildlife species: Elephant, buffalo, eland, giraffe, blue wildebeest, hartebeest, reedbuck, kudu, roan, springbok, oryx, African wild dog, lion, leopard, cheetah.
Terrestrial diversity: Average to high.
Terrestrial endemism: Very low.

Communal Conservancies



Non-wildlife population densities in and around Nyae Nyae conservancy. State protected areas are outlined in blue, conservancies in purple.



Annexe 3 :Poster « Comptage des animaux »

GAME COUNTS IN NORTH-WEST NAMIBIA

June 2012



Count area: 6.6 million ha

Total Population Estimates				Total number of animals seen each year												
Species	Population estimate	Lower 95% CL	Upper 95% CL	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	
Gemsbok	41,190	31,470	53,920	108	116	203	135	555	165	567	239	310	390	172	510	
Giraffe	1,815			5	1	7	7	14	2	4	7	6	3		5	
Kudu	5,530	3,530	8,660	12	6	9	5	19	3	8	7	6	11	3		
Ostrich	9,960	7,790	12,740	83	19		12	10	12	45	5	30		13	2	
Springbok	113,880	93,640	138,430	40	24	45	17	107	5	36	44	72	31	73	39	
Steenbok	17,660	13,630	22,900	1,818	2,698	3,483	2,749	3,506	2,612	3,888	2,609	2,652	2,756	2,166	3,248	
Zebra	15,920	10,810	23,440	215	232	189	281	213	296	268	231	253	441	362	420	
				2			1	7			4	3	1	10	2	
				45	84	60	80	76	94	108	59	81	119	67	91	
				3	14	20	17	34	15	24	5	19	21	9	45	
				189	297	241	916	413	324	576	207	327	327	189	342	
				577	659	815	817	903	741	902	666	1,247	832	769	1,027	
				1	1	7	2	9	2	9	6	3	4	3	10	
				11,606	14,560	16,734	10,509	14,227	11,746	12,135	18,729	12,411	15,601	12,790	11,714	
				49	85	122	203	154	101	245	89	117	149	87	262	
				6	14	8	7	13	11	13	2	2	2	6	8	
				1,210	1,274	1,414	1,378	1,738	1,638	1,684	2,136	3,004	3,248	3,341	2,563	

All estimates are derived using DISTANCE analysis. Estimates for individual conservancies (below) are based on the use of Effective Strip Widths (ESW) for each species. Although total estimates derived from individual conservancies will be similar to regional total estimates (above), they will not be equal. All estimates are conservative estimates, as on average, 20% of the count area is not sampled (due to inaccessibility) and is consequently assumed to hold no animals.

Animals seen during this count:

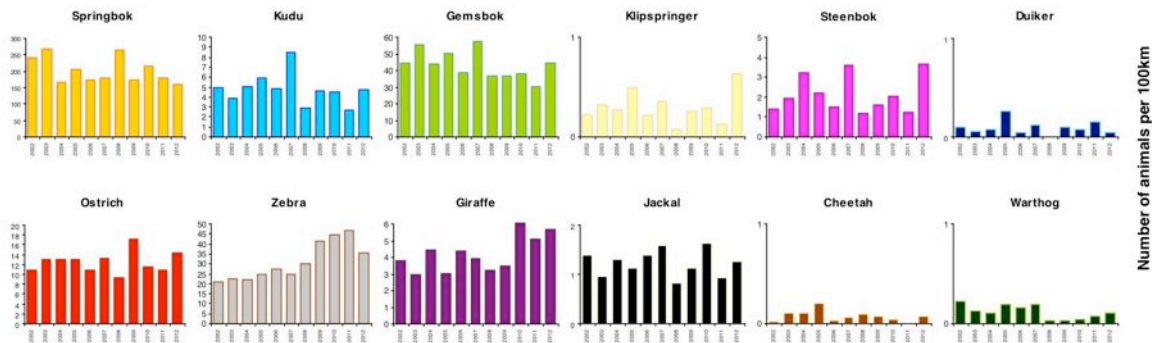
Species	Total	#Karas-#Hos	Anaeb	#Audi	Doro Innes & Uisuan-Tyngdomin	Eh-Rovjuka	Elenkaka	#Gangu	Hoblers	#Hwab	Marenkuss	Ohungu	Ohangandamba	Ohondjumbo	Omanekaka	Ompembe	Ompupa	Ojambangu	Ojimboryo	Ouzamba	Ozandanda	Palmweg	Puro	Sankata	Sesfontein	Serra sentis	Toms	Tiseb
Total Route km	7 213	500	223	43	517	284	87	727	62	425	286	180	140	162	213	280	187	52	98	64	78	551	324	153	312	207	529	528
Total area (km2)	66 176	3 358	1 636	336	4 137	1 979	507	7756	258	2 129	3 034	1 245	1 130	1 643	1 613	3 568	2 272	348	432	992	743	5 891	3 564	1 446	2 469	2 290	3 492	7 908
Number of routes	135	9	5	2	9	5	2	10	3	8	5	3	3	4	4	6	3	1	2	1	2	11	6	4	7	4	8	9
% area excluded	28	43	51	0	6	28	55	17	5	4	28	14	29	16	48	34	56	74	30	76	53	43	31	28	43	18	25	16

Population estimates for conservancies:

Estimates with no brackets take account of drop off in detection of animals with distance from the transect line and are calculated using effective strip widths (ESW) for each species. Estimates inside brackets are minimum estimates assuming all animals within 500m on each side of the transect line are detected, and represent an average over the past 3 years.

Species	#Karas-#Hos	Anaeb	#Audi	Doro Innes & Uisuan-Tyngdomin	Eh-Rovjuka	Elenkaka	#Gangu	Hoblers	#Hwab	Marenkuss	Ohungu	Ohangandamba	Ohondjumbo	Omanekaka	Ompembe	Ompupa	Ojambangu	Ojimboryo	Ouzamba	Ozandanda	Palmweg	Puro	Sankata	Sesfontein	Serra sentis	Toms	Tiseb		
Gemsbok	277 (137)	299 (149)	1 110 (552)	298 (127)	1 173 (584)	36 (13)	382 (190)	75 (37)	6 029 (3 000)			849 (472)	219 (108)	8 183 (4 071)	23 (11)	5 (2)						4 654 (2 315)	3 191 (1 588)	1 966 (978)	2 368 (1 178)	114 (57)	3 229 (1 606)	181 (90)	
Giraffe	145 (75)	22 (11)	37 (19)	466 (238)	284 (148)	54 (28)						49 (15)	128 (33)	66 (25)	61 (2)	7 (1)						5 (3)	202 (105)	165 (86)	22 (11)	78 (41)	27 (14)	132 (69)	
Kudu	739 (284)	63 (24)	20 (8)	84 (32)	252 (97)	10 (4)	423 (163)					128 (49)	46 (18)	61 (24)	79 (30)	7 (3)						10 (5)	102 (39)		5 (2)	4 (2)	30 (12)	817 (314)	
Ostrich	53 (36)	127 (85)	778 (521)	147 (99)	6 (179)	6 (43)	118 (83)	471 (316)	84 (56)	239 (160)	429 (295)	196 (132)	253 (168)	42 (28)	42 (26)	9 (6)						18 (10)	456 (306)	307 (204)	524 (353)	870 (535)	424 (259)	1 871 (1 255)	
Springbok	1 071 (450)	4 014 (1 687)	5 569 (2 340)	595 (250)	3 793 (1 584)	14 977 (6 253)	435 (183)	378 (159)	6 431 (2 702)	3 467 (1 058)	7 567 (3 160)	10 470 (4 399)	7 719 (3 002)	1 315 (503)	1 869 (780)							34 (14)	21 044 (8 935)	4 159 (1 748)	5 238 (2 201)	4 373 (1 837)	5 054 (2 123)	7 422 (3 119)	9 599 (4 033)
Steenbok	630 (34)	56 (9)	161 (14)	605 (52)	99 (9)	1 790 (147)	67 (41)	472 (41)	173 (15)	636 (54)	834 (72)	227 (20)	196 (17)	603 (52)	810 (70)	105 (8)	281 (24)	81 (7)	35 (3)	312 (27)	31 (3)	78 (7)	43 (4)	1 082 (94)	559 (48)	1 948 (168)			
Zebra	173 (173)	871 (871)	716 (716)	182 (182)	1 940 (1 940)	156 (156)	78 (78)	308 (308)				6 (6)	1 594 (1 594)	104 (104)	371 (371)	2 (2)							6 243 (6 243)	427 (427)	744 (744)	174 (174)	2 251 (2 251)	190 (190)	

Trends:



Annexe 4 : Exemple de budget annuel

MGT COMM FILE OFFICE COPY

NnC: INCOME EXPENDITURE VS BUDGET 2011: REPORT TO NNC BOARD JUNE 2012							
LINE ITEM	COST	UNIT	DRAFT Sept 2011 BUDGET	TOTAL INC	Var 2011 Budg vs Inc	%	
0010/010	Income: Bank interest received		20	26.23	(6.23)	131%	
0010/011	Income: Bank interest received: NNC TRUST	2,000	12	24,000	25,165.50	(1,165.50)	105%
0010/012	Income Bank Interest receive NNC Reserve	2,000	12	24,000	26,368.41	(2,368.41)	110%
0010/020	Income: Trophy Hunt US\$136950@6.9	944,955	1	878,773	1,101,304.15	(222,531.15)	125%
	Income: TH US@6.9 Eden Buffalox3	186,300	1	181,950	121,950.00	60,000.00	67%
0010/021	Income: TH own use quota elephants	20,000	5	50,000	-	50,000.00	0%
0010/025	Income: Sale of game	1	1	1	-	1.00	0%
0010/028	Income: Sale of cattle	1	1	1	-	1.00	0%
0010/030	Income: Film	10,000	3	26,000	16,000.00	10,000.00	62%
	NNC Tourists Entrance Fee	1,000	1	500	240.00	260.00	48%
	Lodge Joint Venture	1	1	1	-	1.00	0%
	Donation Rupert Isaackson vehicle	1	1	17,668	17,668.40	(0.40)	100%
0010/043	Income: NNC Devils Claw commission	40,000	1	31,707	55,565.70	(23,858.70)	175%
0010/04	Income: NNC Devils Claw fee		1	1	10,137.80	(10,136.80)	1013780%
0010/044	Income: Workshops/food		1	1	6,500.00		650000%
0010/045	Income: Use of Lorry vehicle	1	1	1	3,188.00		318800%
	Income: Sale of vehicles	1	1	1	-	1.00	0%
0010/050	Income: Miscellaneous	1	1	1	-	1.00	0%
	TOTAL INCOME:			1,234,626	1,384,114.19	(149,488.19)	112%
LINE ITEM	COST	UNIT	DRAFT 2011 BUDGET	TOTAL EXP	Var 2010 Budg vs Exp	%	
1010/001	Mgt Salaries manager	3,000	12 S	10,340	10,339.64	0.36	100%
1010/002	Mgt Salaries New Chairperson	1,500	12 S	18,000	21,000.00	(3,000.00)	117%
1010/003	Administrator Salaries	1,200	12 S	14,400	14,400.00	-	100%
1010/004	Sal: cleaning office	660	12 S	7,920	7,920.00	-	100%
1010/006	DL: Salary Driver	900	12 S	10,800	13,740.00	(2,940.00)	127%
1010/007	Daily Labour: mgt clean & security	1	12 S	3,990	4,665.00	(675.00)	117%
1010/010	Mgt S&T Managers	350	12 ST	12,672	17,981.50	(5,309.50)	142%
1010/011	Management Uniforms	1	1 SO	1	-	1.00	0%
1010/012	Management: Accommodation paid	300	6 ST	1,060	760.00	300.00	72%
1010/013	Social Security Payments	5,000	1 S	24,812	24,812.14	(0.14)	100%
1010/014	Hire vehicle	1	1 UP	1	-	1.00	0%
1010/015	Mgt Transport fuel	9,000	12 TF	121,850	135,734.44	(13,884.44)	111%
1010/016	Mgt Transport maintenance	8,000	12 TM	133,343	180,183.41	(46,840.41)	135%
1010/017	Mgt Transport insurance	5,000	12 TI	57,098	56,464.06	633.94	99%
1010/018	Mgt New vehicle Equipment	1	1 EQ	1	-	1.00	0%
1010/019	Mgt small Equipment	1	1 EQ	13,000	12,999.65	0.35	100%
1010/025	Admin Office supplies & cleaning	200	12 AD	3,037	3,107.22	(70.22)	102%
1010/026	Admin stationery	300	12 AD	2,049	1,448.78	600.22	71%
1010/027	Admin communication	500	12 AD	7,802	9,295.88	(1,493.88)	119%
	Admin: e-mail	1	1 AD	1	-	1.00	0%
1010/033	Admin: office equipment	6,000	1 EQ	8,000	-	8,000.00	0%
	Admin: Photocopier	1	1 AD	1	-	1.00	0%
	Admin: water & electricity	500	12 AD	2,250	1,900.00	350.00	84%
	Admin: rental land: office	500	12 AD	1	-	1.00	0%
	Admin: rental land: Buffalo Camp	1,500	1 AD	1	-	1.00	0%
1010/034	Bank charges Paid Trust	50	12 AD	656	660.10	(4.10)	101%
1010/035	Bank charges Paid GEN	500	12 AD	7,734	8,695.75	(961.75)	112%

REPORT NNC INCOME EXPENDITURE 2011 FINAL NNC1211F Board April 2012.xlsx/NNC INC VS EXP 2011 data chart/09/06/2012

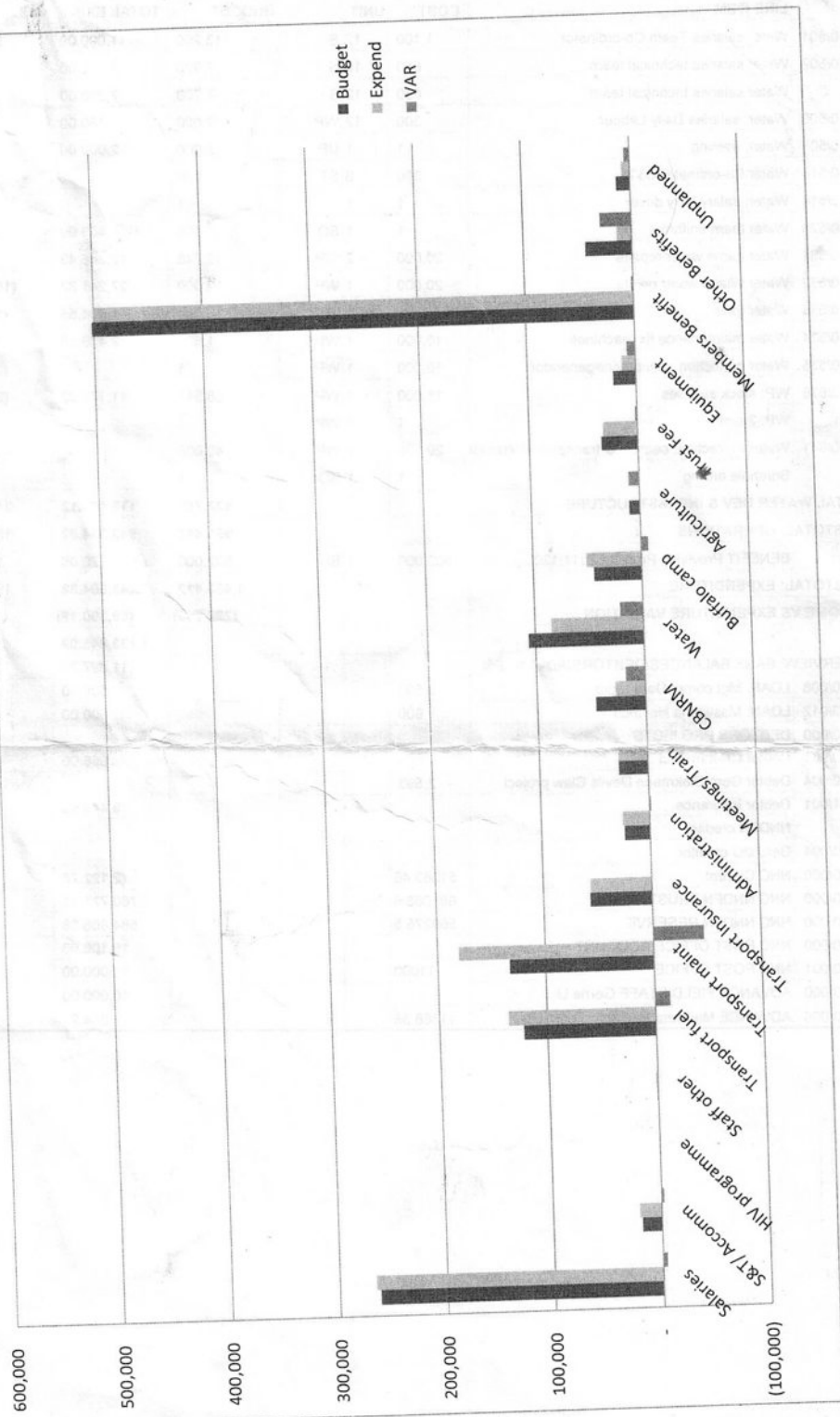
	LINE ITEM	COST	UNIT		DRAFT 2011 BUDGET	TOTAL EXP	Var 2010 Bug vs Exp	%
1010/040	Mgt meetings: Management Committee	150	15 M		1,972	1,492.38	479.62	76%
1010/045	Mgt: village meetings	1,200	4 M		3,199	2,584.70	614.30	81%
1010/043	Rada meeting	8,000	1 M		8,000	9,442.50	(1,442.50)	118%
	Stakeholder meeting	1	1 M		1	-	1.00	0%
1010/041	Other NNC meetings	500	4 M		2,000	-	2,000.00	0%
1010/044	Mgt meeting BOARD	3,000	4 M		8,963	11,340.06	(2,377.06)	127%
1010/055	Exchange visits	1	1 UP		1	-	1.00	0%
1010/061	NNC NNDFN Trust fees 2.5%	1,234,626	2.50% TR		33,757	31,815.73	1,941.27	94%
1010/076	Social Responsibility Death Pay out	30,000	1 B		12,850	8,850.00	4,000.00	69%
	Traditional Authority Support	30,000	1 B		30,000	5,000.00	25,000.00	17%
1010/078	Film fee paid to village	1	1 UP		1	-	1.00	0%
1010/079	T-shirts and hats	1	1 UP		1	-	1.00	0%
1010/080	HIV and AIDS programme	15,000	1 HIV		1	-	1.00	0%
	Gam farmers	1	1		10,811	5,810.83	5,000.17	54%
1010/091	Miscellaneous expendt	1	1 UP		1	-	1.00	0%
	TOTAL MANAGEMENT AND ADMIN				572,378	602,443.77	(30,065.77)	105%
	CBNRM							
1010/301	cbnrm salaries SFO	1,450	12 S		17,400	17,400.00	-	100%
1010/303	cbnrm Salaries rangers	6,600	12 S		79,200	78,540.00	660.00	99%
1010/360	cbnrm sal Buffalo camp rangers	2,900	12 S		34,800	34,800.00	-	100%
1010/306	cbnrm S&T rangers/DL	300	12 ST		3,006	1,005.90	2,000.10	33%
1010/320	cbnrm uniform rangers	1	1 SO		1	-	1.00	0%
	cbnrm (5 pangas, 1x byl)	2,000	1 CB		1,000	-	1,000.00	0%
	cbnrm: Tents	1	1 CB		1	-	1.00	0%
	cbnrm: supplies/GPS	1	1 CB		1	-	1.00	0%
1010/332	Full moon game count	10,000	1 CB		10,000	11,197.04	(1,197.04)	112%
1010/340	cbnrm meetings and workshops	1,500	3 M		3,127	2,127.25	999.75	68%
	Boma maintenance	10,000	1 CB		10,000	-	10,000.00	0%
1010/351	Devils Claw equipment	7,000	1 CB		1	-	1.00	0%
	Devils Claw organic certification	25,000	1 CB		25,000	16,870.00	8,130.00	67%
	Devils Claw Daily Labour/salary	660	12 S		4,860	4,860.00	-	100%
1010/	Devils Claw uniform	1	1 SO		375	375.30	(0.30)	100%
1010/355	Devils Claw DL	1			1	330.00	(329.00)	33000%
1010/361	cbnrm Buffalo rangers S&T	1			751	700.00	51.00	93%
1010/364	cbnrm Buffalo rangers uniforms	1	1 SO		1	750.60	(749.60)	75060%
1010/362	cbnrm Buffalo workshops	1,000	3 M		1	-	1.00	0%
	Buffalo Maintenance fence	10,000	1 BC		10,000	-	10,000.00	0%
1010/603	Buffalo camp supplies maintenance	10,000	1 BC		8,601	37,491.63	(28,890.63)	436%
	Buffalo camp storeroom	1	1 BC		1	-	1.00	0%
	BC: Electric pumps cylinder (spares)	5,000	2 BC		10,000	-	10,000.00	0%
	BC: battery	1,000	3 BC		3,000	-	3,000.00	0%
	BC: equipment water points	1,000	1 BC		1,000	-	1,000.00	0%
	BC: Game feed	10,000	1 BC		10,000	9,989.41	10.59	100%
1010/367	BC: DL	250	6 BC		1,575	3,415.00	(1,840.00)	217%
1010/403	Agric salary	660	12 S		7,200	7,200.00	-	100%
	Agric uniforms	1	1 SO		375	375.30	(0.30)	100%
	Agricultural workshop	1	1 UP		1	-	1.00	0%
1010/431	Agric seed	15,000	1 AG		10,000	-	10,000.00	0%
	TOTAL: CBNRM				251,279	227,427.43	23,851.57	91%
	WATER DEV & INFRASTRUCTURE							

REPORT NNC INCOME EXPENDITURE 2011 FINAL NNC1211F Board April 2012.xlsx/NNC INC VS EXP 2011 data char09/06/2012

	LINE ITEM	COST	UNIT	DRAFT 2011 BUDGET	TOTAL EXP	Var 2010 Budg vs Exp	%
1010/501	Water salaries Team Co-ordinator	1,100	12 S	13,200	11,000.00	2,200.00	83%
1010/502	Water salaries technical team	660	12 S	7,920	7,920.00	-	100%
	Water salaries technical team	650	12 S	7,200	7,200.00	-	100%
1010/506	Water: salaries Daily Labour	300	12 WP	2,000	180.00	1,820.00	9%
1010/508	Water: training	1	1 UP	2,000	2,000.00	-	100%
1010/510	Water Co-ordinator S&T	300	6 ST	600	-	600.00	0%
1010/514	Water: salary lorry driver	1	1	1	-	1.00	0%
1010/520	Water team uniforms	1	1 SO	468	468.00	-	100%
1010/531	Water game water repairs	20,000	2 WP	12,246	12,246.43	(0.43)	100%
1010/532	Water village water points	20,000	1 WP	12,000	27,241.32	(15,241.32)	227%
1010/533	Water tools	1	1 WP	1	1,604.55	(1,603.55)	160455%
1010/534	Water maintenance fix machines	10,000	1 WP	1,605	2,426.50	(821.50)	151%
1010/535	Water protection: equipment/generator	10,000	1 WP	1	-	1.00	0%
1010/536	WP: stock supplies	15,000	1 WP	38,511	41,176.32	(2,665.32)	107%
	WP: 2 tents	1	1 WP	1	-	1.00	0%
1010/541	Water Protection: cement & transport (Bobaha)	20,000	2 WP	40,000	-	40,000.00	0%
	Borehole drilling	1	1 BO	1	-	1.00	0%
TOTAL WATER DEV & INFRASTRUCTURE				137,755	113,463.12	24,291.88	82%
SUBTOTAL: OPERATIONS				961,412	943,334.32	18,077.68	98%
	BENEFIT Provision Projects 2011:1200@300	502,000	1 BD	502,000	500,170.06	1,829.94	100%
SUBTOTAL: EXPENDITURE				1,463,412	1,443,504.38	19,907.62	99%
INCOME VS EXPENDITURE VARIATION				(228,786)	(59,390.19)		
					1,433,845.09		
OVERVIEW: BANK BALANCES/DEBTORS/ADVANCES:					(11,897.29)		
8020/008	LOAN: Mgt comm Dam Ukxa	3,500			500.00		
8020/012	LOAN: Maswetha Heinrich	600			600.00		
8030/000	DEBTORS PROJECTS						
8030/001	Debtor Craft Project	666			666.00		
8030/004	Debtor Gero Diekmann Devils Claw project	2,593					
8031/001	Debtor Insurance				3,449.93		
	NNDFN creditor						
8070/004	Gero DC creditor						
8400/000	NNC Current	51383.46			(2,122.70)		
8410/000	NNC NNDFN TRUST	891068.6			760,771.51		
8420/000	NNC NNDFN RESERVE	569276.5			584,808.38		
8430/000	NNC POST OFFICE ACCOUNT				16,108.00		
8430/001	NNC POST OFFICE	11000			11,000.00		
8530/000	ADVANCE FIELD STAFF Gerrie Ui				10,000.00		
8530/008	ADVANCE Masweta Heinrich	11368.38			344.21		

REPORT NNC INCOME EXPENDITURE 2011 FINAL NNC1211F Board April 2012.xlsx/NNC INC VS EXP 2011 data char09/06/2012

NNC: JANUARY TO DECEMBER 2011: BUDGET VS EXPENDITURE & VARIATION FINAL



Annexe 5 : Guidelines for Harvesters of Devil's Claw



Whose resource is Devil's Claw?

Devil's Claw is a plant that grows in Namibia. It is also found in some parts of other southern African countries, but Namibia has by far the most Devil's Claw.

Indigenous people have used Devil's Claw in Namibia for thousands of years. It contains a special medicine that is very good, especially for treating sore bones and joints. Now people in other countries like Germany have also found out how good it is. This is good, because Devil's Claw can be sold to these countries, and Namibians can make some money by harvesting and processing it. But it also means that we all have to be careful not to harvest too much Devil's Claw: if we do harvest too much, there will be none left for future generations.

Devil's Claw is a national resource - it belongs to the whole nation, but there isn't enough Devil's Claw for everyone to harvest. This is why nobody is allowed to harvest Devil's Claw without a permit, or to harvest in such a way that the plant dies. It is possible to harvest enough Devil's Claw and still protect the resource. This booklet gives the most important information about:

- how to get a permit to harvest Devil's Claw;
- why the permit system is important;
- what parts of the Devil's Claw to harvest, so that the plant survives;
- how to cut and dry the Devil's Claw;
- how to store and pack the dried Devil's Claw; and
- how to keep records of how much is harvested and sold.

**Devil's Claw is a national resource -
people who harvest without a permit
are stealing from the nation**

How to get a permit

Anybody who wants to harvest Devil's Claw must first get a harvesting permit. A permit can be for **one harvester**, or for a **group of harvesters**.

Step 1: Get the **form** for a permit to harvest Devil's Claw from the nearest Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET) office. Fill in all your personal details.

Step 2: You must know **where** you want to harvest Devil's Claw, and **who controls** that land. Ask the tribal authority, local authority or land owner for permission to harvest. They must sign the application form.

Step 3: Go back to the MET office with the filled-in application form and your identity document. If you want the permit for a group of harvesters, you must say who they are, so that their names can be included on the permit. If you were given a permit for the previous season, you must have completed the **Harvesters' Return Form** (see next page.)

The MET will then consider your application. If everything is in order, they will issue a permit. The permit will only be valid for the people whose names appear on it, and for harvesting in a specific area.



Why do permits matter?

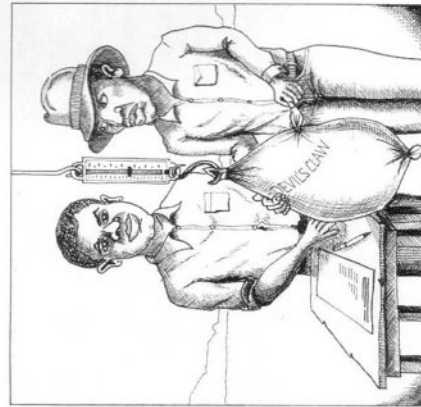
Permits are not required just to make things difficult for harvesters - they are there to protect the Devil's Claw resource for the future. A Devil's Claw harvesting permit states:

- who may harvest;
- where they may harvest; and
- when harvesting may take place (from 1st March to 31st October, but it is better to wait until the rainy season has ended).

Harvesters' "Return Forms"

Every time harvesters sell Devil's Claw to buyers/exporters (who also need permits), they must fill out the **Harvesters' Return Form**, which is on the back of the harvesting permit. This records the date of the sale, the details of the buyer, and the species, number of bags and weight of Devil's Claw sold.

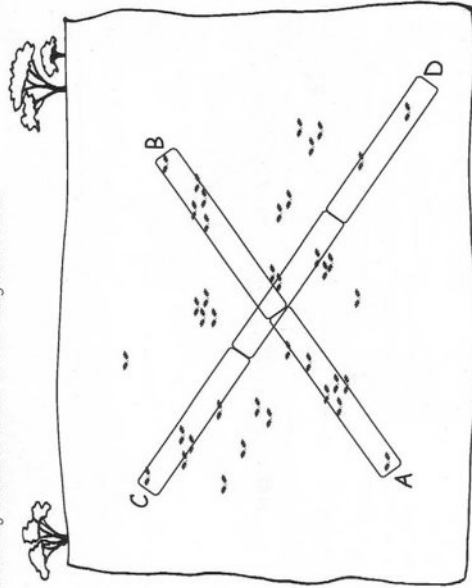
The form must be handed in to the MET by the end of November. Information on this form is **very important**: by filling it out accurately every time you sell Devil's Claw, you will help to protect the resource.



4

How much resource is there this year?

Example 1: Can you find a great number of plants, often in larger groups, in a relatively small area as in the diagram below?



Then...

Step 1: Get somebody to walk in a straight line in front of you and count off 100 steps at a time, starting at the first Devil's Claw plant:

Step 2: From point A, in a line not wider than your arms when stretched out, count all Devil's Claw plants for every 100 steps, until no more plants are found (point B) (assume direction E-W):

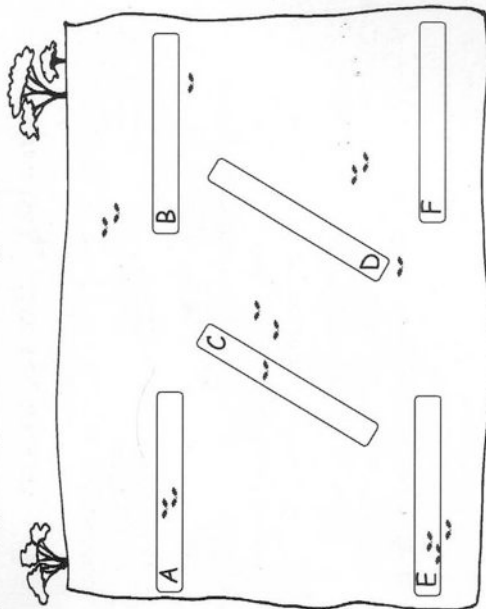
→ A to B = 200 steps = 7 + 5 Devil's Claw plants.

Step 3: Repeat, this time in a line perpendicular to the first line (assume direction N-S):

→ C to D = 300 steps = 5 + 2 + 2 Devil's Claw plants.

5

Example 2: Do you find a few plants, often in small groups over a relatively large area, e.g. a camp, as shown in the diagram below?



Step 1: From a random point, walk in a straight line for 100 steps.

Step 2: For each 100 steps, in a line not wider than your arms stretched out, count all Devil's Claw plants:

→ Line A = 100 Steps = 2 Devil's Claw plants.

Then walk at least 100 steps further, then repeat the count.

→ Line B = 100 steps = 0 Devil's Claw plants.

Step 3: Repeat step 2 at least another 2 times:

→ Line C = 100 steps = 1 Devil's Claw plants.

→ Line D = 100 steps = 0 Devil's Claw plants.

→ Line E = 100 steps = 2 Devil's Claw plants.

→ Line F = 100 steps = 0 Devil's Claw plants.

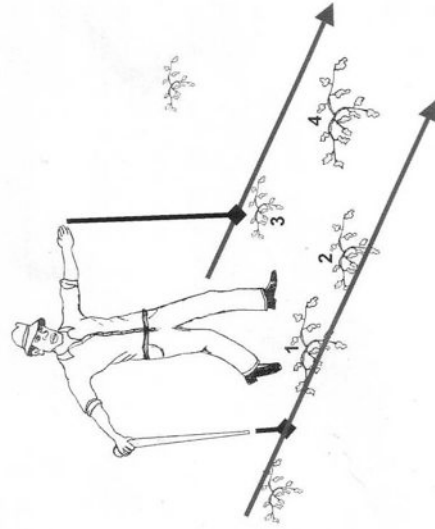
Step 4: How large is the camp or area?

→ For example 600m x 600m.

6



Things to remember when counting your resource

- Devil's Claw plants need to recover for 3 years after they have been harvested, so count only the plants you will be harvesting this year, roughly one quarter of your total resource.
- Count the Devil's Claw plants for your harvest during late January, before you get your harvesting permit.
- You are encouraged to walk double the amount of line transects shown in the examples for a more accurate estimate of your resource.
- Always write down or sketch in detail where the Devil's Claw patches are that you have counted, or which area you intend to harvest this year.
- Only count the plants rooted within the line-width corresponding to the width of your stretched-out arms, as shown below.



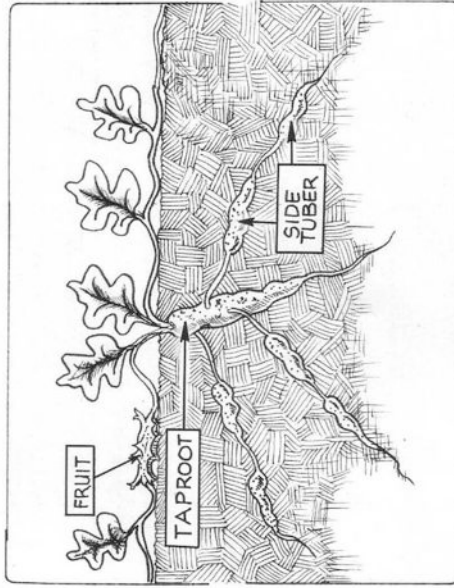
7

Devil's Claw Resource Survey Sheet

Date:	Region:	GFS Reading (if available)
Surveyor:	District:	• • • " S
Owner/Harvester:	Farm name/Area name	Area or site description: • • • " E
Mark following with x:		
Access	In close vicinity to homestead	
Commercial/Private	On cultivated (old or new) fenced field	
Nature Reserve	On roadside, below power line or other cleared area	
Communal resettlement farm	On open grassland or area with very sparse vegetation	
Communal but restricted access	Area with less than (20%) bush density	
Communal and accessible to all	Area with <u> </u> or more bush (over 20%) - bush 1 to 5m high	
Other:	Woodland (mostly trees over 5m high) with dense understory shrubs	
Devil's Claw distribution:	Species:	
Small area - maybe up to several 100m wide and long with dense patches of plants (as in Example 1)	 <i>Harpagophytum procumbens</i>	
Larger area, often 1 km ² , with scattered clumps of 1-10 plants (as in Example 2)	 <i>arpagophytum</i>	
Walk No	Direction	No of steps walked
		No of plants/100 step segment
Harvesting Record at the specific site: (Mark with x)		
Plants are harvested here every year		
Plants are harvested here regularly every 4 th year		
Plants will be harvested here for the first time, then annually		
Plants will be harvested here for the first time, then every 4 th year		

How to harvest Devil's Claw

Devil's Claw has a **main taproot** growing down from where the stems and leaves grow above the ground. The **side tubers** grow off this main taproot. People want to buy Devil's Claw because of a substance (called *harpagoside*) that is a very **good medicine**. This substance is only found **in the side tubers** - there is almost **none in the taproot**.



When you harvest a fruit tree, you don't chop down the whole tree to get the fruit - you take the fruit without killing the tree, so that the tree will be able to give more fruit in the future. Likewise, "sustainable harvesting" of Devil's Claw will allow the plant to give many more harvests in the future. The side tubers store water and food for the plant to survive during the dry season. Only **half of the side tubers** should be harvested - if they are all taken, the plant will die. So harvesting the taproot is wrong for two reasons: it kills the Devil's Claw plant, and the taproot is useless for selling.

How to dig

It is important to dig out the Devil's Claw tubers in the correct way. **If the main root is damaged or removed, the plant will die.**

- The best way to avoid causing damage is to use a strong sharpened stick, or a flattened crowbar. Using a spade is faster, but it can easily damage the main root and slice through the side tubers. If you do use a spade, you should take extra care not to damage the main root.
- Dig about 20cm away from the plant. This will help to protect the main root (20cm is about the height of this book).
- Only dig on one side of the plant. Remember that at least half of the side tubers should be left alone. It may be tempting to take all the side tubers, **but if you do this, the plant will die.**
- Choose older Devil's Claw plants to harvest. They usually have longer stems and leaves. Leave the younger plants alone.



10

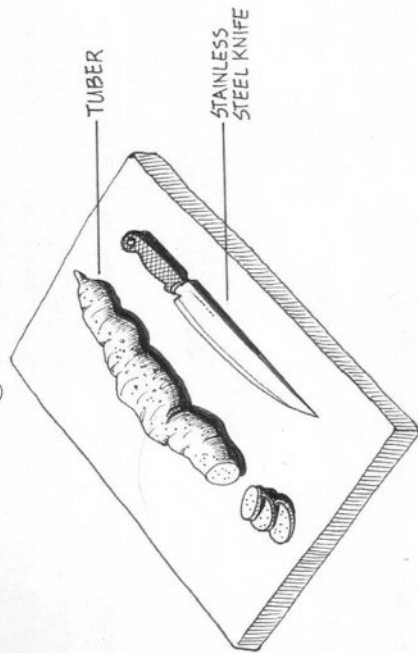
Filling in the hole

- When you have finished harvesting the side tubers, you must put all the sand that you have dug out back into the hole.
- Leaving an open hole is also very dangerous for wild animals and cattle. They could easily trip in an open hole and break a leg.
- Stamp down on the sand after you have put it back.
- If you don't fill in the hole, the Devil's Claw plant will die.



11

Slicing and quality



Namibian Devil's Claw is sold on the international market, mainly in Europe. It is very important to maintain high quality standards - low quality Devil's Claw is worth less money, and may be rejected.

Wait till after the rainy season before slicing the side tubers, otherwise they may become rotten. You can store them in a cool dry room, or bury them in the sand.

Before starting to slice the Devil's Claw, wash your hands thoroughly.

Remove all the sand from the side tubers. If possible, wash them with fresh water before cutting them. The slices should be quite thin - no more than about twice as thick as a matchstick.

Only use a clean, sharp stainless steel knife to slice the side tubers.

If parts of the side tuber are rotten or damaged, you should cut them out.

Make sure that no foreign substances (other vegetable matter, sand and dirt) get mixed in with the Devil's Claw.

12

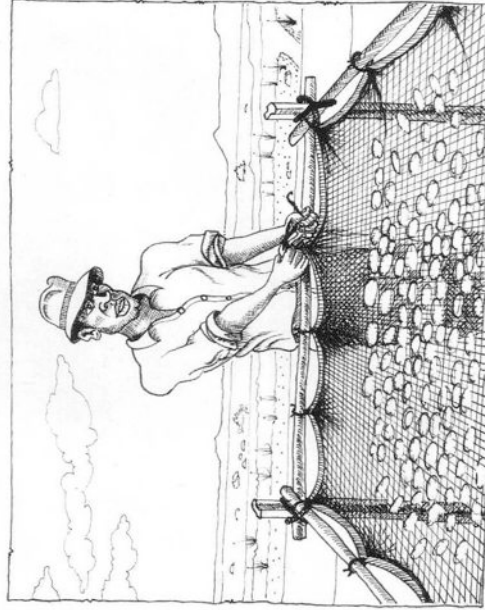
Drying the sliced tubers

Devil's Claw must be properly dried before it is packed into bags. If the side tubers are still wet, they will rot and will be worth nothing.

You will need some shade netting that is lifted off the ground. This will keep the sliced Devil's Claw away from sand, dirt and animal droppings. It will also allow the Devil's Claw to dry from underneath. It is a good idea to try and put the nets in a place that is shaded (like under or next to a tree). Once you have sliced the Devil's Claw side tubers, carefully lay them out on the shade netting. The slices must not lie on top of each other.

Leave the sliced side tubers on the shade netting for at least seven days. The slices must be completely dry before they are packed.

Once the slices are dry, they must not be allowed to get wet again. This is why it is best to wait until after the rainy season before cutting and drying.



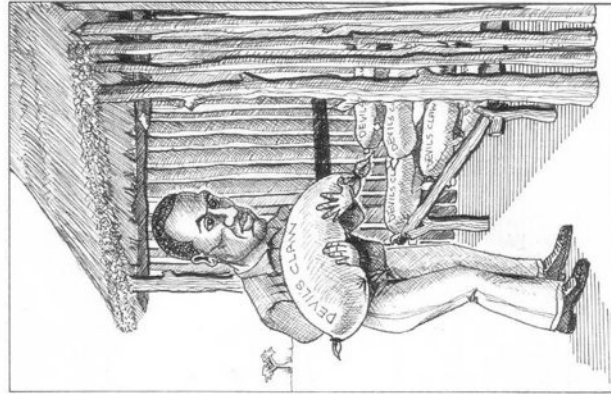
13

Packing and storing

Once the sliced Devil's Claw has been properly dried, it can be packed in bags. The slices are properly dry if you can snap them cleanly into two pieces. If they bend, they are not yet dry enough.

Only use new bags that are clean and dry. Do not use old bags - they will probably have been used for fertilisers, animal manure, poisons, animal feed or other plants, and they will ruin your Devil's Claw.

Store the bags in a clean, dry place so that the bags are not directly on the floor. Make sure that no animals can come near to the stored bags.



14

Make the most of the Devil's Claw resource...

- A high-quality product brings in more money.
- Keep records of **weight** of dried tubers (not just how many bags), **when** and to **whom** they were sold, and for **how much** (you need this information for the report back form).
- Harvesters who **work together in a group** can make sure they get a fair price from Devil's Claw buyers. Find a buyer before you harvest, so that you know how much to harvest, and what price you will be paid.
- Devil's Claw is a Namibian product - take pride in producing a quality product and protecting the resource.



15

Contacts

For Devil's Claw harvesting permit applications, advice and assistance,
please contact the following:

Ministry of Environment and Tourism office - (Windhoek)

Directorate Scientific Services - Tel (061) 284 2568

OR

Your nearest **Ministry of Environment & Tourism office**

You can also contact CRIAA SA-DC

for advice and assistance - Tel (061) 220 117

06 2402 6181

This pamphlet is the initiative of the Devil's Claw Working Group
and the Ministry of Environment and Tourism
and was prepared by CRIAA SA-DC. It was funded by
the German Federal Agency for Nature Conservation.

06 769 2025

Illustrations by Dudley Vail

April 2007

Annexe 6 : « Application for Leave »

NNC APPLICATION FOR LEAVE Must be submitted duplicate

Surname [block letters]	Programme
First names	Division
Rank	

Kind of leave	Periods		Total no. of days
	From	to	
Annual			
Sick			
Maternity			
Special			

Kind of leave	Periods		Total no. of days
	From	to	
Leave			
Maternity			
Special			
Urgent private matters			
Special study			

REQUEST FOR PAYMENT DURING ANNUAL LEAVE

I hereby requested, in terms of section 39(3) of the Public Service Act 1992 (ACT 6 of 1992) that my salary for my annual leave.

to be paid to me in advance:
to be paid to me as usual on the normal pay day(s)

(a) or (b)

ADDRESS DURING LEAVE

LEAVE APPROVED [✓]
LEAVE NOT APPROVED []

Annexe 7 : Questionnaire-type

UNIVERSITY OF PARIS
Universiteit van Paris

**To be filled up by any Community Ranger / Wat gevul moet word deur die
community ranger**

Help will be very appreciated, bring back this paper to **Bruno TAYEB** at Nyae Nyae Conservancy's office / *Hulp sal baie waardeer word, terug te bring om hierdie vraestel te Bruno TAYEB na Nyae Nyae Conservancy.*

Name : Village :
Naam Village

Year of birth : Place of birth :
Geeborte jaar Geeborte plek

Number of wife/kids :/..... Relatives in : - TA :
Antaal vrouens/kinders Familie in

Year of election : - Conservancy :
Jaar van verkiesing

Hunting skills/time spent (choose) : ++ / + / *kxoara* / - / --
Jag vaardighede/tyd bestee((kies)

Previous work before ranger :
Vorige werk voor ranger

Favourite activities (you can choose more than one) :
Gunsteling aktiwiteite (jy kan kies meer as een)

- | | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|
| - Buffalo Camp Game Count | - Event Book | -Water maintenance |
| - Road cutting | - Fencing/fence maintenance | - Trainings |
| - Full moon water count | - Devil Claws | - Assistance |

Thank you very much for you help, feel free to come visit me at Ben's house.
Baie dankie vir jou help, voel vry om my te kom besoek by Ben se huis.

RETURN WILL BE REWARDED SOMEHOW
Terug beloon een of ander manier

Annexe 8 : Exemple de grille d'entretien

Categorie	INTERVIEW GO N°1 Questions	Tell i need to ready and can -plese name about Elements & identifica
Birth and Youth Birth and Family	Name Ranger + village • Year and place of Birth ? • Name of the parents ? • Nb of brothers / sisters ? • Occupation / job of them if something noticeable ? • Position of the restricted family in the village of birth conservancy / TA?	Début → first part about you and your life then about being a community ranger. → the father - chief brother → ranger before you → in TA
Youth and Learning	• Been at school ? If yes, until what age / grade ? • Learning about wildlife by traditional hunting ? Was he a good hunter, skilled to find and follow wild animals ? • What he wanted to do when he was young ? → schooling / at the village / on the conservancy - veng ? (or TA / something else ?)	→ How did a team about wildlife → If not, only because he stayed in a village or what others reasons ? If you remember it, what would you say about the time before conservancy ?

Adult life	• Occupation before independance and before the creation of the conservancy ? (if old enough) • Was he a hunter, in conflict with the SA state which considered him as a poacher ? • How many women / children ? • How would he defend his habitation and piece of land compared to the other villagers ?	aid before he joined community ranger ? Did take part in the war → voir sur moi - mène
Becoming a community game guard Training	• First year of election ? How many people voting, and what was the average % ? • How many time elected / the - quence of elections ?	→ one village = one family, so always consensus ? When time for change, is it decided before the vote ?

<p>→ enjoying the bush</p>	<p>learning the basics of their work: do he know how to read and write? What language do they use to fill the book / trainings / workshops?</p> <p>What kind of activities were totally new for them?</p> <p>How would they defined the formation gaved by the course - vancy? Good / not enough / Bad?</p> <p>Do they use a lot their old knowledge to make their new activities?</p> <p>What part of spiritual power / the control with animals (N/huff) do they think it is important?</p> <p>Do u see or covetous as a united group working together for the same goal? Some kind of brother hood / talks</p>	<p>In English, course not of the trainings / books / materials looks in English!</p> <p>→ between the village life as a younger man and the ranger life</p> <p>What part of luck or spirit force do you think is working with wildlife? Superstitious or just precautions to have?</p> <p>→ if not, what would u say</p>
----------------------------	---	--

<p>Progression / advantages</p> <p>example?</p> <p>example?</p>	<p>Are you able to do another activity / job than GG? If yes, which?</p> <p>What kind of advantages do you find working with the conservancy? ^{think}</p> <p>How many time do you use per does to help your village (bring food, driving people, ^{revisiting} around...)?</p> <p>Do you share your salary with your family / the whole village?</p> <p>o would you like to have less enforcement power?</p>	<p>→ write the conservancy / the TA / others</p> <p>→ Better meat distribution, find employment while most of the business are owned and control by others tribes?</p> <p>→ How do you spend it? meatly?</p> <p>Balance son la bête pour ceux qui se voient ban.</p>
<p>Working process</p> <p>o example?</p>	<p>How many patrols in a month / a year #?</p> <p>How many reports to the conservancy? [↑] How do the reports work? Any meetings?</p> <p>How would you define the role of the senior GG? ^{his own role?}</p> <p>Do you think you are enough (± 1 for 850 km²) / 1/100 members</p> <p>How would you define your time schedule? Free enough, can you accept your work with your daily need obligations?</p> <p>What part do you have in decision making process? Enough?</p> <p>What would be your critics to GG?</p>	<p>Balance sur encadrement des chasses et trappees.</p> <p>→ what part would you say is the most / less important? which one do u enjoy to do?</p> <p>→ How (useful / useless) would you define the training / meetings / workshops</p> <p>o example?</p> <p>→ What do you think about NMC management, TA role, State role (MET) support associations</p> <p>→ What rules do you allow yourself to break? especially with game warden, forest</p>

Annexe 9 : Recueil d'un entretien

avant de s'engager avec la Conservancy. Il est donc habitué des procédures "à l'occidentale" puisqu'il est encore en lien avec différents organismes de développement, notamment le partenaire direct CRIIA qui s'occupe du monitoring des récoltes durables de produits phyto-pharmaceutiques (comme les Devils Claws), facilitant l'exportation des marchandises aux laboratoires européens.

Les imprécisions d'anglais sont généralement retranscrites à l'écrit.

Entretien n°1 : Koms/a Daqm, community ranger 21/03/2013

Question : *So first, for the record, can you tell me your name and the name of your village ?*

Ranger 1 : My name is Koms/a Daqm and I'm from the village of #ocakxai, north side.

Q : *So did your birth took place here, and were you raised here as a child ?*

R1 : -(Le traducteur me coupe)- No, no, he is born in Tsumkwe. -(Koms/a confirme d'un hochement de tête).

Q : *Oh so he is born in Tsumkwe -(le traducteur acquiesce à nouveau)-, in which year ?*

R1 : -(Koms/a répondant directement en anglais)- 68, -(le traducteur reprenant)- 1968.

Q : *Yeah I guess so, how was Tsumkwe back in the days ?*

R1 : -(Le traducteur répond directement)- There were nothing here, no real school, no power, struggling for water. I came here before 1980 from Makuri (un des villages dans la zone de Nyae Nyae) and Tsumkwe was very, very small, only one shop.

Q : *I can imagine, most of the officials buildings looks quite new... Koms/a, is there anyone in your family, like brothers or parents, who is like in the TA or in the conservancy staff ?*

R1 : -(Le traducteur hésitant)- Come again with the question ?

Q : *Do you have some of your relatives in the TA or in Nyae Nyae staff ?*

R1 : -(après 1 min de discussion entre eux)- The brother of my father is Andrias, the senior ranger. Then one of my brothers is working, and hunting for the trophy, trophy hunting. And one of my family who are a lady is TA, she is counsellor.

Q : *All that in Nyae Nyae area ?*

R1 : -(le traducteur répond directement)- Yes, the brother works with that hunter we

Entretien n°1

Cet entretien fut réalisé le 17/05/2013. Koms/a Daqm est ici interrogé sur son parcours de vie, et les relations maintenus avec les différentes institutions au contact desquels il travaille : les communautés locales villageoises, l'administration de la conservancy, le ministère de l'environnement et du tourisme (voir plus largement les pouvoirs publics).

Les entretiens prirent place en pleine nature, lors d'une "mission ponctuelle" rassemblant le "senior ranger" Andrias Ikunta, et les rangers Koms/a Daqm, Nlaici Koms/a, et Kxoara Kagece. Elle consiste à nettoyer un "game water point" et à réactiver le pompage, puis à débroussailler la piste menant au nouveau point d'eau qui est en construction à une vingtaine de kilomètres. Après avoir quitté le "settlement" de Tsumkwe, où se trouve le bureau de la Nyae Nyae Conservancy, et préparer suffisamment de vivres pour quelques jours dans le bush en campant, Andrias part récupérer les 3 rangers en ma compagnie.

Nous roulèrent donc environ 6h pour atteindre les différents villages concernés et retrouver les game guards (l'un d'entre eux est notamment "parti en ville" faire des courses alors qu'il est sensé être au courant du déclenchement de cette mission). Finalement, la zone de travail est atteinte, à environ 80 Km au Nord-Est de Tsumkwe, près de la frontière avec le Botswana, dans les profondeurs sauvages du bush. Après l'installation des tentes et la première après-midi de travail consacrée au nettoyage du point d'eau (et à "s'amuser" avec les éléphants athlètes par le retour du précieux liquide), le premier entretien va être réalisé.

J'explique au préalable que j'aimerais pratiquer de manière séparée, pour plus de calme et de clarté dans l'enregistrement (mais surtout parce qu'il est difficile d'empêcher de tierces réactions, et impossible de les comprendre compte tenu de la barrière de la langue), et qu'ils évitent de répéter les questions aux autres rangers afin de préserver la spontanéité des propos des entretenus.

Pour la réalisation de cet entretien, je prends donc place à l'écart avec Nlaici /ui, chargé de la traduction et employé comme Devil Claws monitor par la Nyae Nyae Conservancy, ainsi que le ranger Koms/a Daqm du village #ocakxai. Assis sur des rochers en dégustant des fruits de baobab, le premier entretien se déroule de manière sérieuse, bien que je remarque rapidement que mon interlocuteur est peu loquace. La traduction pas forcément très fluide renforce ce biais, puisque malgré mon insistance les propos sont parfois bien plus long en ju'o'hoan qu'en anglais, et que j'ai l'impression de devoir formuler moi-même les réponses que je présume chez mon interlocuteur (ce qui est fort peu scientifique, j'en conviens). J'explique que l'entretien s'appuie sur différentes parties : la biographie succincte du ranger interrogé, l'entrée dans le cosme des employés de la conservancy, son rapport au travail et aux institutions qu'il côtoie.

Le traducteur est un ami, et l'un des rares membres de Nyae Nyae à pouvoir s'exprimer en anglais sur des sujets assez pointus, d'où une certaine proximité. Il a travaillé pour un programme de développement axé sur la santé, Health Unlimited,

see last week, with the Chinese men. And the lady is one counsellor of Tsumkwe West, like Andrias ...

Q : *Yeah, I definitely know Andrias guys... (sorte de "running gag" sur le caractère assez obtu et la propension d'Andrias à déclencher des joutes verbales : la plupart s'accorde sur la difficulté à travailler harmonieusement avec lui.) (nous rions ensemble)- So, when you were young, did you want to school, and until when if you did? Which age or what grade ?*

R1 : Yes, I went to school up to grade 5.

Q : *Ok. So the second school, the bush school, how did you learn about wildlife and managing wildlife ?*

R1 : (d'après ce que je comprends, il lui demande "comment as tu appris à être ranger" ; je constate les écarts du à la traduction) This job I learn from one guy, he was coming here, his name it is -(discutent entre eux)-, I learn from Raymond, Raymond learn us how to be a ranger and...

Q : -(Interrompt)- *No but, before even he was a ranger, how did he learn about wildlife, like he was hunting or tracking ?*

R1 : -(Le traducteur avant de transmettre). Ohoh. Yes, I was.

Q : *Were you good, skilled ?*

R1 : Yes, I was quite good hunter because I learn from my parents how to be the hunter.

Q : *Hmmm, and if you remember, how was the life before the conservancy about hunting and wildlife ?*

R1 : Yes it was good, because you was the hunter, you hunt everything, I think in the past years it was good, now this years it is a little bit, because you are not allowed to hunting, and so on. Now its...

Q : -(Interrompt puisque la voix du traducteur s'éteint)- *So when he was hunting, he was actually in conflict with the state, because he was considered as a poacher ne ?*

R1 : Yeah sometimes it will be the poacher hunting, but not so much, the people are hunting with the bow and arrows. Only.

Q : *Hmmm and this was allowed ?*

R1 : -(Traducteur directement)- *Yeah it was allowed, and up to now, its still.*

Q : *Yeah yeah I know, as long as you got the authorisation of the conservancy.*

R1 : -(Traducteur directement)- *Yes, yes, exactly. You have to respect the conservancy rules about horses, weapons and everything.*

Q : *And also, what were you doing before you joined community rangers, were you employed or something ?*

R1 : Yes, I was the mechanic.

Q : *Where, in Tsumkwe ?*

R1 : No, in Baraka.

Q : *Ho and I forgot to ask you, are you married, do you have children ?*

R1 : One wife and seven children.

Q : *Ok. So now, its about how you became a community ranger, and your relation with your job.*

R1 : ...

Q : *Can you translate this, please ?*

R1 : (Le traducteur explique à Koms/a)

Q : *So what was your first year of election ?*

R1 : (Discutent 30 secondes) -(le traducteur assez décontenancé)- He said he is very confused, because they elected him a very long time ago... something like nineteen, nineteen... (Koms/a continue de parler en Ju'hoan pendant que nous discutons) nineteen sixty five...

Q : (Coupant) *1965 ? But there were no rangers before the beginning of the conservancy in the 90's.*

R1 : -(Le traducteur directement)- Oh, yes, yes... so maybe 1996 I think.

Q : *Anyway, in the early years of Nyae Nyae, like Andrias, so he was elected in this village, but he is not from here ?*

R1 : -(Le traducteur directement)- He is from that village and elected in that village - (demande confirmation à Koms/a)- No I'm from #ocakxai and I'm the ranger elected in #ocakxai.

Q : *Oh, so you are born in Tsumkwe but you are from here and you grew up here ? I thought you stayed in Tsumkwe before.*

R1 : No, no «caxkai is the village of my family. Election was done when people have this meeting, all of this people. People of the districts stay together and elected him.

Q : *All the districts of that village ?*

R1 : -(Traducteur directement)- Yah.

Q : *And do you know more or less how many people were voting ?*

R1 : (Après discussion entre eux) No I cannot remember, because it was many people who was come together to elect him so he can be the community ranger of that village.

Q : *And its like there is some kind of consensus, people agreed before the election to elect him, like "this guy will be the ranger " ?*

R1 : They do it like this

Q : *So its not a real election, they know before voting who is going to be the ranger ?*

R1 : -(Traducteur directement)- Yeah i think so... (discutent ensemble) Yes it is. It is like that.

Q : *Were they other men applying for the job ? Was it just him ?*

R1 : Because I was only the person who was in that village that people can choose. So it was only me.

Q : *So now are you elected every year ?*

R1 : No it was only one time, one election.

Q : *Until you want to retire or something there is no election? Even if people are complaining too much about how the work is done?*

R1 : Then they will make another election, but people never complain together, they are good persons.
-(Traducteur directement)- Even if people complains, it is very hard for conservancy to do something, only if there is a big problem, you see how it is here.

Q : *I guess I do, someone told me : Nyae Nyae the land of no consequences (Le traducteur rit). About learning the basis of the work, you told me about Raymond, can you tell me more about him ?*

R1 : Raymond is the one who taught me how to fill the forms of the...

Q : *The event book ?*

R1 : -(Le traducteur confus)-The event book yeah, then one bla... one boer is also taught me, his name it is John Take or something (Koms/a acquiesce). He was also teaching how to be the ranger, how to fill the forms and so on, how to look after the animals.

Q : *Before that you did not know how to read and write in English ? Because I saw them filling the books in English, but maybe some of you do it in Afrikaans ?*

R1 : (Hésitant) People taught me because the name of the animals are in english. Because I can read and write afrikaans but not english, that is why raymond and that white person came to teach me how to read english and write english for the names of the animals.

Q : *So is it a problem when you got one of those books, I saw they are all in english, for trainings, workshops and whatever, is that a problem for you ?*

R1 : Yeah sometimes it can be done in english, sometimes in afrikaans. It depends...

Q : *No, I meant all the documents at the Conservancy, everything is in english, that might be a problem no ?*

R1 : Oh yes yes, it is only English. That is why people try to come and teach me how to read english and everything, because its all in English. But it is very hard. It is a problem for me, I don't understand enough.

Q : *When you started, what kind of activities where like completely new for you, when you started to learn to be a ranger ?*

R1 : I never saw anything new, it is all like before, just the same.

Q : *You mean how you use to live in the village, except for all the filling stuff ?*

R1 : Yes that's it.

Q : *What do you say about the formation by the conservancy with the part you are not used too?*

R1 : (Le traducteur discute avec Koms/a) Come again?

Q : *The formation by Nyae Nyae, the trainings, for ranger's everyday work, is it good enough ?*

R1 : (Evasif) Sometimes it can be good, sometimes not.

Q : *Can you tell me more ?*

R1 : ...

- Q : *Like in what way the formation is not good ?*
- R1 : The Conservancy is not helping me enough.
- Q : *You mean they are just telling you what to do then they dont help you or listen to you ?*
- R1 : The Conservancy is not doing good, like now if i go to tsumkwe, Conservancy will not help me to go back to my village or take me here. Conservancy just say ok you are here, here is your money, we cannot help you bringing you back to your village which mean i will start walking from tsumikwe down to the village, thats why i said Conservancy is not helping well.
- Q : *Ok ok so they are not helping you enough, but what about the formation ?*
- R1 : it depends, some points are good, i want to learn more.
- Q : *About what ?*
- R1 : How be a good ranger and make people listen to me more. -(Après un court silence, Koms/a lui-même)- English too.
- Q : *And nothing about wildlife ? Do you feel like you got enough knowledge on this part ?*
- R1 : For animals it is easy for me, i know how to count, the tracks, it is easy.
- Q : *Something I'm wondering, a bit personal, i saw something about the n/um in Gihunku, are you superstitious (le traducteur semble ne pas comprendre), like you need luck, spirits or just precautions to avoid problems ?*
- R1 : No no.
- Q : *Do you understand or you don't believe those things ?*
- R1 :-(Traducteur directement)- No i understand i don't think we... (ils parlent en Ju/hoan et rit ensemble). -(Le traducteur m'interpelle)- This questions are really difficult, i don't have idea for that.
- Q : *For what, translation or answering ?*
- R1 :-(Traducteur directement)- No translation is okay...
- Q : *So just translate to him please and lets see what he says.*
- R1 : (ils rient à nouveau) -(Traducteur directement)- Ho this question its ... maybe just make it short.
- Q : *Ask him if its about luck, spirits or something like that to work without problems with wildlife?*
- R1 : -(Le traducteur un brin moqueur)- Huhu we dont have... no we don't have spirits.
- Q : *So it's all about knowing the bush ?*
- R1 : Yes, yes (ils rient à gorge déployée de ma question sur les esprits). -(Traducteur directement, toujours rigolard)- Those questions are very difficult Bruno.
- Q : *Ok ok lets say bye-bye to this question...*
- R1 : -(Traducteur directement)- No it's okay, very good.
- Q : *Ok lets get back to work. Do you see the rangers as a group, working for the same goal, like work comrades ?*
- R1 : It's only the one working in my district, i dont know a lot about the other ones.
- Q : *Even after all those years ?*
- R1 : Yeah but we don't go a lot for group sessions.
- traducteur oh those questions they are very good
- and if you were not a ranger, what could you do instead?
- if i was not a ranger i could be in the TA or any job that i want i can just go in.
- so you could be a counsellor of your village
- yes like that
- but maybe its because people already knows you, you have been a ranger for more than 10 years, so you can be elected as TA
- exactly, also if people of the village doesnt want a guy to become a TA, they can use another one to put in the position. Its true its because im a ranger i can become a TA, because im already working for the conservancy.
- so what kind of advantages you find working with the conservancy
- like what?
- first it an easy way to get employed for Ju/ho'an, if you look in Tsumkwe most of the businesses and the jobs are kept by other tribes
- no i don't think so

and about meat, lifts and those nature advantages?
 this i always do, im bringing meat in the village when im in tsumkwe if the conservancy got some, people will take me sometimes for distribution
 so while you are not patrolling with other rangers, do you spend a lot of time helping your village, like securing the area, driving people or bringing food?
 when he is in the village im also helping myself, like in the morning i will say i will go that side, carry the events book, reporting what i see in the bush, collecting bush food for the village.
 and if sometime people comes to you and tell you "i saw a snake here, or a lion there", do you go and check everytime
 yes yes traducteur, i can say yes but let me translate,
 yeah please ask him dont answer yourself
 yes it happens like this, whatever if the lion come in the village and kill cattle, people will run to him, so he can go to tsumkwe and report it, or if the elephants, because we do crops fields, if elephants is damaging the food i mean the crop field, people of the village will run to the community ranger so he can take the messae, he also note it
 would you say people see you as the warden of the village
 yes i can say that
 and when you get payed, are you sharing the salary with the village, or just the family ?
 (le traducteur lui demande de ce que je comprends quand ia tes 800, est ce que tu fais 200, 100, 100, 100, 50, 20 pour les gens)
 il répond amusé non
 nous rions de concert
 if you ask like that obviously, he will say no i but most of the people in the village are not employed, so its only with the conservancy's money in december and the craft money, so is there a lot of people who comes to you when he get payed to ask you money
 traducteur rit
 yes but the money from the ranger is not enough, what i always do is buy the food
 and share the food, or like sugar and tea.
 au traducteur, so in a way he is sharing the salary, its just the way you asked first, its not always "kxoara" (rien), not like me, how are you spending the rest of your money, beside this?
 i can try to buy sugar, and porridge...
 no but besides food, the others things you use it for?
 yes like drinks and smoke
 yeah i guess so, because i saw you in Makanga (shebeen de Tsumkwe)
 traducteur rit et dit yeah, and they drinks, alcoholic drinks, im still coming that point
 I buy food, smoke, drinks in Tsumkwe, then pay some of my credits in the bars or shops then i can take the rest back to the village when i'm done.
 yeah i saw you in Tsumkwe after pay day. Even me...
 tout le monde rit
 now its more about the work in process
 how many patrol in a month like village patrols
 he can... because two differents ways one is road patrol which is doing 2 times a week, and the event bookshe can do it twice
 a week or a month
 a week or sometimes the whole month
 and the reports is once in a month?
 yes yes
 and are they doing training or workshops or
 traducteur this i can say yes
 i know it also but i want to hear from him could you ask
 parle 30sec
 yeah each month training

do you think its useful or a waste of time

its learning and i like it, i want to know more about, i want to really understand what im reading in the event book and so on

so in the ranger job, what would you say is the most important part ?

for me, the most important is the event book data, counting and reporting, problems animals

and the less important is like... cutting road ? (ce que nous avions a faire sur 10 kilomètres dans les jours à venir)

le traducteur rit et dit me, i also dont want that one

« Q : Which part do you really like to do?

R1 : I would like more trainings, and more work about the Event Book.

Q : Why ?

R1 : Because training is good, I like to learn more, to know what I do, and why I'm doing it. »

and less like this cutting road?

yeah

yes because you dont need any skills to do that, you can pick anybody and give him the tonga

yes exactly

ok ok what would you say about the role of the senior game guard, like is he a good team leader or... dont worry i wont tell him

its not good

why

its not good because he is always not listening to the rangers, he refuses everything the rangers ask him to do it for them, like if he goes to a training he will bring some but not all, he drops some and leave some, like me. last time at the agriculture farm, he dropped me in tsumikwe, he dont care

and not about the drops, inside the work relationship?

traducteur he doesnt listen to people, its what he said

what about the management committee

its the same, they dont listen to people, i can say it

what would you want, to tell them what or get what?

what i want to tell them, i want to speak next month to the meeting, to management so they can hear what i have to say, to listen to us

about what

to listen to us, the management dont care about the rangers, they dont mind if the rangers tell sometimes conservancy, if you see, the management dont worry dont care about what rangers tell them

they will just act like they listened?

yeah yeah, even if a ranger come and says "i have a problem in my village, will you guys help me?" no one will answer him

and what kind of relation with MET rangers?

management must listen to the rangers, if rangers tell, explain something to the office, office must listen about it.

« Q : No but the question was about MET rangers, government rangers ?

R1 : I really dont know about it

Q : You never work with them ?

R1 : Rangers never works with MET, it's only once last MET joined rangers for a counting

Q : So when there is a problem animal near to the village, they won't take the ranger?

R1 : No, only Andrias.

Q : So it's only Andrias whose working with MET rangers ?

R1 : And if government rangers want Nyae Nyae rangers, Andrias must look for it first. But mostly he doesn't, he makes it himself.

and how do you feel about that

i dont have idea for that

ok so do you think there is enough rangers for the conservancy

no

ok, no, obviously no, because there is 1 for 100 members, and 1 for 850km2

« Q : And about the work, how is it planned ? Do you feel it as free enough, in the way you spend your work time ?

R2 : I dont know.

Q : What do you mean ? Like if you are in the village, you can say today I'm not patrolling, because I dont feel like it ?

R2 : When im in the village, it's okay. I can do whatever I want, the problem is sometimes some village im supposed to go and people are not there, I can only go there by myself, then I have to go back. If people report me like some people are maybe poaching that side, I will go that side, asking questions about that problem and take it to the Conservancy, to the senior ranger.

Q : What if they don't listen ?

R2 : I'm a free man, I do what I want. If they don't care, they don't care. Me I can go back to my village, I tell them what I did, and I can don't work at all. Still getting money if people don't report me, and if I do my part for nothing after, what for.... »

f.

about poaching, what conservancy rules do you allow yourself to break? like you are telling yourself, "its okay i can do that or do that", like even for that porkepic (expliquer)

read it again traducteur

what rules do you allow yourself to break, conservancy rules?

the rules the conservancy makes is to look who is poaching, which kind of weapons you can go hunting with, no guns...

coupant but yourself, if you find a kudu just killed, will he take a piece ? like that porc epic we shoot, we took it but its poaching, are you doing that when you are working alone, if you find a dead animal

i can only note it, not take it

maybe you are not supposed to, but sometimes you still do?

i must first look for what killed, either lion, jackals, or hyenas, i will take the meat to the village or leave it for the hyenas to eat. because its their meat

so you are saying you are never breaking the rules

yes

but we broke the rules together yesterday

yeah but that one just came in

coupant so if you shoot something with the care, mostly you will take it? even if you are not allowed

yeah but we just saw it quickly, its not hunting, its an accident. thats why we told you dont show wendy and everything, because we are not allowed to do it (expliquer)

thats why i'm asking if he is breaking the rules sometimes. yes sure dont worry. Last question, what kind of critics would you make to the ranger system?

make it easy

what is bad in the ranger system?

silence

in anyway like management organisation or anything?

i dont know

but he said no one is listening

communication is not good, between senior is not good, between management is not good, people dont listen to the ranger

traducteur for me i think its true because the communication is not so good, senior want himself to decide for everything.

he is not listening to the troops

he is not listening to the troops, even me im devils claws coordinator but he wont listen to me, if i want to say something, i refuse. but i try so he have to listen to me, to do what i want : helping our community, helping our rangers, this is what i want ; its the same with the management. i hope this year some of the management will go out, bring new

who?

i mean all of them

all of them out, like jeffrey, francina...?

jeffrey, what what, francina is already gone, but we want new people to come
like me?

en riant, like you yes Bruno.

Annexe 10 : Exemple de déroulement d'une mission terrain

Donc 4 fargers + Nlaigi et moi, on va en récupérer 2 dans les villages des Nord Est.

Après environ 2,3h, voyons pas part, fait ça voyons très lentement, pas d'activités malgré le fait que tout est sensé être préparé bien. Apparemment le service a fermé la main la semaine dernière pour faire le plein de provisions, ce qu'ils vont aller faire Samedi, mais hier matin il a pas arrêté d'argumenter avec Mawada à propos de la quantité de travail demandé, malgré qu'il se soit plaint qu'ils ne pouvaient pas aller à cause de la pluie.

Comme d'habitude les femmes parlent entre elles, et les hommes entre eux, ils sont d'ailleurs silencieux depuis que je ne suis assis et mit à écrire. Ici "mana" de Nlaigi est très robuste malgré son porté assés

14/05 → Départ pour plusieurs jours de récupération des les gares partit - 8 h 30 commencent à charger et à organiser, Farbes, nappes (parche, peles, rizi, thé, sucre...), hache et pelles etc

10h30 → après avoir organisé Nlaigi pour identifier moyennant 100 \$, 15 par parti et on attend à la hôte de Nlaigi avec Achéat et l'autre farger. Les femmes ont fait les chèvres et se sont écartés un peu, et les 3 discutent tranquillement en attendant je ne sais quoi. On voyage avec la Jeep qu'utilise Achéat, je suis à l'arrière et je ne com suis par vraiment le programme pour 11, subit vers le Nord-est, Iguala pour palmarilla avec le farger de cette zone, avec le farger de Da pas → farger Kroavakagde

important au sein de la conservation
mais il a une tenue probablement respectée
ou offerte par CRATH pas de robelet,
pas de panneau solaire. Andrew envoie plein
de textes. Niang est parti depuis 5710 minutes
3 rep par la 1^{ère} par internet les
habitants que l'autre village a leur
une giraffe (protégé de l'endroit) en
utilisant les chevaux (assemblée à brucorage)
dans le cadre d'une chasse traditionnelle
autorisée par la réserve. Du coup Andrew
note dans l'évent book et les prend
de l'interaction. ^{12h30}
Village (Hunting Living Museum)
où ils ont tué la giraffe est
ce qu'il était au carrefour que c'était
illégal? C'est une vieille tradition, la
chef dit qu'il faut respecter de giraffe 3

Compu'il était sure, mais ils savent
que c'est illégal. Depuis l'année dernière
il leur vient qu'ils le boient pas chasser
les animaux, et encore moins chasser autre
ment qu'une aie et frites après avoir
salé de la réserve, mais ils continuent
néanmoins, et il n'y a pas de système
de sanctions. Kolaba (Village) Ranger: Niang
^{20 heures}
Arrivé à Focakrai, Ranger: ^{Korsta} 12h30
par suite le dernier ranger qui auparavant
n'est pas la (différence de moyens de com-
munications, pas de réseau entre villages)
problème recurrent de l'origine de la réserve, Anbo
- as un refus de la speech à propos des
espèces.
N.B: Andrew boit est plutôt pas mal
comparé aux autres, il a un portable, des
standards habituels, une hutte grande et 4

bien construite, p. i cause rapport à son âge. Il délire des produits dans le village et fait le marché est encore marqué qd on arrive (pas trop de visiteurs dans ce village très profond + un homme blanc et des étrangers, ex. albina ("albino"). Une jeune fille nous propose le thé pdt que les étrangers simplifient l'évent book (soin en fin de journée tout ce qu'ils ont vu). Les étrangers ne sont clairement jamais en mode speed, sauf lorsqu'ils conduisent mais sinon ils prend toujours son temps, lors des arrêtés. Le chef de village a l'air très intéressé par le simplissage de l'évent mode d'Arrivée et c'est le seul qui lui répond par rapport à ses explications sur les choses trad. Quelqu'un est parti pour chercher le Fongor. Arrivé en groupe à 5.

haut d'1 autre suffisamment grand, ou à certains endroits du le bud on peut attraper du réseau. → 16h
→ 15h30 p. index note sur agenda + des un autre livre que je vais chercher. Se rappeler qu'une fois il est venu chercher des nouvelles parcais pour les envoyer à un spectacle de tradit° (danse) et qu'il s'est fait rebuffé par sa (voix de partage avec le conservant?). D'ailleurs ce mec s'était plaint contre tradit° par -venue ("je viens voir ce qu'il sont pas ce show grotesque où ils se réhabitent après avoir dans" → 22/04, entretien informel)
Arrivé du Fongor, les gens reviennent autour, ils étaient parti p. arriver à cheval des les alentours, ils redent et ils écoutent. 6

Veillage jusqu'au camp de base, après du genre water point. Beaucoup de traces i bases d'éléphants dans le secteur. Raie les arbres / branches gerantés sur niveau de la route, et accroche un arbre à l'arrière pour débayer la piste. Au camp un porc-épic se fait tuer et les rangiers le ramassent pour le manger ce qui est assimilable à du braconnage et constitue une activité illégale (ils ne disent rien d'autres "comme ces photos à penser").

Après installation du camp, 2 + N'angé sont dehors, 1 certaine hiérarchie est visible, du notamment à l'ancienne du senior, qui ne cuisine pas et est le seul assis sur une chaise. Demain il y a du nettoyage la zone pour faciliter le 7.

Travail de la water point Team et aussi préparer les décampes du mois de septembre - voir en préparant les genes de observations protégées. En à l'arrière, on s'égare le porc-épic et ils découvrent, notamment N'angé et Andrew (le + jeune ranger est celui qui parle le Θ). Ils vont volontiers parler des difficultés du management, du vieux respect la guerre et les axes s'entre-tuent dans les environs, et échanger les éléphants qui évoluent autour de notre camp, parfois très proches.

15/05 -> Réveil à 6h avec le lever du soleil, les rangiers se préparent, checkent les traces de la nuit et préparent du thé. Un premier éléphant vient à l'arrière au water point, nous nous approchons silencieusement.

ment par l'histoire.

Sesión de nettoyage du water park
commence et un gros éléphant mûre
revient peuhier, il s'approche d'abord
- reversent et ne veut pas reculer, on
se replie car. en s'arrêtant à l'intérieur
de la protection, et le chase avec
des tances prieres et des cris, malgré
le fait qu'il ne semble pas décidé
à bouger. Il finit par reculer et
le travail reprend vers 7h20.

Tout en fumant, les rangers rebloquent
le pont d'eau de VS les excrementes
accumulés, il est d'ailleurs à sec,
à la fin ardiéas peuhier après
être resté assis à fumer. Il y a beaucoup
de royaux et marula dans les arbres d'élé
- ps hamba, meure et leur amener par le fruit

Malgré son âge, Andreas reste un force
considérable, tous ces gens sont vus
- mont restaurants, levé à 6h malgré
couché après 08h, tous sont ce même
qu'il fument de du papier journal, pas
de petit dej bonnia du thé.

Nettoyage environ 2 fois par an
il y a un kugan amexe pan usen
un autre pont il'eau secondaire pour
les plus petits animaux (chacals, spring
- hobs etc)

Dés que le pt a été rétamé, 2
éléphants sont arrivés et ont bien désté
à rester (surtout un très vieux mâle
qu'il ne veut rien faire trop provoqué)
pendant ce temps les rangers nettoient
l'intérieur de la protection, puis
facilitent le tall de la WPTeam et
mesurer l'endroit pour les bennes de

cents de Septembre (2 rangées par
 WP, pour 2 jours de courts - 17
 WP en tout ds WNC)
 Apparemment, certains trophées humains, reves
 - dent l'ivore des trophées chèvres (18
 000000) à travers les réseaux Sud-A
 - Asie de l'Est. Après avoir protégé
 l'intérieur de la protection, la muler
 l'herbe qui restait. Il faut s'y
 être extrêmement prudent lorsqu'on
 travaille à proximité des éléphants
 Les éléphants convergent vers la zone
 maintenant, 3 brnelles arrivent à
 groupe + les 3 mulers
 → Arrivée de la WP Team à 4h
 avec Kambaxao.

La WP Team est repalivus Tsombane,
 pour acheter notamment du Kabac et de
 l'herbe pour l'équipe. Après avoir
 fini le nettoyage, pense que avons
 d'attaquer la route. 2.10h
 Cutting road → route praticable en piste
 entre 2 waterpoint par facton la
 déplacements de la conservation. Hacha
 + Tanga + machete, on nettoie
 la piste des arbres mals et vivants
 en travers.
 Kribas supervise et participe de
 en + bien qu'il fut reste de son
 voiture par le début. Ils vont
 Thabth un gros arbre finement
 coupé pour nettoyer la piste.
 13h Après 4h à découper les buissons et
 les arbres, selon au camp par la route

pause déjeuner. Andreas s'arrête et laisse les rangers s'activer pour cuisiner et faire le thé, le jus etc.

Mais qu'on était sans travailler sans réelle pause, on déjeune et certains font la sieste, notamment Andreas et Naigisi, ce qui ne semble nullement étranger les autres, ce qui ne m'étonne pas du tout.

→ 15h Arrivée de la WFP team, fait le moral & rassurable et discute, par la suite le repas du jour. À propos, Andreas avait demandé que je m'occupe aux besoins de Naigisi et moi-même mais à part ça ce qui est cuisiné, logiquement vu les ph par cuisiner différents repas. La WFP team repart 15h à 15h

NDJEP En marche à travers le bush; chercher du bois pour le feu

qui d'un côté garde allumer, spécialement au milieu des éléphants. Pourtant la nouvelle classification concernant l'écologie bien qu'il faut à présent une certification pour collection de bois, ce que personne ne prend au sérieux et faire changer d'appliquer réellement, malgré l'intérêt législatif à l'époque.

→ Découvrez et en appât à proximité - le de par près du campement, probablement une course de gazelle par le trophy hunting, mais de ce d'il y a plusieurs mois par course - que par d'apprenti techno (comme capteur etc) par repérer l'animal, j'ai deux notes à propos de l'apparence physique de l'animal, bien que pas d'images - me ils portent les n° de chasse de leur et des tenues adaptées → pontalon descendant

bien bas, manches longues - chaus-
sures maladroites. Physiquement, ils sont
très fins et maigres, explicable par leur
mode de vie et comparable à une bonne
partie des hommes Sen, exceptés ceux
avec des parts incertaines avantsagées (Kusha, Seffeg, Léon...), et certains
- dont aux efforts qu'ils peuvent déployer pour
leurs missions (longues marches du bush,
immobilité lors des combats féroces, débarras
et autres activités de la vie en camp),
ils ont néanmoins l'air plutôt fatigué et
on a peu repris le travail, spécialement
les anciens. Les étrangers demandent
la belle étoile avec Ni'aizi, Gardia
ou Ambiéas et Ksarra devant leur tente
de NNC (mes bonne qualité prix à l'Occident)

15/6 → Revél avait 6h, prend le thé.
En la nuit précédente → Full moon game
coul se fait en septembre, lorsque la
lune est la plus grosse - 2 personnes
par point d'eau, y compris les par-
dons besoin de volatiles car pas assez
de rangers par tout couvrir, à 25 pt
d'eau. Suite de la nomenclature, la
feuille de comptage et en style, pendant
6h. Pour différencier les cirimaux et pas
les compter plusieurs fois (est seulement à l'accélé-
rante et constante, rapatrier les petits détails etc
mais apparemment ils prétendent faire peu d'écarts
en se basant uniquement sur critères physiques
(Taille, sexe, marques, comportements, groupes)
→ Après 2 jours, Ambiéas est malade et
se contente de diriger en sous-voiture
couper. La hiérarchie semble assez

Bien respecté, il ne ~~est~~ jamais content de ce que je comprends (au sein des rangs) et partage peu aux activités secondaires (cuisine, bois, cuisine, pare le thé etc) LD L'E a son position quel a son âge / santé? Normalement il fait preuve d'une - toute son ses hommes. Dans le bush qd on travaille, tout est bon à recoller pour l'énergie. Avoir récolté des fruits de baobab ou de manba pour en faire du jus (de - cieux baobab, alcoolisé maruluf qd se à partager pour le travail. Les Sans ad aptes de l'énergie rapide, boivent le porridge, d'où la grande quantité de sucre consommé, notamment le thé (2-4-5 ca scope / tasse) Après 3h de travail sans rien dans le ventre, il est temps de faire

une pause thé pour l'énergie. Andreas fait toujours le strict minimum tout en faisant beaucoup de choses. NB: le ministère de l'environnement et du tourisme, n'est pas très bien équilibré entre les 2 → un environnement bien géré et une profusion de fauna sauvage couplé à de tourisme de luxe (organisé au noir) de découverte des paysages / faunes de Namibie, d'où Gestion conjuguée. → En cas de problèmes sérieux, les rangers les signalent au MET qui transmet à WWF. WWF essaye de voir si un trophy hunter est intéressé - pratiquement un prix discount (ne rentre pas de les quarts, donc extra money pour la conservation). Si possible, envoi les

Fargers du WET pour leur (animal, surtout les buffles qu'ils vont endormir et mettre au ~~camp~~ camp. En cas d'élophanta / rhino les cornes seront prélevés et envoyés au gyt pour être introduit ds le commerce légal d'ivoire. Tandis que la viande sera distribuée aux villages sans uniquement (d'où les plantes et autres tubers). \pm réparti égale. Ça peut former commercialisable (lion, leopard...) pr le gyt \rightarrow Parc l'argent va tjr aux gyt qui peut ensuite renvoyer le mix disant du trophy hunting, mais qui va garder les ressources très rentables. Niaké ne sait pas si certaines personnes débarrassent des ressources, ignore des hauts places

Malgré toute la rhétorique de management, les nombreux meetings / réunions / tables ronds en sont remplis, sur le terrain les choses sont en réalité assez peu planifié, en objectif est donc mais les planifications sont relative-ment inexistantes; les cordes d'indicateurs délimitent les missions (en blanc, le bush est bien sûr beaucoup plus facile de nettoyer les outreponts et de brûler les herbes et les protecteurs, aussi que de couper les buissons. Pas vraiment d'hommes, si ce n'est de commander tout pour éviter les châtiments, ça s'arrête en regardant aux manoirs les + chaudières (14h) \rightarrow d'13h 30 avant du travail, on continue jusqu'au bout de la route ou la nuit tombe / fini de construire le point de vue de la zone, on les croise sur le chemin

→ Matériel qu'on est assis, d'ailleurs
ne fait pas de ses greffes, ils sont
trop peu pour effectuer le travail
demandé, on a hébergé 2.4 km
son 10 en une semaine, à
son lui, l'administration ne se rend
pas compte de l'âge et des moyens
humains nécessaires, ils faudrait soit
plus de rangers, soit pouvoir les
recruter tous ce qui serait très
compliqué (ce - 3 jours pour
prendre tout le monde vu l'éloignement
- veut des villages / mais selon
lui l'administration s'en fait. D'un
autre côté, Masuweda en baby
ne dit pas savoir qu'ils veulent pas
travailler mais c'est vrai que le
travail demandé ne correspond pas au
moyens alloués.

On report vers notre camp, et en
chemin on s'arrête pour récolter quelques
cotonniers bien droits et robustes pour la confection
- J'ai des huttes, à 14h30
15h30 retour au camp, a fait le plein
d'eau et je me prépare pour les
entrevues

Nuit: le + jeune des rangers parle
très peu lorsqu'ils sont tous ensemble.
Andreas est le seul à avoir une fausse denture,
genre de goblet hermétique.

M105 → ils traversent la mosse de fait de
bushes juste quand je me réveille.



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

PROMOTION OF COMMUNITY BASED TOURISM



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF ENVIRONMENT AND TOURISM

Tel: 249 015
Fax: 243 39

Private Bag 13306
Windhoek

Ref N22/B
Enquiries: C. Ashley

June 1, 1995

CIRCULAR NO. 20 OF 1995

To: All Heads of Directorates, Divisions, Sections and Outstations

POLICY DOCUMENT: COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

This document contains the approved Ministry policy for providing support to, and encouraging the development of, community-run tourism activities and enterprises on communal land.

A growing number of tourism activities and enterprises are being developed by local communities on communal land, in addition to existing and planned private sector developments.

This policy document provides a framework for ensuring that local communities have access to opportunities in tourism development and are able to share in the benefits of tourism activities that take place on their land.

Support for the involvement of rural communities in tourism enterprises is important:

- a) to implement the government policy of giving communities access to development opportunities and
- b) because where tourism is linked to wildlife and wild landscapes, the benefits to local communities can provide important incentives for conservation of these resources.

Approval of the policy was recommended by the Ministry Planning Committee and it was approved by the Permanent Secretary and by the Minister.

The previous circular dealt with the Policy Document: Namibia's Policy on Wildlife Management, Utilisation and Tourism in Communal Areas.


 UJIVELLAP
 PERMANENT SECRETARY

POLICY DOCUMENT
Number 9
June 1995

MINISTRY OF ENVIRONMENT AND TOURISM
PRIVATE BAG 13306
WINDHOEK, NAMIBIA



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF ENVIRONMENT AND TOURISM

POLICY ON COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

1. PREAMBLE

- 1.1. The Ministry recognises that tourism is one of Namibia's fastest growing industries, and therefore can be a key means to promote social and economic development in communal areas.
- 1.2. The Ministry recognises that due to historical inequities in the tourism industry, residents of communal areas have rarely been involved in the planning of tourism activities on communal land. They have also suffered the costs of wildlife and intrusion by tourists, but received little benefit.
- 1.3. The Ministry recognises that revenue from tourism which is related to wildlife and scenic landscapes can be an important conservation incentive to rural communities.
- 1.4. The Ministry notes that Article 23 of the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia commits the Government to addressing past inequalities.
- 1.5. The Ministry notes that Article 95 (1) commits the Government to sustainable utilisation of Namibia's natural resources for the benefit of all Namibians, and that tourism is one of the key forms of sustainable utilisation.
- 1.6. The Ministry notes that the principle of increased involvement of local individuals and communities in sustainable utilisation of natural resources is enshrined and supported in existing Ministry policies. In particular, it is noted that:
 - the Government White Paper on Tourism (1994) states that "high priority [is] afforded to the involvement of local individuals and communities in the tourism process and in benefits-sharing" and "it is not only the generation of economic benefits which is important, but also the dispersion of those benefits to a wider group in society."
 - the MET policy on Wildlife Management, Utilisation, and Tourism in Communal Areas is designed to provide a legal basis for communities to participate in the management of, and benefits from, natural resources through the establishment of "conservancies". One of the objectives of this is "to allow rural communities on state

land to undertake tourism ventures, and to enter into co-operative agreements with commercial tourism operators to develop tourism activities on state land."

- Forestry policy embraces the principle of involvement of local people in sustainable utilisation of resources, and aims to "support and encourage participation of rural communities in all forestry conservation activities."

The Ministry notes that in order to achieve these policy objectives, complementary and more specific policy for the promotion of community based tourism is needed.

- 1.7. The Ministry recognises that in order to realise the high potential for tourism to bring social, economic and conservation benefits to communal areas, the constraints to community involvement need to be addressed, and new opportunities promoted.

2. POLICY

In view of the above, it is the policy of this Ministry to

- a) actively open up opportunities for rural communities, local people and the informal sector to increase their involvement in the tourism industry, particularly in tourism planning and the running of enterprises.
 - b) ensure that rural communities, local people and the informal sector have greater access to the benefits from tourism on their land, by creating appropriate legal mechanisms and establishing appropriate incentives.
 - c) ensure that development of tourism on communal land takes place in areas and in forms acceptable to local people.
 - d) encourage the formal tourism sector to co-operate and work with the informal sector, and to recognise that as well as being in the long-term self interest of the tourism industry, this is a social responsibility and contribution to Namibia's national development objectives of improved equity, poverty alleviation, and sustainable growth.
 - e) ensure that tourism development within Namibia is environmentally sustainable.
3. GUIDING PRINCIPLES
- 3.1. The needs and aspirations of rural communities, local people and the informal sector, must be pro-actively incorporated into Tourism legislation and regulations.
 - 3.2. Tourism regulations and legislation must avoid prescribing forms of involvement in tourism by rural communities, local people and the informal sector, and rather create a supportive and enabling legal framework.

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- 3.2. Tourism regulations and legislation must avoid prescribing forms of involvement in tourism by rural communities, local people and the informal sector, and rather create a supportive and enabling legal framework.

- 3.3. The MET and tourism industry should work actively to increase the representation of the informal tourism sector and community interests in existing and future tourism fora.

- 3.4. Private sector tourism enterprises on communal land should involve and benefit local residents, and provide incentives for conservation to those that bear the costs of wildlife and tourism, to the maximum extent possible within financial and institutional constraints.

4. PROGRAMME TO PROMOTE COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

In order to implement the above policy, the Ministry will integrate these principles into its work in ways which include, but are not restricted to, the following:

4.1. Increase representation in tourism fora

The Ministry will ensure that rural communities, local people and the informal sector are represented on Government or para-statal organisations, committees and working groups which are involved in tourism development planning and drafting of regulations and legislation. (E.g. the Namibian Tourism Board, any permanent or ad hoc committees and workshops organised by MET to address tourism issues etc.) Statutory bodies (such as the NTB) must include representation from the informal sector in its membership. The Ministry will encourage all voluntary tourism associations to ensure a broad and representative membership.

MET will actively support those regions that have not so far established Regional Tourism Associations to do so, and will encourage broad representation of the community on such bodies. MET will assist them with tourism planning, and provide information, advice, contacts etc needed for implementation. MET will promote the greatest possible participation by local communities in the planning and establishment of the tourism control and development zones provided for by the Tourism White paper.

4.2. Prioritise community interests in planning

The views of local residents must be reflected in the planning process. Mechanisms for achieving this should be explored and established as the planning process develops.

Special attention and priority should be given to developments that are initiated by local residents or which maximise their participation and the spread of benefits.

Approval of PTO and concession applications is part of the planning process. All PTO/concession applications for a tourism enterprise must include details of an agreement between the applicant and local community, before it can be approved by MET. The local community is to be defined according to specific circumstances, but in each case is primarily the residents in, or closest to, the tourism development/area, who utilise land and other resources in the area, and wherever possible will be represented through an existing institution such as Development Committee(s), Farmers Association(s), Council, or, once established, a wildlife

4.4. *Promote maximum benefit to communities from private sector tourism enterprises on communal land*

MET will not specify how a specific venture should increase local benefits and participation, but will give incentives for and preference to partnership and/or revenue-sharing ventures.

- e. g.
- use criteria for judging PTO allocations and tourism concessions, as outlined above;
 - tax laws and financial regulations should be designed so that, at least, they do not discourage revenue-sharing, and wherever possible provide an incentive for it.
 - the MET Community-based Tourism Officer will act as a facilitator of partnerships wherever possible.
 - specifically promote such ventures in marketing for ethical tourists.

4.5. *Enhance rights over tourism resources*

In order to redress past inequalities, the MET needs to enhance the rights enjoyed by communities over tourism resources. At present they have little control over what happens to or on their land.

- **Conservancies:** MET sees conservancies as a key tool by which communal residents gain rights over environmental resources, particularly wildlife, and hence over tourism assets. Once the conservancy legislation is passed, MET will support communities to establish wildlife conservancies and to establish tourism ventures as appropriate. MET will give recognised conservancies (with a legal Trust fund or other mechanism for administering and sharing revenues) the concessionary rights for lodge development (which they can utilise themselves or lease to others) within the conservancy boundaries, according to the same principles by which all tourism applications will be considered, as listed above: i.e. local involvement, environmental impact, conformity with regional and national strategy etc.

4.6. *Invest in communal areas*

Tourism in communal areas needs to be carefully promoted and planned. However, there is less (public and private) money in communal areas for investing in the natural resource base, tourism infrastructure and planning, marketing and promotion, training etc.

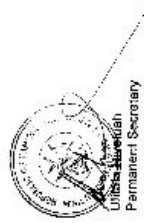
Therefore it is important that a substantial share of funds for investment in Namibian tourism are spent in communal areas, particularly any levies or fees raised nationally for tourism-related activities, such as resource conservation, training, or marketing, i.e. that, at a minimum, income raised in these less developed areas is ploughed back. Where appropriate, this should be done by channelling payments directly to a local fund.

4.7. *Ongoing promotion of community-based tourism development*

The MET will:

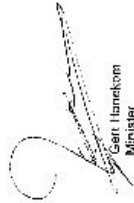
- employ a Community Tourism Officer to help facilitate the above, to facilitate communication within the informal sector, and among the informal sector, government, investors, tourism companies etc., and ensure that community-based tourism is given appropriate recognition in further national tourism policy development.
- continue liaising with the informal sector and their representatives, and ensure their views are taken into account as policy and legislation further evolves.

Approved by



Ullrich Linderholm
Permanent Secretary

8/05/19 Date



Carl Hennekorn
Minister

Date 6.05.19

Act No. 5, 1996 NATURE CONSERVATION AMENDMENT ACT, 1996

ACT

To amend the Nature Conservation Ordinance, 1975, so as to provide for an economically based system of sustainable management and utilisation of game in communal areas; to delete references to representative authorities; and to provide for matters incidental thereto.

(Signed by the President on 4 June 1996)

BE IT ENACTED by the Parliament of the Republic of Namibia, as follows:-

Amendment of section 1 of Ordinance 4 of 1975, as amended by section 1 of Ordinance 4 of 1977, section 1 of Act 27 of 1986 and section 1 of Act 6 of 1988

1. Section 1 of the Nature Conservation Ordinance, 1975 (hereinafter referred to as the Ordinance), is hereby amended by:-

(a) the substitution for the definition of "communal land" of the following definition:

"communal land means any geographical area of land habitually inhabited by traditional communities";

(b) by the insertion after the definition of "communal land" of the following definitions:

"conservancy" means any area declared a conservancy in terms of section 24A(2)(a);

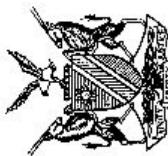
"conservancy committee" means a conservancy committee recognized as such by the Minister under section 24A(2)(c);

"consumptive use" means the utilisation of individual game by its permanent, removal, or removal of its parts, from or within an area";

(c) by the deletion of the definition of "Executive Committee";

(d) by the substitution for the definition of "local authority" of the following definition:

"local authority" means the council of any area declared to be a municipality, town or village under section 3 of the Local Authorities Act, 1992 (Act 23 of 1992);



GOVERNMENT GAZETTE

OF THE

REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

NSI, 20

WINDHOEK - 17 June 1996

No. 1333

CONTENTS

Page

GOVERNMENT NOTICE

No. 151 Promulgation of Nature Conservation Amendment Act, 1996 (Act 5 of 1996), of the Parliament

Government Notice

OFFICE OF THE PRIME MINISTER

No. 151

1996

PROMULGATION OF ACT OF PARLIAMENT

The following Act which has been passed by the Parliament and signed by the President in terms of the Namibian Constitution is hereby published in terms of Article 36 of that Constitution.

No. 5 of 1996: Nature Conservation Amendment Act, 1996.

- (e) by the insertion after the definition of "local authority" of the following definition:
- " ' Minister' means the Minister of Environment and Tourism; "
- (f) by the insertion after the definition of "nature conservator" of the following definition:
- "non-consumptive use" means use not entailing the permanent removal of individual game, but use for recreational, educational, research, cultural or aesthetic purposes; "
- (g) by the substitution for paragraph (d) of the definition of "owner" of the following paragraph:
- "(d) where such land is owned by the State, the Government of Nauru; "
- (h) by the deletion of paragraph (dA) of the definition of "owner";
- (i) by the deletion of the definition of "population group";
- (j) by the deletion of the definition of "representative authority";
- (k) by the substitution for the definition of "security forces" of the following definition:
- " security forces means the Nauruian Police or the Nauruian Defence Force; "
- (l) by the deletion of the definition of "territory"; and
- (m) by the addition of the following definition:
- " wildlife council means a wildlife council established under section 243(1); "

Substitution of heading to Chapter 11 of Ordinance 4 of 1975

2. The following heading is hereby substituted for the heading to Chapter 11 of the Ordinance:

"Game Parks, Nature Reserves, Conservancies and Wildlife Councils"

Insertion of sections 24A and 24B in Ordinance 4 of 1975

3. The following sections are hereby inserted in the Ordinance after section 24:

"Conservancies

24A. (1) Any group of persons residing on communal land and which desires to have the area which they inhabit, or any part thereof, to be declared a conservancy, shall apply therefor to the Minister in the prescribed manner, and such application shall be accompanied by -

- (a) a list of the names of the persons who are members of a committee established for the purpose of being recognised by the Minister under subsection (2) as the conservancy committee for the conservancy applied for;
- (b) the constitution of such committee;
- (c) a statement setting out the boundaries of the geographic area in respect of which the application is made; and
- (d) such other documents or information as the Minister may require.

(2) If the Minister is satisfied in respect of an application made in terms of subsection (1), that -

- (a) the relevant committee is representative of the community residing in the area in which the application relates;
- (b) the constitution of such committee provides for the sustainable management and utilization of game in such area;
- (c) such committee has the ability to manage funds and has an appropriate method for the equitable distribution, to members of the community, of benefits derived from the consumptive and non-consumptive use of game in such area;

(i) the geographic area to which the application relates has been sufficiently identified, taking into account also the views of the Regional Council of that area;

(e) the area concerned is not subject to any lease or is not a proclaimed game park or nature reserve; and

(f) any other prescribed requirements have been complied with.

<p>the Minister shall -</p>	<p>(i) in writing to the committee in question and on such conditions as he or she may determine in addition to any prescribed condition or restriction, recognize that committee as the conservancy committee for the conservancy concerned; and</p> <p>(ii) by notice in the Gazette declare the area in which the application relates as a conservancy, and such notice shall set out the geographic boundaries of the area in respect of which the conservancy is being declared.</p>
<p>(1) (a) The Minister may, subject to paragraphs (b) and (c), at any time -</p>	<p>(a) The Minister may, subject to paragraphs (b) and (c), at any time -</p>
<p>(i) withdraw his or her recognition of a conservancy committee given under subsection (2)(i);</p>	<p>(i) withdraw his or her recognition of a conservancy committee given under subsection (2)(i);</p>
<p>(ii) amend or withdraw any condition imposed under subsection (2)(i); or</p>	<p>(ii) amend or withdraw any condition imposed under subsection (2)(i); or</p>
<p>(iii) amend or withdraw any notice made under subsection (2)(ii).</p>	<p>(iii) amend or withdraw any notice made under subsection (2)(ii).</p>
<p>(b) Before the Minister under paragraph (a) withdraws the recognition of a conservancy committee or amends or withdraws any condition or notice, he or she shall in writing -</p>	<p>(b) Before the Minister under paragraph (a) withdraws the recognition of a conservancy committee or amends or withdraws any condition or notice, he or she shall in writing -</p>
<p>(i) inform the conservancy committee of his or her intention to do so;</p>	<p>(i) inform the conservancy committee of his or her intention to do so;</p>
<p>(ii) furnish the conservancy committee with the reasons for the intended withdrawal or amendment, in question; and</p>	<p>(ii) furnish the conservancy committee with the reasons for the intended withdrawal or amendment, in question; and</p>
<p>(iii) call upon the conservancy committee to show cause within a period specified, why the withdrawal or amendment in question should not be effected.</p>	<p>(iii) call upon the conservancy committee to show cause within a period specified, why the withdrawal or amendment in question should not be effected.</p>
<p>(c) After considering any representations received within the specified period from the conservancy committee concerned by virtue of the provisions of paragraph (b)(iii), the Minister may, in his or her discretion -</p>	<p>(c) After considering any representations received within the specified period from the conservancy committee concerned by virtue of the provisions of paragraph (b)(iii), the Minister may, in his or her discretion -</p>
<p>(i) dissolve a wildlife council;</p>	<p>(i) dissolve a wildlife council;</p>
<p>(ii) amend or withdraw any condition imposed under subsection (1); or</p>	<p>(ii) amend or withdraw any condition imposed under subsection (1); or</p>
<p>(iii) amend or withdraw any notice made under subsection (2).</p>	<p>(iii) amend or withdraw any notice made under subsection (2).</p>

(1) (a) The Minister may, subject to paragraphs (b) and (c), at any time -

(i) in writing to the committee in question and on such conditions as he or she may determine in addition to any prescribed condition or restriction, recognize that committee as the conservancy committee for the conservancy concerned; and

(ii) by notice in the Gazette declare the area in which the application relates as a conservancy, and such notice shall set out the geographic boundaries of the area in respect of which the conservancy is being declared.

(b) Before the Minister under paragraph (a) withdraws the recognition of a conservancy committee or amends or withdraws any condition or notice, he or she shall in writing -

(i) inform the conservancy committee of his or her intention to do so;

(ii) furnish the conservancy committee with the reasons for the intended withdrawal or amendment, in question; and

(iii) call upon the conservancy committee to show cause within a period specified, why the withdrawal or amendment in question should not be effected.

(c) After considering any representations received within the specified period from the conservancy committee concerned by virtue of the provisions of paragraph (b)(iii), the Minister may, in his or her discretion -

(i) dissolve a wildlife council;

(ii) amend or withdraw any condition imposed under subsection (1); or

(iii) amend or withdraw any notice made under subsection (2).

(1) (a) The Minister may, subject to paragraphs (b) and (c), at any time -

(i) in writing to the committee in question and on such conditions as he or she may determine in addition to any prescribed condition or restriction, recognize that committee as the conservancy committee for the conservancy concerned; and

(ii) by notice in the Gazette declare the area in which the application relates as a conservancy, and such notice shall set out the geographic boundaries of the area in respect of which the conservancy is being declared.

(b) Before the Minister under paragraph (a) withdraws the recognition of a conservancy committee or amends or withdraws any condition or notice, he or she shall in writing -

(i) inform the conservancy committee of his or her intention to do so;

(ii) furnish the conservancy committee with the reasons for the intended withdrawal or amendment, in question; and

(iii) call upon the conservancy committee to show cause within a period specified, why the withdrawal or amendment in question should not be effected.

(c) After considering any representations received within the specified period from the conservancy committee concerned by virtue of the provisions of paragraph (b)(iii), the Minister may, in his or her discretion -

(i) dissolve a wildlife council;

(ii) amend or withdraw any condition imposed under subsection (1); or

(iii) amend or withdraw any notice made under subsection (2).

(2) (1) The Minister may, after consultation with a community residing on communal land and if all the prescribed requirements have been met, establish a wildlife council for the area, or any part thereof, in which such community resides on such conditions as he or she may determine in addition to any prescribed condition or restriction. Provided that no such area shall include any conservancy, any land subject to any lease, or any proclaimed game park or nature reserve.

(2) The Minister shall give notice in the Gazette of any wildlife council established under subsection (1), and such notice shall set out the geographic boundaries of the area in respect of which the wildlife council has been so established.

(3) (a) The Minister may, subject to paragraphs (b) and (c), at any time -

(i) dissolve a wildlife council;

(ii) amend or withdraw any condition imposed under subsection (1); or

(iii) amend or withdraw any notice made under subsection (2).

(5) The provisions of Part III shall *mutatis mutandis* apply to a conservancy committee insofar as it confers rights and privileges and imposes duties and obligations on an owner or a lessee of land in relation to game on such land, except that no requirement of any such provision with regard to any fence or the extent of any land or any provision classifying land for a prescribed type of fence shall apply to any conservancy.

(5) The provisions of Part III shall *mutatis mutandis* apply to a conservancy committee insofar as it confers rights and privileges and imposes duties and obligations on an owner or a lessee of land in relation to game on such land, except that no requirement of any such provision with regard to any fence or the extent of any land or any provision classifying land for a prescribed type of fence shall apply to any conservancy.

Act No. 5, 1996 NATURE CONSERVATION AMENDMENT
ACT, 1996

(b) Before the Minister under paragraph (a) dissolves a wildlife council or amends or withdraws any condition or notice, he or she shall in writing -

- (i) inform the wildlife council of his or her intention to do so;
- (ii) furnish the wildlife council with the reasons for the intended dissolution, amendment or withdrawal in question; and
- (iii) call upon the wildlife council to show cause within a period specified, why the dissolution, amendment or withdrawal in question should not be effected.

(c) After considering any representations received within the specified period from the wildlife council concerned by virtue of the provisions of paragraph (b)(iii), the Minister may, in his or her discretion -

- (i) proceed in terms of paragraph (a) with the dissolution, amendment or withdrawal in question; or
- (ii) refrain from taking any steps in terms of paragraph (a),

and the Minister shall in writing inform the wildlife committee concerned of his or her decision in terms of this paragraph.

(4) Notwithstanding section 28 and subject to subsection (5) of this section, a wildlife council shall on behalf of the community in the area for which such council has been established have rights and duties with regard to the consumptive and non-consumptive use and sustainable management of game in such area, in order to enable the members of such community to derive benefits from such use and management.

(5) The provisions of Part III shall *mutatis mutandis* apply to a wildlife council insofar as it confers rights and privileges and imposes duties and obligations on an owner or a lessee of land in relation to game on such land, except that no requirement of any such provision with regard to any fence or the extent of any land or any provision classifying land for a prescribed type of fence shall apply to any wildlife council."

Amendment of section 28 of Ordinance 4 of 1975, as substituted by section 10 of Act 27 of 1986

4. Section 28 of the Ordinance is hereby amended -

(a) by the substitution for paragraph (a) of subsection (1) of the following paragraph:

Act No. 5, 1996 NATURE CONSERVATION AMENDMENT
ACT, 1996

"(a) Subject to the provisions of sections 24A and 24B and Chapter IV, no person shall without the written permission of the [Cabinet] Minister hunt any bountable game, huntable game bird or exotic game or any other wild animal on any land, including communal land, owned by the [Government of the Territory or a representative authority] State"; and

(b) by the substitution for paragraph (b) of subsection (1) of the following paragraph:

"(b) For the purpose of paragraph (a) land leased by the Government of [the Territory or a representative authority] Namibia shall, unless an intention to the contrary appears from the lease, and unless, in the case of communal land, the land leased is an unsurveyed piece of land, be deemed not to be land owned by the [Government of the Territory or a representative authority] State."

Amendment of section 31 of Ordinance 4 of 1975, as amended by section 12 of Act 27 of 1986 and section 3 of Act 6 of 1988

5. Section 31 of the Ordinance is hereby amended by the substitution for paragraph (a) of subsection (3) of the following paragraph:

"(a) 'owner' shall not include the town clerk or the secretary of a local authority for the executive authority of a representative authority or any member of such an executive authority";

Amendment of section 33 of Ordinance 4 of 1975, as amended by section 13 of Act 27 of 1986

6. Section 33 of the Ordinance is hereby amended by the substitution for paragraph (a) of subsection (3) of the following paragraph:

"(a) 'owner' shall not include the town clerk or the secretary of a local authority for an executive authority of a representative authority or any member of such an executive authority";

Amendment of section 40 of Ordinance 4 of 1975, as amended by section 17 of Act 27 of 1986

7. Section 40 of the Ordinance is hereby amended by the substitution of paragraph (d) of subsection (1) of the following paragraph:

"(d) The [Cabinet] Minister may, in [his or her] discretion grant exemption from any or all of the provisions of this subsection to the owner or lessee of a farm which is enclosed with a game-proof fence or of a piece of land which is not less than one thousand hectares in extent and which is enclosed with a game-proof fence, or to a licensed game dealer or to any member or the members of any particular [population] group residing on the communal land of the [population] group concerned";

**NATURE CONSERVATION AMENDMENT
ACT, 1996**

Amendment of section 84 of Ordinance 4 of 1975, as amended by section 7 of Ordinance 4 of 1977 and section 5 of Act 6 of 1988

11. Section 84 of the Ordinance is hereby amended by the insertion after paragraph (x) of the following paragraphs:

"(xA) the requirements to be complied with for the recognition of conservancy committees and the declaration of conservancies, and any restrictions and conditions to which a conservancy committee shall be subject;

(xB) the requirements to be complied with for the establishment of wildlife councils, and any restrictions and conditions to which a wildlife council shall be subject."

Substitution of certain expressions in Ordinance 4 of 1975

12. The Ordinance is hereby amended -

(a) by the substitution for the expression "the Territory", wherever it occurs, of the expression "Namibia";

(b) by the substitution for the expressions "Executive Committee", "Cabinet" and "Administrator-General", wherever they occur, of the expression "Minister"; and

(c) by the substitution for the expressions "Government of the Territory or a representative authority" and "Government of the Territory", wherever they occur, but excluding section 28(1)(b), of the expression "State".

Short title and commencement

13. This Act shall be called the Nature Conservation Amendment Act, 1996, and shall come into operation on a date to be determined by the Minister by notice in the Gazette.

**NATURE CONSERVATION AMENDMENT
ACT, 1996**

Amendment of section 67 of Ordinance 4 of 1975, as substituted by section 23 of Act 27 of 1986

8. Section 67 of the Ordinance is hereby amended by the substitution for paragraph (b) of subsection (1) of the following paragraph:

"(b) any member of a particular [population] group may angle in waters situated on the communal land or the [population] group concerned."

Amendment of section 68 of Ordinance 4 of 1975, as substituted by section 24 of Act 27 of 1986

9. Section 68 of the Ordinance is hereby amended by the substitution for subsection (4) of the following subsection:

"(4) The provisions of this section shall not apply to any member of a particular [population] group who catches fish in inland waters situated on the communal land of the [population] group concerned."

Amendment of section 83 of Ordinance 4 of 1975, as amended by section 30 of Act 27 of 1986

10. Section 83 of the Ordinance is hereby amended -

(a) by the substitution for subsection (2) of the following subsection:

"(2) Every permit, licence, registration, approval, permission or exemption granted by the Minister in terms of this Ordinance shall be issued against payment of the fees, if any, prescribed for such permit, licence, registration, approval, permission, or exemption by this Ordinance or by regulation: Provided that the Minister may, subject to the provisions of this Ordinance, decrease such fees or grant exemption from the payment of such fees if he or she is of the opinion that good and sufficient reasons therefor exist."

(b) by the substitution for subsection (3) of the following subsection:

"(3) Every permit, licence, registration, approval, permission or exemption granted by the Minister in terms of this Ordinance shall be subject to the conditions, requirements and restrictions prescribed by regulation, whether in general or for the particular permit, licence, registration, approval, permission, or exemption and, in addition thereto, to the conditions, requirements and restrictions which the Minister may in every particular case deem necessary or expedient to impose."

(c) by the deletion of paragraph (c) of subsection (5); and

(d) by the deletion of subsection (7).

Annexe 13 : Exemple de scénario de film

2005.11.3 [Marshall !Kung Film Project, 1984]

CAMERA ROLL	TRACK NUMBER	EDGE NUMBER	DESCRIPTION
			clearing ground with spades.
CR-4		9486895 9487689	Tsamko and Geelbooi sitting and talking by pump. Group shot. CU faces (including //Ao N//orro). Putting in shaft and wheel. Water comes out.

Compilation Roll:

Men bringing rocks to pump
 Elephant approaches
 Rigging pump
 Tsamko turning wheel
 CU faces
 Policeman arrives. John talks. Tsamko talks.
 Army man arrives with piece of paper.
 Argument with Geelbooi
 Army man shakes John's hand
 WS group - pump, army, police
 Policeman leaves

2005.11.3-33, -34 RV

Additional footage of installing the pump at //Xaru; may repeat footage in 2005.11.3-31, -32

2005.11.3-35, -36 RV

Compilation videotapes containing footage that is missing from other RV. Although the original camera rolls for the footage is not noted on the compilations, the roll numbers could be determined by consulting the descriptive shot logs.

2005.11.3-35 Focuses mainly on the activities of the army (SADF) and the Bushman recruits

2005.11.3.36 Focuses mainly on agricultural and daily life activities in Nyae Nyae

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 Human Studies Film Archives, Smithsonian Institution

12

2005.11.3 [Marshall !Kung Film Project, 1984]

CAMERA ROLL	TRACK NUMBER	EDGE NUMBER	DESCRIPTION
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[The following notes may provide information on material for which there is Reference film or video.]

Notes on CAMERA ROLLS 10-29 [P. Rommelaere, 1998]

All sound rolls seem to have been recorded without a 60 Hz sync pulse. The sync drift is radical. I suggest that the selected shots are digitized and the relative sound pulled on the AVID. I also suspect that the sound might have been transferred at 25 FPS because the rest of the shoot (from CR 30) was done on an NAGRA I.S. with an AATON camera at 25 FPS and 50 Hz sync pulse. One could try to transfer at 24 frames but I don't know if it will improve things. The other option is to digitize the sound directly from the NAGRA ¼ inch sound rolls.

There is very little real sync, I mostly concentrated on putting the sound and picture together so that the sound is somewhere in the neighborhood of the picture. Kxao Debe's monologue in the kitchen holds sync by some miracle but the rest is very bad. Also, Tsamko's voice sounds suspiciously adolescent at times which suggests that at some stage something was speeded up a bit.

There are no slates and one tape id. In the middle of a sound roll over vigorous shoveling, a dry voice informs us: "digging"

I cannot find sync for CR10, also there is a little argument on CR23 A (can't find sound) which looks very entertaining. Most of this footage will cut a beautiful DAY IN LIFE OF GAUTCHA, provided it can be synchronized. It shows life in a mixed economy. I would also cut in some beautiful landscapes of Guatcha with music to create an atmosphere of timelessness. There is a strong suggestion of some affluence in all the footage (BICYCLES, HORSES, CATTLE, RADIOS, ETC.) which are probably spin-offs from the SA military presence or JKM gifts?

!K!UCE talks about McIntyre on CR18 which could be useful.

Notes on Audio tapes: 21 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 37 47 48

These all seem to be interviews, I think I went through most of them. There might be some sync lurking in there which I might have missed.

Notes on Audio tapes: WS 1-9

THESE HAVE NOT BEEN TRANSFERRED TO MAG. I HAVE LISTENED TO BITS AND PIECES AND THERE IS A DISTINCT CAMERA NOISE ON SOME OF THEM. THE OBVIOUS CONCLUSION IS THAT AT LEAST SOME OF IT CANNOT BE CLASSIFIED WILD. I WOULD ASSUME THAT THEY WERE ALSO RECORDED WITHOUT A 60HZ SYNC TONE.

John Marshall Ju/'hoan Bushman Film and Video Collection, 1950-2000
 Human Studies Film Archives, Smithsonian Institution

13

2005.11.3 [Marshall !Kung Film Project, 1984]

CAMERA ROLL	TRACK NUMBER	EDGE NUMBER	DESCRIPTION
List of common acronyms, nicknames, and foreign language terms			
JBDF	Ju/wa Bushmen Development Foundation		Early name for the Nyae Nyae Development Foundation of Namibia, 1982-1989
NNDFN; "The Foundation"	Nyae Nyae Development Foundation of Namibia		
JFU	Ju/wa Farmer's Union		Early name for the Nyae Nyae Farmer's Cooperative
NNFC; "The Co-op;" Farmer's Coop	Nyae Nyae Farmer's Cooperative		
RADA			Governing council of the Farmer's Cooperative, made up of representatives from each <i>n!ore</i> Now known as Namibia
SWA	South West Africa		
SA; RSA	Republic of South Africa		
UNTAG	UN Transition Assistance Group		Oversaw Namibia's first democratic election
DTA	Democratic Turnhalla Alliance		Namibian political party
SWAPO	South West Africa People's Organization		Namibian political party
Nature Conservation	Ministry of Nature Conservation		Ministry within the Namibian government
WWF	The organization formerly known as the World Wildlife Fund		
USAID	United States Agency for International Development		
LIFE	Living in a Finite Environment		Project implemented through a cooperative effort of the WWF and USAID. Focused of indigenous communities who have communal land and on the establishment of conservancies

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14

2005.11.3 [Marshall !Kung Film Project, 1984]

CAMERA ROLL	TRACK NUMBER	EDGE NUMBER	DESCRIPTION
EPC	Environmental Planning Committee		
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency		
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Co-operation		
HU	Health Unlimited		
CPS	Cash Payment Services		
TUCSIN	University Centre for Studies in Namibia		Located in Windhoek
SADF	South African Defense Force		
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature		
buckey	pickup truck		
n!ore, n!oresi	Ju/'hoan term meaning "place", "area", or "village".		N!oresi is plural
Kraal	Afrikaans term for a livestock enclosure		
skerm	hut		
werft	encampment		
Individual Names		Nicknames, alternate spellings	Notes
Toma Tsamko (elder)		≠oma; ≠Toma	Leader of the /Gautcha band; husband of !U; John Marshall's namesake (died 1988)
!U Debe		!U Dabe	Toma's wife; and "owner" of /Gautcha
Tsamko Toma		Tsamkxao; "Bobo"	Son of Toma and !U; former chairman of the NNFC; currently the Traditional Authority in

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15

2005.11.3 [Marshall !Kung Film Project, 1984]

CAMERA ROLL	TRACK NUMBER	EDGE NUMBER	DESCRIPTION
Kushay Kxao Moses Toma		/Gao Moses; Gao Moses	Nyae Nyae (a government position) Tsamko's wife Son of Toma and !U; Manager of the Nyae Nyae Conservancy; former employee of the NNDFN;
Gaishay Martin		Gaishay Toma; /'xashe Martin	Son of Toma and !U; government official in 1980's
Bau Toma			Daughter of Toma and !U; trainee nurse with Health Unlimited
!Ungka Norma			Daughter of Toma and !U; named for Lorna Marshall
Toma "Leon" Tsamko		øoma; øToma	Son of Tsamko; grandson of Toma Tsamko. Translator and assistant to John Marshall during 1990s
Kxao Debe		Gao Lame; Gao Debe; /Gao; //Ao Debe; "Petrus"	!U's brother (died circa 2004)
N'ai		Nai, N'lae	!U's niece; /Gunda's wife; featured in <i>N'ai, A Story of a !Kung Woman</i>
/Gunda		Gunda, /Kunta	Important Ju/'hoan healer; husband of N'ai
Gao Kanna		/Gao; /ao Filmstar; /ao K'anna Filmstar; Gao Filmstar'	Star of the feature film, <i>The Gods Must Be Crazy</i>
Kivit /Qui Chapman		Kievit Qui	one of the RADA chairmen Ju/'hoan farmer assisted by the NNFC to relocate to Nyae Nyae in 1990 (died

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16

2005.11.3 [Marshall !Kung Film Project, 1984]

CAMERA ROLL	TRACK NUMBER	EDGE NUMBER	DESCRIPTION
Sarah Chapman Royal		Koba	circa 1996) /Qui Chapman's wife First Ju/'hoan member of Namibian Parliament; translator for NNFC, 1990's
Benjamin			Translator for NNFC in 1990's
John Marshall		Toma Xosi; John; JKM	John Marshall's Father
Laurence K. Marshall		LKM, LK	John Marshall's mother
Lorna J. Marshall		LJM	John Marshall's sister
Elizabeth Marshall Thomas		EMT	John Marshall's wife
Alexandra Osti Eliot Marshall		AOE, Lexie	John Marshall's wife
Claude McIntyre			First Commissioner of the Nyae Nyae area under the South African administration
Claire Ritchie			Co-founder of the NNDFN, co-director of many film shoots during 1980's
Frikkie Farrell Patrick Dickens			NNDFN employee, 1980's Linguist (compiled first Ju/'hoan-English dictionary) and NNDFN employee, 1980's
Adrian Strong Megan Biesele			NNDFN employee, 1980's Director of the NNDFN, 1987-1992
Axel Thoma			Director of the NNDFN, 1992-1994
John Bishop		JB	Cameraman, 1989
Peter Baker		PB	Cameraman, sound recordist, 1980's-1990's

John Marshall Ju/'hoan Bushman Film and Video Collection, 1950-2000
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17

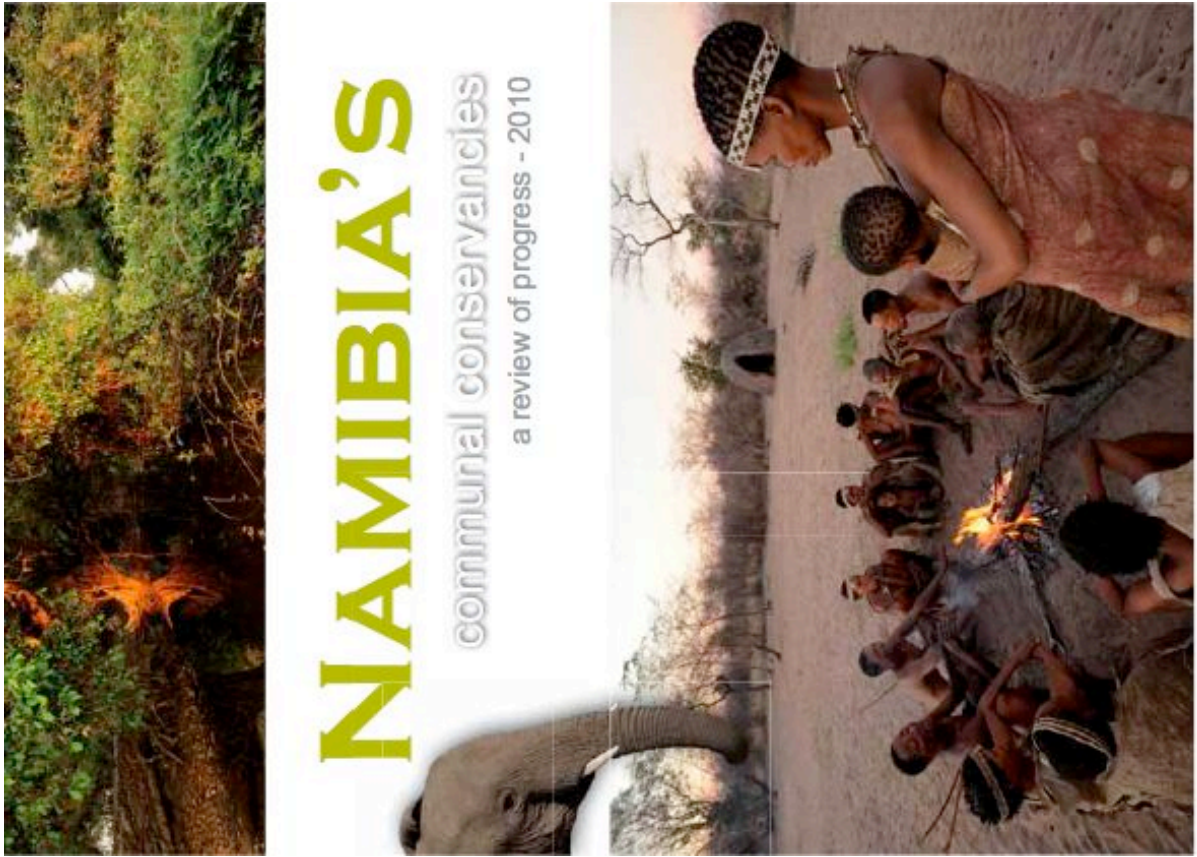
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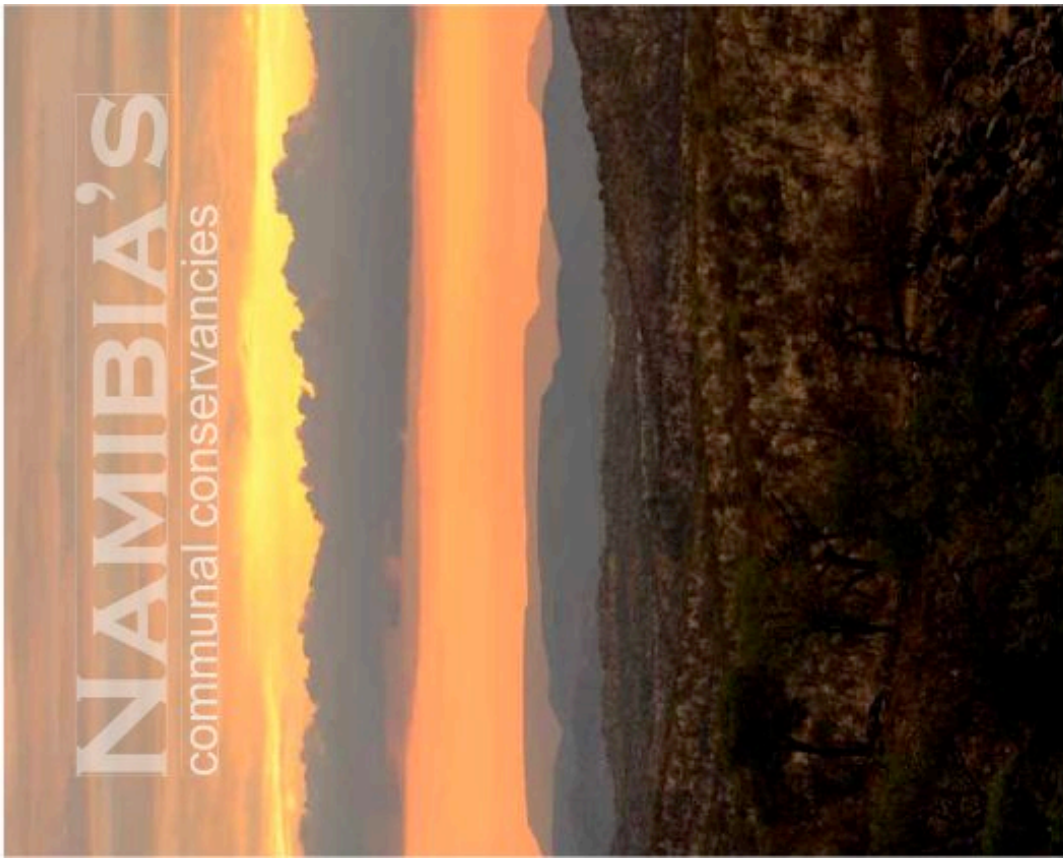
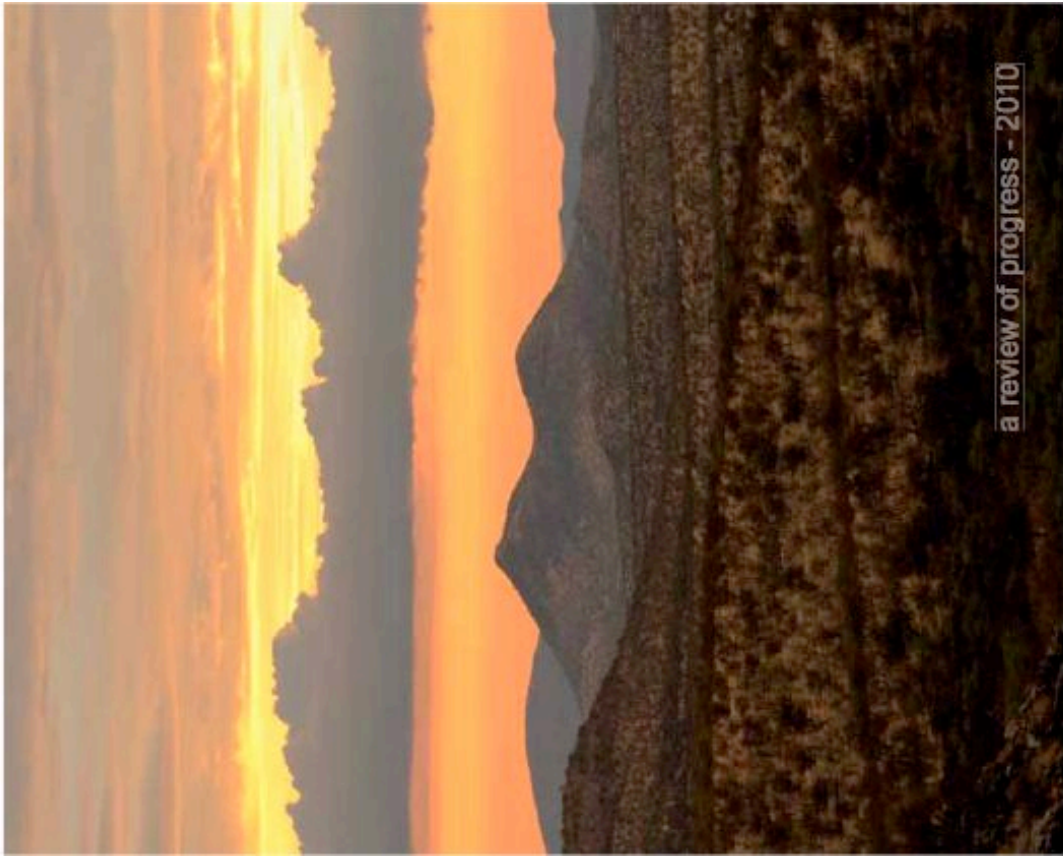
CAMERA ROLL	TRACK NUMBER	EDGE NUMBER PR	DESCRIPTION
Pitchie Rommelaere			Sound recordist, cameraman, 1980's-1990's

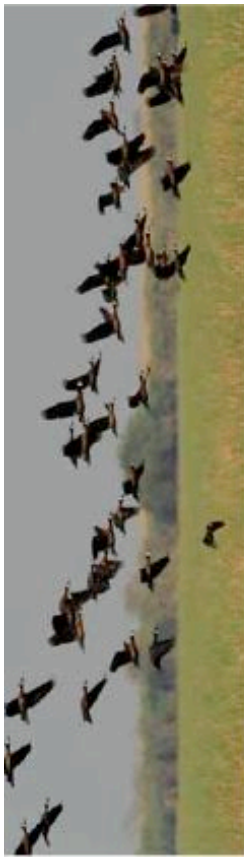
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18

Annexe 14 : Presentation of Namibia's Communal Conservancies







CONTENTS

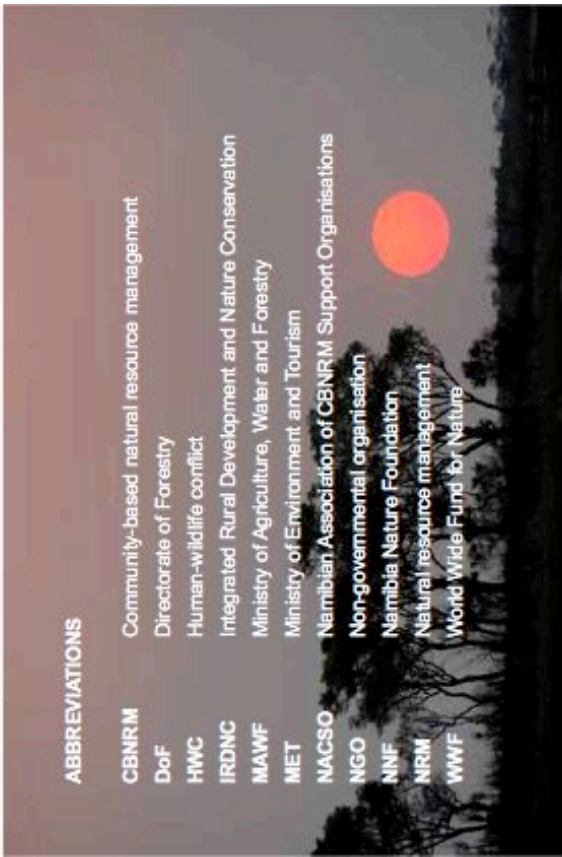
Chapter 1: Introduction: context and background 2

Chapter 2: Status of conservancies in 2010 4

Chapter 3: Natural resources: the base of a rural economy 8

Chapter 4: Governance and ownership 16

Chapter 5: Benefits: financial and economic gains 18



ABBREVIATIONS

CBNRM	Community-based natural resource management
DoF	Directorate of Forestry
HWC	Human-wildlife conflict
IRDNC	Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation
MAWF	Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry
MET	Ministry of Environment and Tourism
NACSO	Namibian Association of CBNRM Support Organisations
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NNF	Namibia Nature Foundation
NRM	Natural resource management
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature



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The cover

Elephants feed on floodplains in the Kaska Conservancy, while a houseboat provides tourists with spectacular game viewing along the Chobe River. The town of Kasene (in the background, in Botswana), is the closest urban centre for the rural community. Its economy is largely based on the high tourism value of the area, both in Namibia and Botswana.

Elephants are amongst the most valuable natural resources for conservancies. Yet, the conflicts they create with other land-uses and infrastructure also present a major challenge for the CBNRM programme.

Tourism generates the largest portion of benefits for conservancies. However, these benefits can be significantly expanded through broader engagement by the private sector, especially amongst mobile operators.

The wise use and management of natural resource has the potential to drive rural development and economic growth, as well as delivering biodiversity conservation objectives.

Collaborative sustainable resource management across borders is crucial in ensuring the health of many large ecosystems. This is especially true in the Caprivi, a narrow strip of land dissected by perennial rivers that are vital biodiversity corridors.

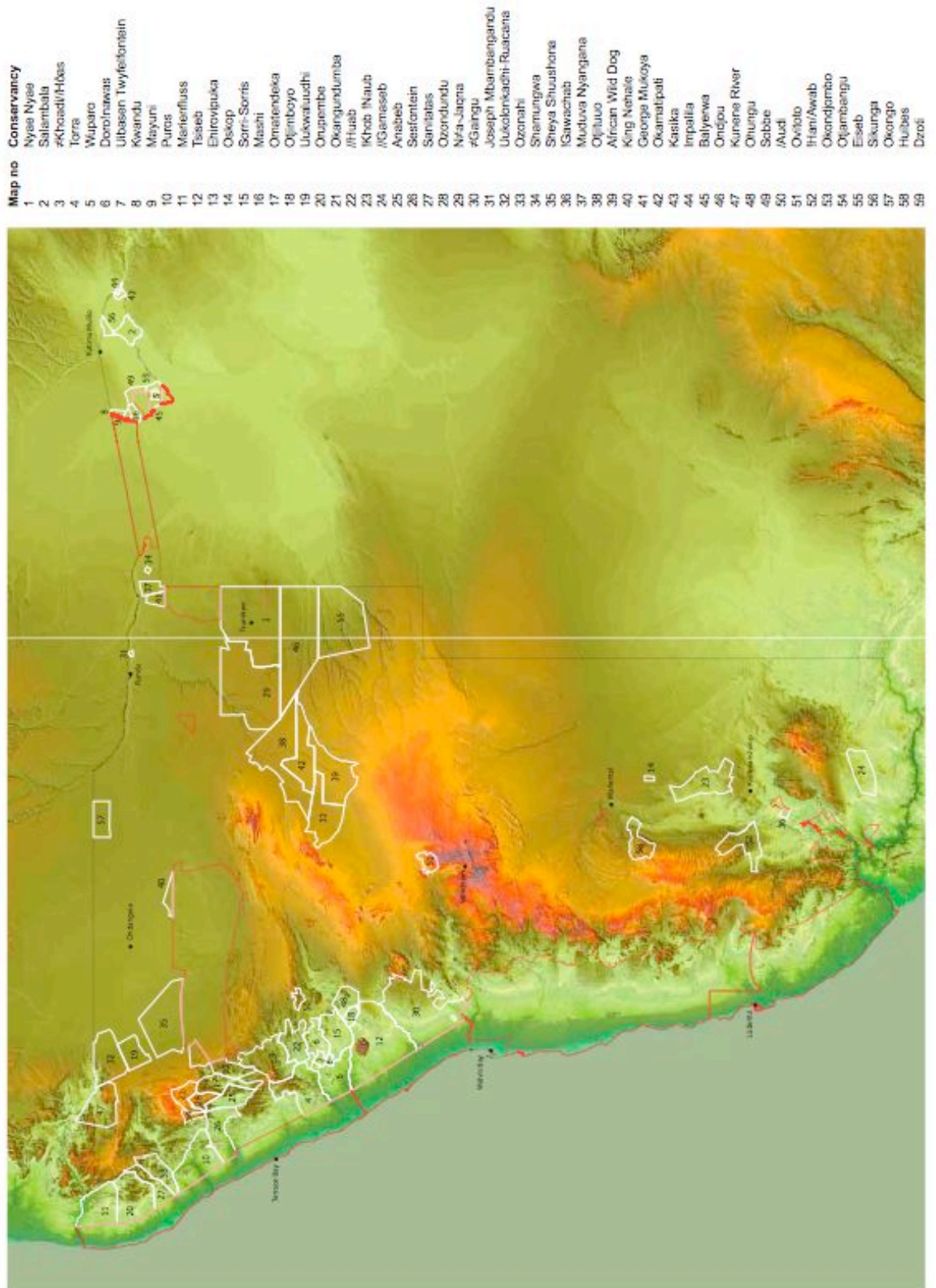
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SOURCES OF PHOTOGRAPHS

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INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 1



context and background



Over the last nineteen years, community-based natural resource management (CB-NRM) has proven again and again to be an important instrument for the Government of Namibia to meet its goals with respect to sustainable development. CBNRM is based on the understanding that if natural resources have sufficient value to rural communities, and allow for exclusive rights of use, benefit and management, then this policy environment will create appropriate incentives for people to use natural resources in a sustainable way. Through innovative legislation, rights have been devolved to these rural communities, with particular regard to wildlife, water and forest resources.

In 1986, the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET) introduced legislation that gave conditional use rights over wildlife and natural resources to communities in Namibia's communal areas. This initiative laid the foundation for the development of a management unit called a 'conservancy'. Since then, many local communities have embraced this opportunity to manage their

NAMIBIA'S communal conservancies

own wildlife and tourism activities, and communal area conservancies are now found in eleven of the 13 regions of the country. The conservancy approach has proven effective as a conservation strategy, as can be seen by the increase in wildlife in many of our country's communal areas. It also represents a successful rural development strategy, generating income for local communities, creating new jobs, and developing new skills and expertise.

This publication demonstrates the remarkable results of CBNRM in the

wildlife and tourism sector. It forms the eighth in a series of publications on the progress and challenges of Namibia's communal area conservancies. The initial book provided information up to 2003, after which an update pamphlet and full book were produced each alternate year respectively, up to 2009. This eighth publication booklet updates information on communal conservancies up to the end of 2010. Whilst this document focuses on the achievements of CBNRM in relation to wildlife and tourism, it also includes information on the 13 registered community forests in Namibia.

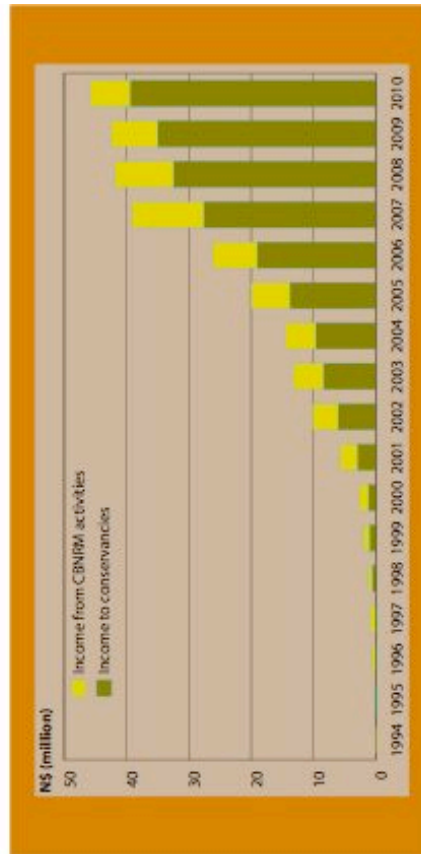
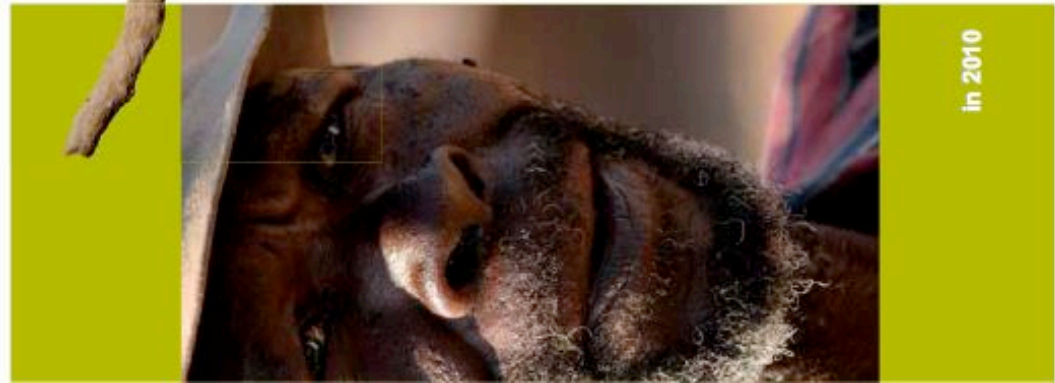


Figure 1. Income from the overall CBNRM Programme grew from zero in 1994 to over N\$45 million in 2010. Income is divided into two categories: income to conservancies, and income from CBNRM activities outside conservancies.

This report recognises the support provided by the MET – in collaboration with its dedicated partners – in developing and implementing the conservancy approach in Namibia. These partners include the communal conservancies themselves, the members of the Namibian Association of CBNRM Support Organisations (NACSO), and a broad range of donors and private sector tourism partners.

STATUS OF CONSERVANCIES

CHAPTER 2



in 2010



By the end of 2010, a total of 59 communal conservancies had been registered with MET. Together these conservancies manage more than 132,697 km² of communal land. Approximately 234,300 people live within the conservancies. A steadily increasing proportion of communal land in Namibia falls within registered conservancies (41.8%) and these conservancies now cover 16.1% of the total land area of Namibia. An additional 30 conservancies are in the process of fulfilling the requirements to apply for legal status.

One of the main lessons from the Namibian CBNRM Programme is that devolving authority over wildlife and tourism to local communities can work in practice. As a result, wildlife numbers have increased (see page 19) and economic benefits to local people have grown. For example, total income from conservancies increased from about N\$600,000 in 1998 to N\$45.8 million in 2010 (see Figure 1).

— a review of progress - 2010

NAMIBIA'S communal conservancies

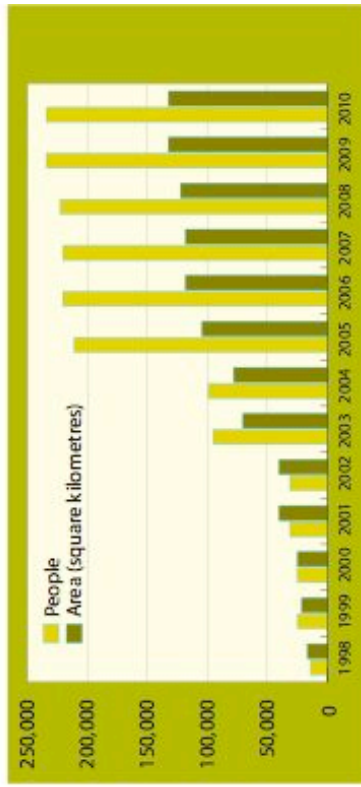


Figure 2. The area covered by registered communal conservancies has grown rapidly, as has the number of people that live within the conservancies.

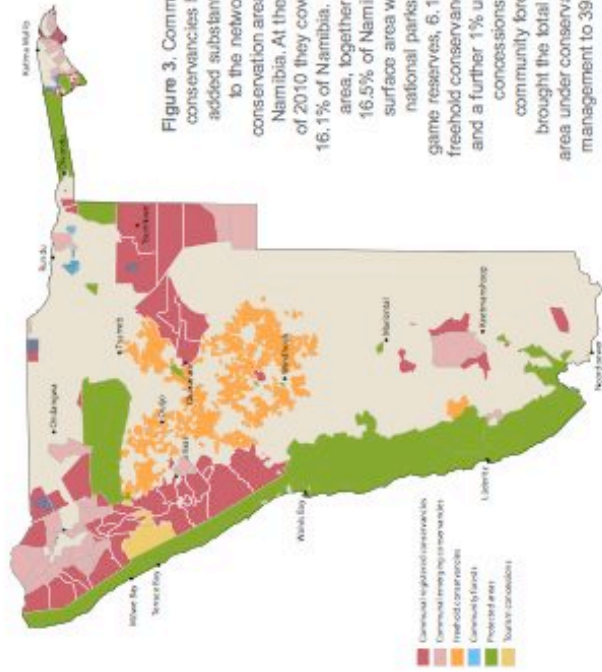


Figure 3. Communal conservancies have added substantially to the network of conservation areas in Namibia. At the end of 2010 they covered 16.1% of Namibia. This area, together with 16.5% of Namibia's surface area within national parks and game reserves, 6.1% in freehold conservancies, and a further 1% under concessions and community forests, brought the total land area under conservation management to 39.7%.

Table 1. The 59 conservancies that had been registered by the end of 2010, the year on which this booklet focuses.

Conservancy	Region	Date registered	Area (km ²)	Number of people in conservancy
Nyae Nyae	Otjozondjupa	Feb.1998	8,992	2,300
Saambala	Caprivi	Jun.1998	930	7,700
Torra	Kunene	Jun.1998	3,493	1,200
#Khoach-#Hôas	Kunene	Jun.1998	3,364	3,200
Ubaesen Twyfelfontein	Kunene	Dec.1999	286	230
Doro Inawias	Kunene	Dec.1999	3,978	1,500
Kwandu	Caprivi	Dec.1999	190	4,300
Meyuni	Caprivi	Dec.1999	151	2,400
Wupato	Caprivi	Dec.1999	148	2,100
Puros	Kunene	May 2000	3,562	260
Tiseeb	Erongo	Jan.2001	7,913	2,000
Ehrowipuka	Kunene	Jan.2001	1,980	2,500
Mantentus	Kunene	Jan.2001	3,034	300
Osakop	Hardap	Feb.2001	96	120
Sorri-Sorris	Kunene	Oct.2001	2,290	1,300
Mashi	Caprivi	Mar.2003	297	3,900
Uukwaludhi	Omusati	Mar.2003	1,437	25,000
Omaitendeka	Kunene	Mar.2003	1,619	2,500
Ojimboyo	Erongo	Mar.2003	448	1,000
#Khot Nauub	Hardap	Jul.2003	2,747	5,000
//Gamaseb	Karas	Jul.2003	1,748	5,000
//Hueb	Kunene	Jul.2003	1,817	5,000
Onyembe	Kunene	Jul.2003	3,565	400
Sarilalats	Kunene	Jul.2003	1,446	250
Anateb	Kunene	Jul.2003	1,570	2,000
Sesfontein	Kunene	Jul.2003	2,465	2,500
Otjozondjumba	Kunene	Jul.2003	1,131	2,500
Nya-Nyana	Otjozondjupa	Jul.2003	9,120	7,000
Ozoondundu	Kunene	Jul.2003	745	2,000
Joseph Mbaribangandu	Kavango	Mar.2004	43	1,000

Conservancy	Region	Date registered	Area (km ²)	Number of people in conservancy
#Gangu	Erongo	Mar.2004	7,731	2,800
IGawachab	Karas	Sep.2005	132	500
George Mukoya	Kavango	Sep.2005	486	2,000
Muduva Nyangana	Kavango	Sep.2005	615	2,000
Shamungwa	Kavango	Sep.2005	53	1,000
Uukolonkadhi Ruacana	Omusati	Sep.2005	2,993	25,000
Okamatapeti	Otjozondjupa	Sep.2005	3,098	3,000
Ozonahi	Otjozondjupa	Sep.2005	3,204	5,500
African Wild Dog	Otjozondjupa	Sep.2005	3,824	5,500
Ojilauo	Otjozondjupa	Sep.2005	6,133	9,000
Sheya Shuushona	Omusati	Sep.2005	5,066	35,360
King Nehale	Oshana	Sep.2005	508	20,000
Impella	Caprivi	Dec.2005	73	1,500
Kaska	Caprivi	Dec.2005	147	1,500
Sebbe	Caprivi	Dec.2006	404	2,000
Kunene River	Kunene	Oct.2006	2,764	2,000
//Audi	Kunene	Oct.2006	335	1,000
Ohungu	Erongo	Oct.2006	1,211	1,000
Onjopu	Otjozondjupa	Oct.2006	8,729	2,000
Balyerwa	Caprivi	Oct.2006	223	1,500
Ovibob	Otjozondjupa	May 2008	625	1,000
//Han //Awab	Karas	May 2008	1,923	780
Okondjombo	Kunene	Aug.2008	1,645	300
Ojimbangu	Kunene	Mar.2009	348	300
Eseb	Omahewa	Mar.2009	6,625	5,000
Skungja	Caprivi	Jul.2009	287	2,000
Okongo	Changwana	Sep.2009	1,340	2,000
Dzooli	Caprivi	Oct.2009	245	1,100
Huibes	Hardap	Oct.2009	1,327	1,200
TOTAL			132,697	234,300

NATURAL RESOURCES

CHAPTER 3



the base of a rural economy

The commitment of communal area residents to improved natural resource management is evident in the expansion of areas under formal management, both through registered communal conservancies and communal forests. The 59 registered communal conservancies fall within five of Namibia's six biomes and combined they cover 16.1% of the land area of Namibia and 39.7% of the communal areas (see Table 2 below).

In 2001, the Namibian government extended its CBNRM Programme to include the community-based management of natural forest vegetation, providing for community forests to be registered under the Forest Act. The first 13 community forests were gazetted in early 2006, representing a total land area of 464,324ha and a total number of 32,684 beneficiaries. Thirty-four new forests are emerging, contributing to a current total of 47 community forests in the communal lands of northern Namibia covering an area of about 3.9 million ha. Eight of the registered com-

NAMIBIA'S communal conservancies

community forests (and 20 of those that are emerging) overlap totally or partially with conservancies. Efforts are currently underway to facilitate the integration of

conservancies and community forests by harmonizing different legal and technical requirements, and to promote joint management planning in these areas.

Biome	Communal Conservancy	Community Forest	Community-Conservancy Overlap	Overlap/Total Conservation	Finalised Conservancy	National Park	Total
Total area of Namibia	16.1	0.5	0.2	0.8	6.2	16.7	40.1
Lakes and Salt Pans	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	94.8	97.5
Nama Karoo	14.6	0.0	0.0	1.4	1.0	5.0	21.0
Namib Desert	13.9	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.6	75.6	93.3
Succulent Karoo	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	90.5	90.5
Acacia Savanna	12.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	13.6	4.5	32.6
Broad-leafed Savanna	32.2	1.9	0.5	0.0	1.9	7.9	41.5

Table 2. Percentages of Namibia's total surface area within communal and freshhold conservancies, in community forests, in concession areas, and in national parks and game reserves (top row) and equivalent proportions of different biomes conserved by the conservation management areas. Communal area conservancies contribute more to the protection of Nama Karoo and Broad-leafed Savanna than do other types of conservation management.

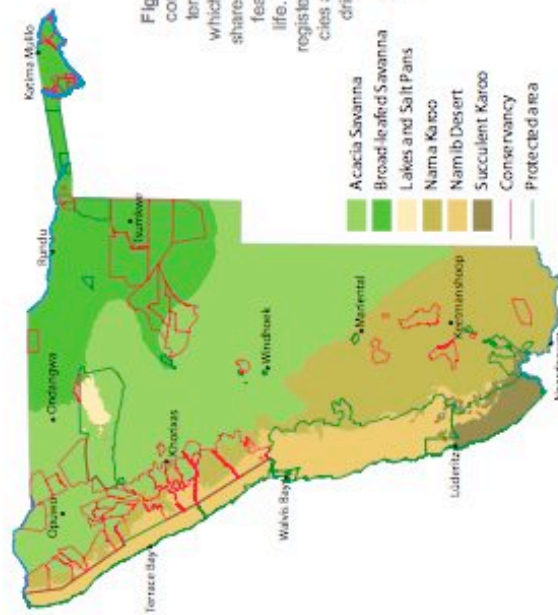
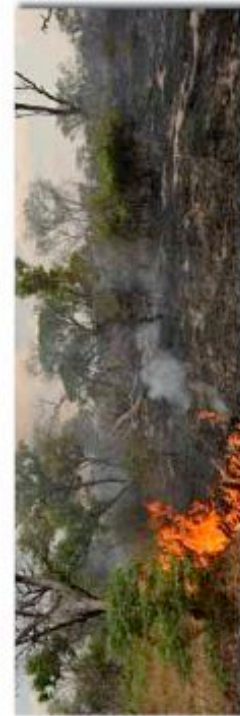


Figure 4. Namibia contains six major terrestrial biomes, which are areas that share similar climatic features and plant life. The majority of registered conservancies are found in the drier Nama Karoo and Namib Desert biomes.

Name of community forest	Region	Date registered	Area (km ²)	Number of beneficiaries
Ncaute	Karango	Feb-2006	120	1,000
Ncumcara	Karango	Feb-2006	152	2,023
Ncamagoro	Karango	Feb-2006	263	1,878
Mbeyo	Karango	Feb-2006	411	1,633
Hans Kanyinga	Karango	Feb-2006	277	4,000
Mkata	Okavango	Feb-2006	870	600
Bukato	Caprivi	Feb-2006	53	6,000
Messida	Caprivi	Feb-2006	195	1,100
Lubuta	Caprivi	Feb-2006	180	1,000
Kwardo	Caprivi	Feb-2006	200	3,200
Sikanyabuka	Caprivi	Feb-2006	40	1,000
Okongo	Ohangwena	Feb-2006	755	1,250
Uukolonkeshi	Omusati	Feb-2006	1,117	12,000
TOTAL			4,643	36,684

Table 3. The 13 community forests that had been registered by the end of 2010 and which are predominately found in the north-eastern regions of Karango and Caprivi, within the Acacia Savanna and Broad-leaved Savanna biomes.

In conservancies, wildlife numbers have shown remarkable growth and recovery. Formal monitoring systems continue to be implemented and 59 registered and four emerging conservancies are using the Event Book monitoring system to track a range of natural resource issues. The eleventh annual road-based game count was conducted in the Kunene Region, with results reflected below (see Figure 5). Growing numbers of wildlife, combined with better monitoring, meant that 34 conservancies were able to benefit from trophy-hunting quotas during 2010, while sufficient wildlife allowed for 36 conservancies to be able to harvest game and distribute meat to conservancy residents. Consumptive use of wildlife generated N\$17 million in benefits for conservancies, with N\$11.4 million being earned as cash revenue, N\$4.4 million earned in-kind (value of meat distributed), and a further N\$1.2 million disbursed as salaries and wages from associated jobs.



10 — a review of progress - 2010

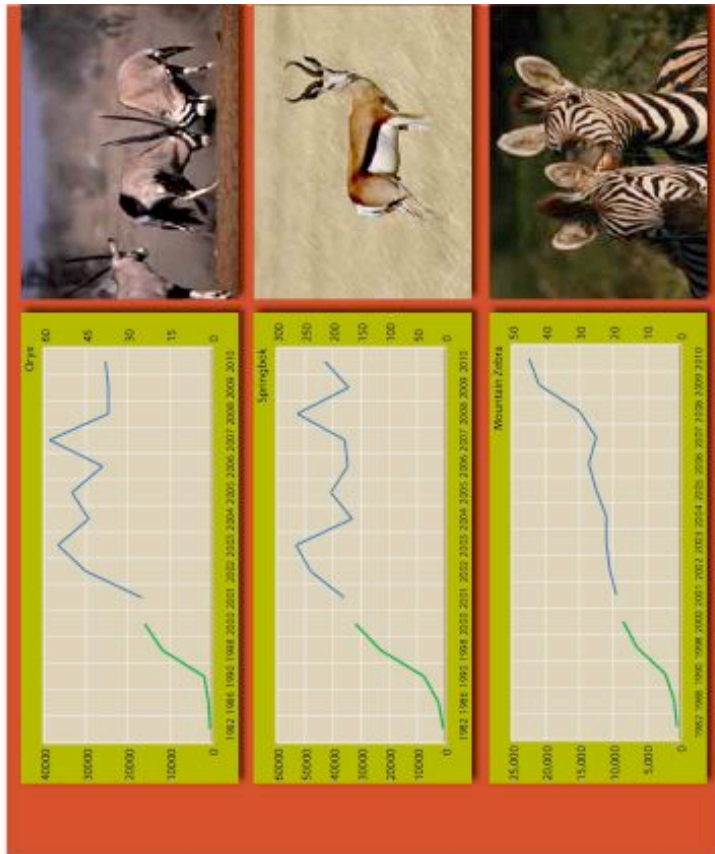


Figure 5. Wildlife numbers in north-west Namibia have increased dramatically over the past 20 years. Population estimates between the 1980s and 1990s were derived from aerial surveys (left y axis) while the more recent figures are density estimates from vehicle surveys (number of animals recorded per 100 km travelled, right y axis).

Much of the growth described here for wildlife populations in north-west Namibia has been due to the reduction and virtual cessation of illegal hunting, and the steps taken by conservancies to manage human-wildlife conflicts (HWC). Although other factors – in particular the series of recent good rainfall years – have contributed to population growth, this increase would not have occurred had it not been for reduced illegal hunting and strong local management and monitoring by conservancies.

In addition to the growing wildlife populations in north-west Namibia, there has also been a notable recovery of populations across the Caprivi Region.

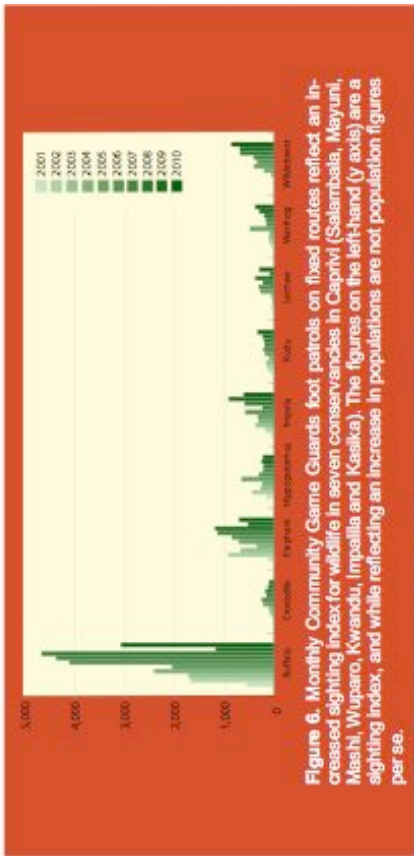


Figure 6. Monthly Community Game Guards foot patrols on fixed routes reflected an increased sighting index for wildlife in seven conservancies in Caprivi (Salambala, Mayuni, Mashi, Wuparo, Kwandu, Impalila and Kasika). The figures on the left-hand (y axis) are a sighting index, and while reflecting an increase in populations are not population figures per se.

Despite increasing wildlife populations and associated benefits, living alongside wildlife has a cost for rural residents. Increasing frequencies of HWC incidents (see table 4 below) are doubtless a consequence of both larger numbers of animals and reduced persecution by people. The number of HWC incidents continued to rise in 2010, with a total of 7738 reported country-wide in conservancies. The majority of incidents reported were livestock losses, most of which occurred in the Kunene Region. Wildlife now often mixes freely with domestic stock in the Kunene and Caprivi Region, where elephants have been recorded drinking next to homesteads and raiding vegetables and crops grown there. The design and implementation of innovative ways to deal with the increase in HWC is ongoing.

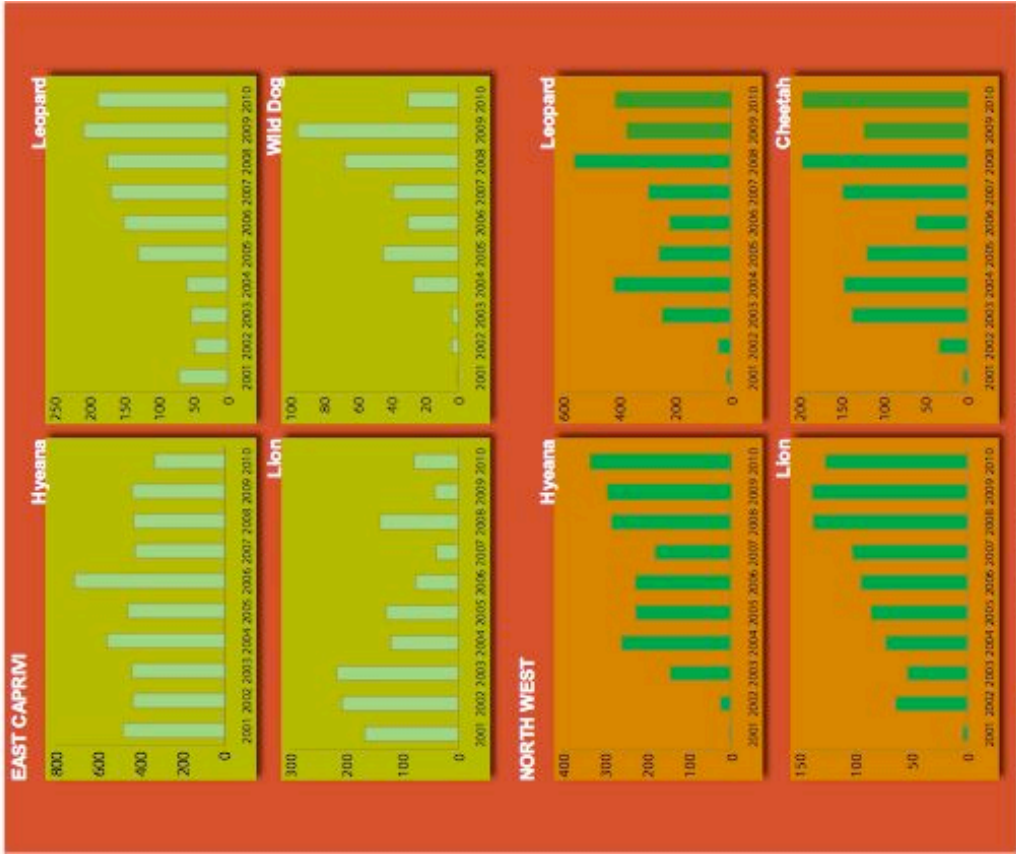
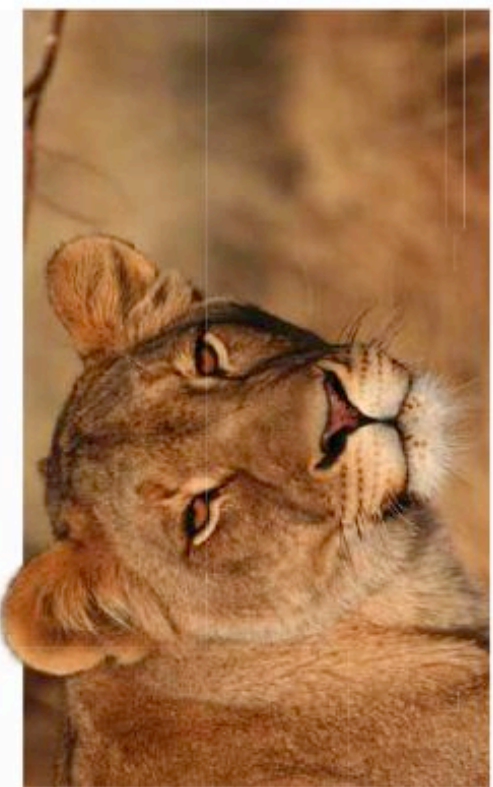
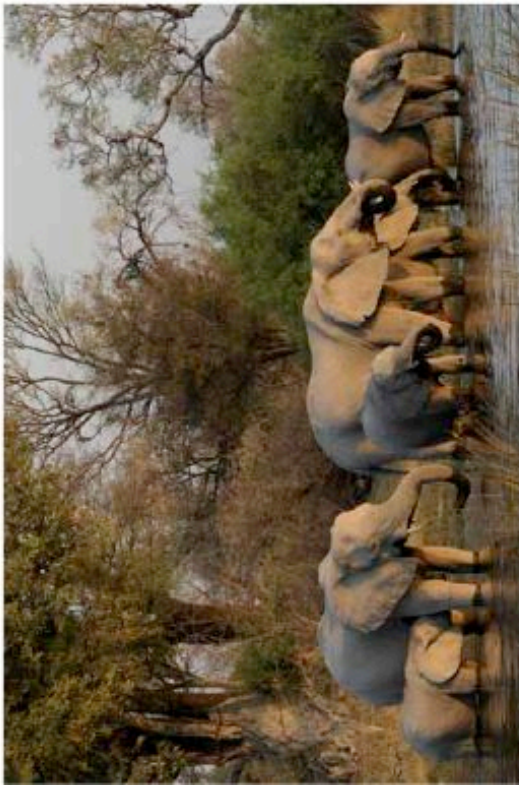


Figure 7. Frequencies of sightings (y axis) of large predators by Community Game Guards in the East Caprivi and Kunene conservancies between 2002 and 2010.



Year	Crop damage	Attacks on humans	Attacks on Livestock	Other Damage	Total
2001	57	8	256	4	325
2002	434	2	324	11	771
2003	1088	17	1733	171	3019
2004	1084	14	1664	154	2966
2005	1470	15	2058	139	4382
2006	2350	11	3174	178	5713
2007	2172	16	3161	291	5640
2008	2475	29	4384	207	7095
2009	2621	22	4876	140	7669
2010	2633	21	4935	149	7738

Table 4. The number of incidents of HWC caused by all species in all conservancies in Namibia over the past seven years. These data reflect incidents in all conservancies using the Event Book monitoring system and thus do not reflect all other HWC incidents in the country.



GOVERNANCE AND OWNERSHIP CHAPTER 4



the base of a
rural economy



Communal conservancies are local management organisations that provide the legal and institutional framework for managing common property resources – particularly wildlife – in the communal areas. They are composed of registered members, a committee that represents this membership, and a constitution that sets out the means by which the institution will be governed. Governance in conservancies, i.e., how decisions are taken, who takes them, and who is accountable to whom, is a critical issue. Committees need to be properly accountable to conservancy members, and the full participation of members in decision making and other activities is essential. Both committees and staff need to be mandated to act in accordance with the interests of the members in order to achieve the purpose of the conservancy.

During 2010, no additional conservancies were gazetted, leaving the total number of registered conservancies at 59. Of these, 45 conservancies earned a cash income, while 41 conservancies contributed to their

NAMIBIA'S communal conservancies

own operational costs (23 contributed 100%, 8 contributed between 50 - 99%, and ten contributed between 1 - 49%). Financial management is one of the most important management aspects of conservancies. During 2010, continued focus was placed on building skills for managing conservancy finances, with an emphasis on implementing formal systems and providing regular feedback to members. A total of 27 conservancies have established financial sustainability plans to guide conservancy planning and management.

Conservancy management provided a range of jobs, such as Field Officers, Community Game Guards or Rangers, Community Resource Monitors, administrators, managers and office staff (e.g. receptionists). A total of 619 conservancy management jobs were held in 2010, the majority of which were entirely funded by the conservancies.

Staff and finances are just two of the elements that conservancies need to manage. Chapter 3 outlined the challenges and importance of managing wildlife, but in a number of conservancies other natural resources are now managed directly or linked to the conservancy management structures. Conservancies are also faced with the challenge of good communication and effective and participatory decision making. During 2010, a number of conservancies made adjustments to their structure (19) and constitutions (4) to improve representation and communication with their members. Women made up an average of 35% of conservancy management committees' membership, and 27 out of 59 conservancies (or 46%) have women running the day-to-day management of conservancy finances.

Peer learning and support has been strengthened through the establishment of conservancy associations at the regional level. The Otjozondjupa, Kavango and Kunene Regions have established formal associations, while the Caprivi Region and southern Regions (Karas and Hardap) have less formal structures – although member conservancies still meet regularly.

During 2010 a total of 34 conservancies held their AGMs, at which 28 presented Annual Financial Reports. By the end of 2010, 47 conservancies had established management plans. The challenge remains to implement these plans fully, and revise and update them when appropriate. Local-level monitoring and compliance, as with each of the management aspects mentioned above, require ongoing support from MET and NGOs as well as other local partners.

An increasing number of conservancies are putting HIV/AIDS policies into place (26 completed and 2 drafted) as well as associated action plans (28). Conservancies are recognising the mounting threat that the pandemic is posing to their management directly, and to conservancy achievements more broadly. More than 300 Peer Educators have been trained within the 59 registered conservancies.



BENEFITS: FINANCIAL AND ECONOMIC GAINS

CHAPTER 5



sources and uses of financial and economic gains



Rural people's livelihoods are based on natural resources. Supporting the sustainable use of natural resources – and in doing so improving the livelihoods of rural people – is a key aim of the Namibian CBNRM Programme. *Figure 8* reflects the growing value of cash and in-kind benefits generated through new or additional activities, which give many households access to cash and other benefits that they never had before, and that would not have been possible prior to the passage of innovative conservancy legislation in 1996.

In 2010, most benefits were generated through conservancies, with the 'earning power' of conservancy-based activities being greater than that of all other CBNRM activities. Conservancies earned more than N\$39.5 million, which represents approximately 86 per cent of the total CBNRM income of N\$45,817,592. *Table 5* also shows additional income of more than N\$6.3 million from other CBNRM activities. This income is generated from activities that are either outside conservancies or (in the case of those

— a review of progress - 2010

NAMIBIA'S communal conservancies

inside conservancies) where there is no formal relationship between the particular enterprise and the conservancy. This can occur where the enterprise predates the formation of the conservancy.

The majority of this N\$6.3 million is generated by small tourism enterprises (campsites, traditional villages and tour guiding), thatching grass and community forests.

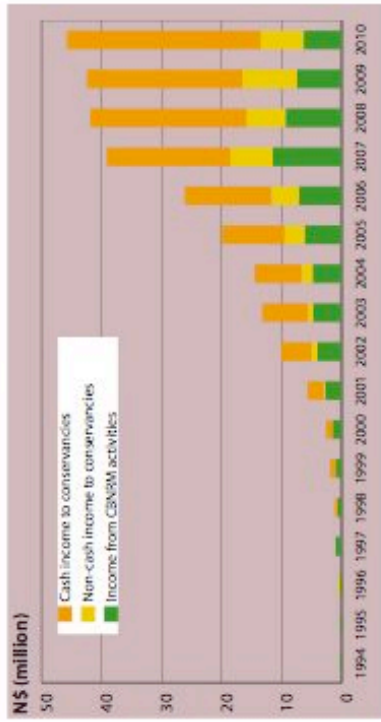
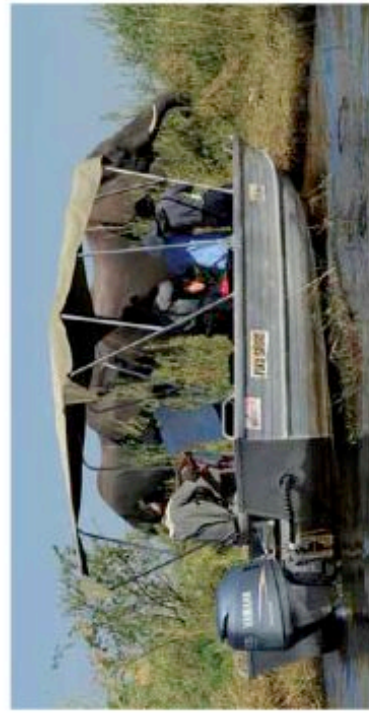


Figure 8. Incomes from CBNRM have risen from zero in 1994 to more than N\$45 million in 2010. The graph divides income into three categories: cash income to conservancies, non-cash income to conservancies, and income from (other) CBNRM activities. Information prior to 1998 did not allow for income to be disaggregated into these categories. The actual values are shown in Namibian \$ in Table 5 below, and cover incomes to both registered and non-registered conservancies.



Year	Cash income to conservancies	Non-cash income to conservancies	Income from CBNRM activities	Total
1994				0
1995				160,000
1996				560,850
1997				860,110
1998	592,467	0	559,309	1,151,776
1999	980,724	537,412	921,687	2,439,823
2000	1,138,258	891,200	1,441,802	3,471,260
2001	2,741,124	639,610	2,743,401	6,124,195
2002	5,110,734	1,965,086	4,054,132	11,129,952
2003	7,692,037	1,006,148	4,894,870	13,593,055
2004	7,807,450	1,748,490	4,661,537	14,217,467
2005	10,438,142	3,310,422	6,197,204	19,945,767
2006	14,506,221	4,539,632	7,132,551	26,178,404
2007	20,582,769	7,065,336	11,479,898	39,127,962
2008	26,010,255	6,486,754	9,391,853	41,889,863
2009	26,910,349	9,102,510	7,459,156	42,481,015
2010	32,295,243	7,170,119	6,346,230	45,811,592

Table 5. The total value of conservancy and CBNRM income each year in N\$

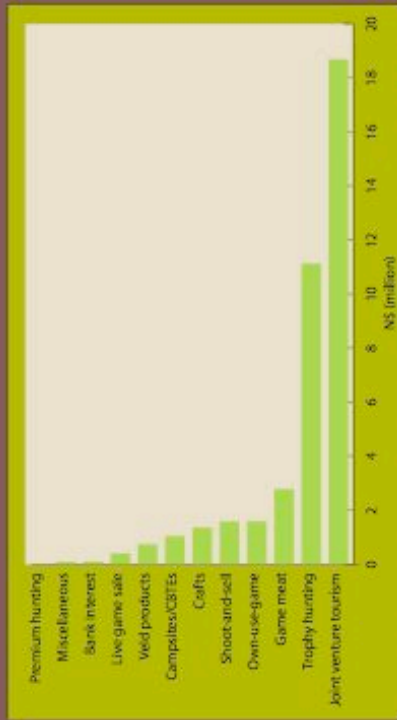


Figure 6. The main sources of incomes from conservancies during 2010. All incomes are as cash except those listed as 'Use of own game' and 'Trophy meat distribution'. The actual values in the graph are shown in Table 6.

Source of Income	Value in N\$	Percentage of conservancy income
Joint Venture Tourism	18,662,342	47.3%
Trophy Hunting	11,173,728	28.2%
Own Use Game	1,537,030	4.0%
Game Meat (Net)	2,778,500	7.0%
Shoot and Sell	1,577,892	4.0%
Crafts	1,355,861	3.4%
Campfire/BBQ	1,036,448	2.6%
Wild products	736,549	1.9%
Live Game Sale	396,900	1.0%
Premium hunting	7,500	0.0%
Bank interest	95,407	0.2%
Miscellaneous	89,055	0.2%
TOTAL	39,469,383	100%

Table 6. The value of conservancy income from different sources in 2008, and the percentages that each source contributed to all conservancy-generated income.

Conservancies obtain benefits from a variety of different sources (see Figure 9). Income in the form of direct payments to conservancies and wages comes mainly from joint venture lodges, trophy hunting, small enterprises (e.g., campfires), craft sales, and the sale of game. In addition, some benefits are non-financial or in-kind – such as meat from hunting, or other contributions (computers, education materials,





equipment, etc.) to local social or economic development activities – primarily made by joint venture partners. In 2010 non-financial benefits accounted for 16% of the total (see Table 5).

By far the most lucrative source of income to conservancies is from joint venture tourism lodges and camps, in which conservancies negotiate a levy or income-sharing agreement. A total of N\$18,682,342 of cash and in-kind benefits were earned from these ventures during 2010, representing 47% of all conservancy income. This is a clear indication of the successful approach of bringing registered conservancies with tourism potential together with private sector investors, who recognise a viable tourism opportunity and help conservancies 'unlock' this potential.

At the end of 2010 there were 24 formal joint venture agreements that were operational and generating income for conservancies. A further six conservancies were receiving income from operators for traversing conservancy land or for resource utilisation. In addition, there are currently six potential joint venture agreements under negotiation.

Trophy hunting concessions currently provide the second highest source of income for conservancies, in 2010 generating N\$13.9 million of which 80% (or N\$11,123,728) was from concession fees and salaries, and 20% (N\$2,776,500) from meat distribution. By the end of 2010, 33 concessions, extending over 34 conservancies, had been allocated to professional hunters.

In 2010, the total income generated from direct wildlife utilisation was N\$17 million (or 43% of all conservancy income), with the key activities being trophy hunting, 'premium hunting', 'own use hunting' and 'shoot and sell'. Of the total generated, approximately N\$4.36 million was in the form of game meat that was distributed among members of conservancies, a key form of benefits for local people.

All other sources of conservancy income were considerably smaller than those provided by joint venture lodges and camps and trophy hunting/wildlife utilisation. While these other income categories are relatively small in overall terms, they do provide substantial benefits to some conservancies and to individual members, for example women in the case of crafts, thatching grass and indigenous natural products.



Conservancy distribution and use of benefits falls into six main categories. Of the 59 registered conservancies, 45 earned some form of cash income during 2010. Forty-one of this group of conservancies are contributing funds to the operational costs of the conservancy, with 23 conservancies operating independently of donor support. Conservancies covered the majority of the costs of 619 conservancy management jobs from own generated income in 2010 (of which 148 jobs, or 31%, were held by women). In addition to conservancy management jobs, a further 717 full time and 3,044 part time jobs were created within registered conservancies. A number of conservancies (14) distributed cash either to individual members or to villages in the conservancy. Many contributed to their own capital development projects, such as the development of water points for game (Nyae Nyae) or the installation of water infrastructure for people (Tsiseb).

A number of conservancies used funds for a range of social benefits, including school bursaries, water installations, cash for school development, soup kitchens for pensioners, contributions to traditional authorities and, in some cases, support for families affected by HIV/AIDS. During the year, N\$4.36 million worth of household game meat from various forms of hunting was distributed to households within conservancies, with additional amounts going to local schools and pensioners.

As noted above, cash payments were made in several conservancies (14 recorded) but a growing trend within conservancies is towards pooling money at conservancy or sub-unit (village) level for use in projects or other income-generating activities.

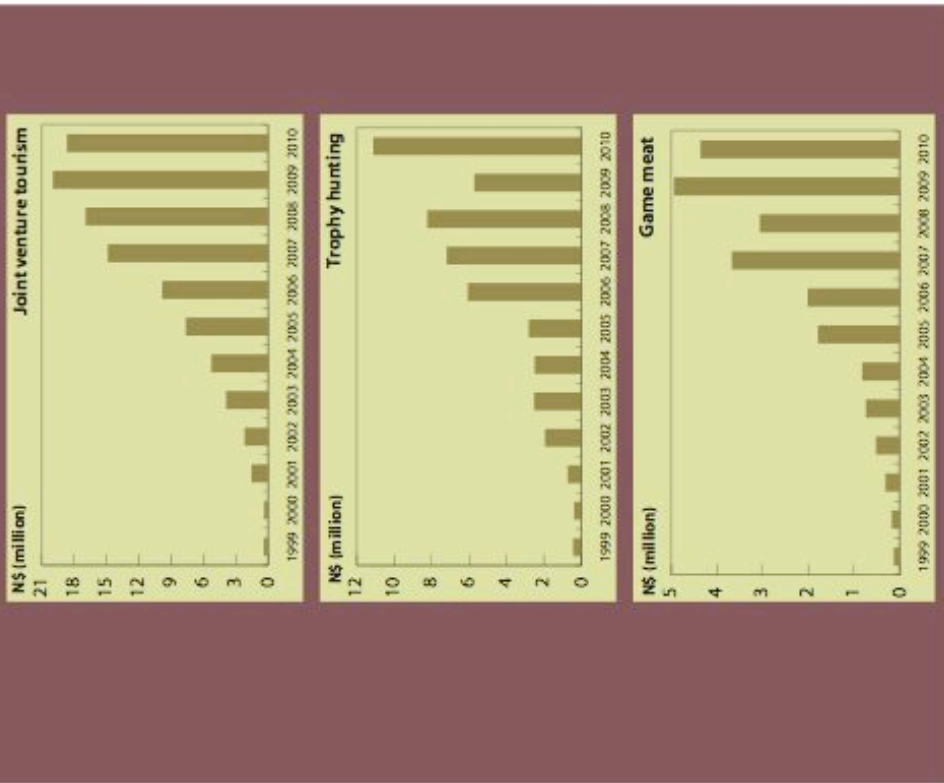
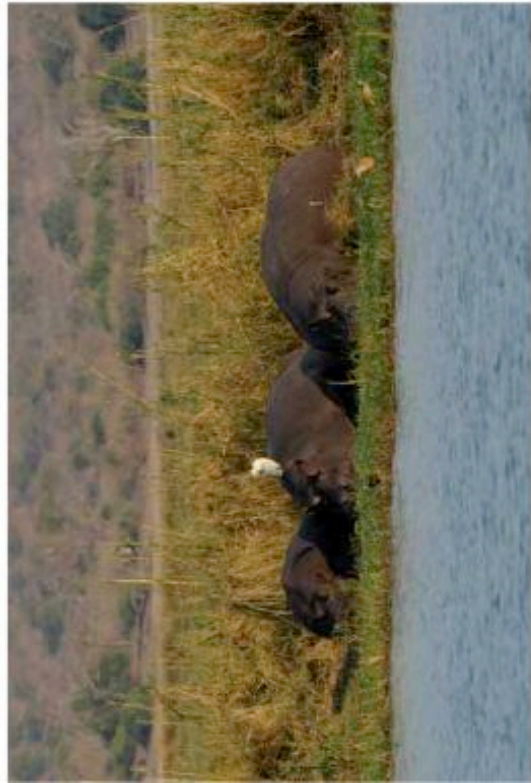
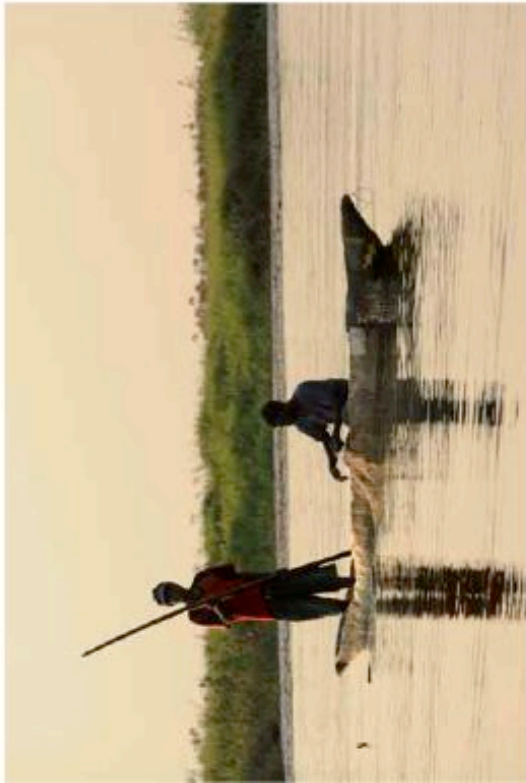
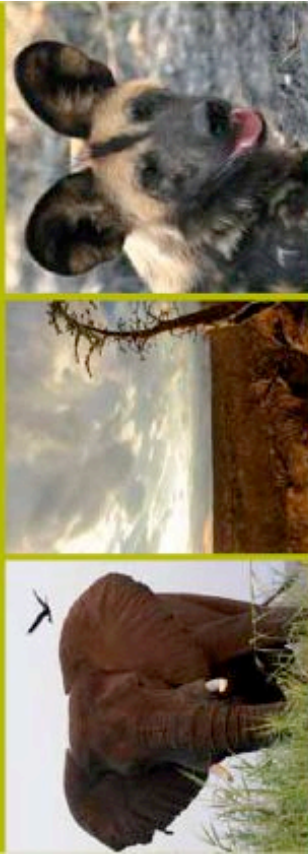


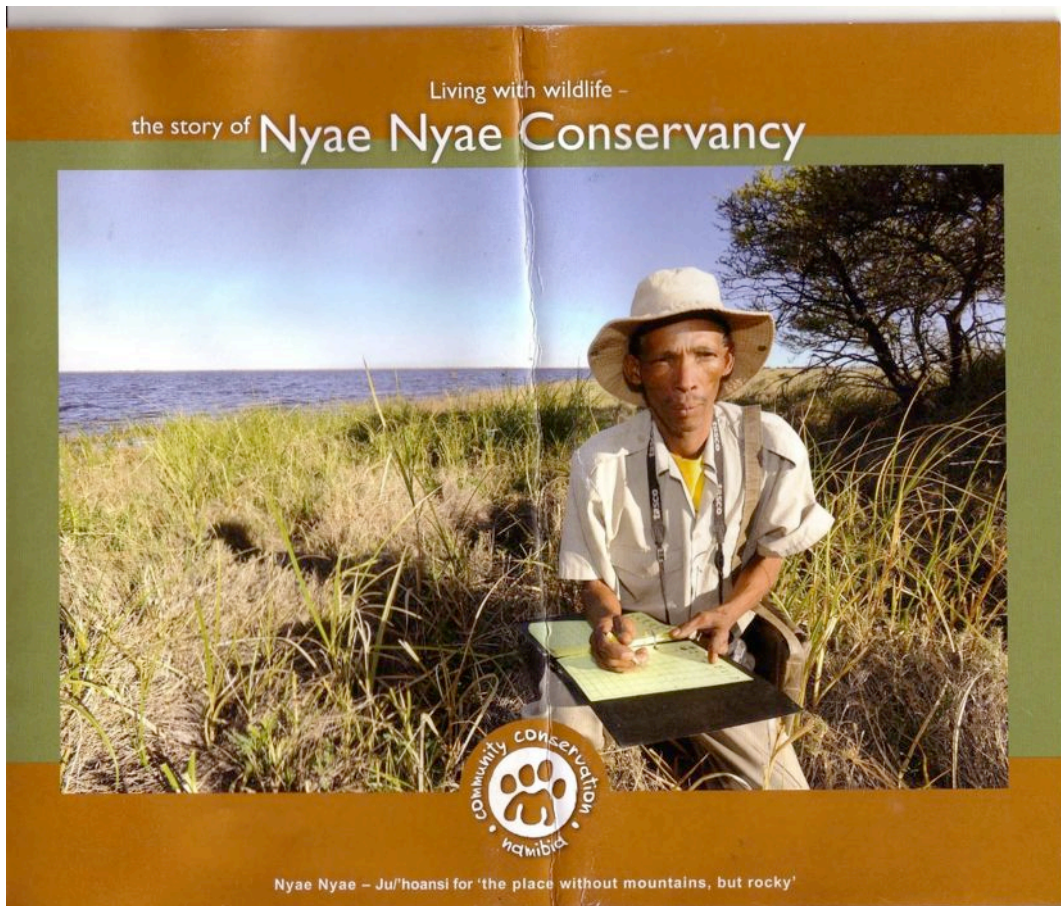
Figure 10. Between 1998 and 2010, incomes from joint venture tourism increased 46-fold and those from trophy hunting 24-fold, while incomes from game meat rose 34-fold. Game meat values showed a decrease in 2010, largely due to the lack of a hunting concession being issued in Bwabwata National Park, from which the Kyeramacan Association members usually receive valuable meat.



Conservancies grew from the recognition that wildlife and other natural resources had disappeared in many areas and that the livelihoods of communities could be improved if these losses were reversed. In essence, conservancies are now legal institutions which give rural people the right to use, manage and benefit from wildlife within geographically defined areas. In Namibia, conservancies have helped:

- Bring new sets of natural resources into production
- Expand areas managed for wildlife and other natural resources
- Boost the abundance and productivity of natural resources
- Create incentives to manage wildlife and other natural resources sustainably
- Unlock the economic potential of wildlife, land and tourism in communal areas
- Promote the establishment of local management institutions
- Build local empowerment and skills.





Living with wildlife – the story of **NYAE NYAE CONSERVANCY**

Conservancies
enable development and conservation over large areas...

MILESTONES AND SUCCESSES

- 1981 – an NGO that over time evolves into the Nyae Nyae Development Foundation of Namibia is formed to support the community
- 1994 – the Nyae Nyae community begins the process to register as a conservancy
- 1996 – policy changes allow communal area residents to benefit from wildlife and tourism by forming conservancies
- 1998 – Nyae Nyae Conservancy is registered in February, becoming the first communal conservancy in Namibia
- 1998 – the Nyae Nyae Conservancy office is established at Barakka
- 99-05 – each year, wildlife is re-introduced into the conservancy, including springbok, red hartebeest, gemsbok, eland, kudu and blue wildebeest, with a total of 2,200 animals being introduced
- 2001 – an annual game count is started in Nyae Nyae
- 2002 – the Event Book monitoring system is implemented in Nyae Nyae
- 2003 – the conservancy office is moved to Tsumkwe
- 04/05 – a large game-proof camp is erected to manage the remaining Nyae Nyae buffalo population and avoid contact with livestock
- 2005 – the Nyae Nyae Trust is formed
- 2008 – black rhino are re-introduced into the conservancy
- 2008 – an application is lodged with the Ministry of Environment & Tourism to extend the borders of the conservancy to include the village of N'homa
- 2011 – an application is lodged with the Ministry of Agriculture to register Nyae Nyae Community Forest, having the same borders and management structures as the conservancy

A CONSERVANCY IS...

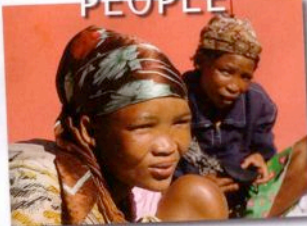
- a legally registered area with clearly defined borders and a constituted management body run by the community for the development of residents and the sustainable use of wildlife and tourism
- managed by a group elected to serve the interests of all its members
- a place where residents can add income from wildlife and tourism to traditional farming activities
- a place where wildlife populations increase as they are managed for productive gain
- a place where the value of the natural resources increases, enhancing the value of the land
- a forum through which services and developments can be channelled and integrated
- zoned for multiple uses to minimise conflict and maximise the interests of all stakeholders

QUICK FACTS

Region: Otjozondjupa	Size: 8,992 square kilometres
Approximate population: 2,300	Main language: Ju/'hoansi
Date of registration: February 1998	

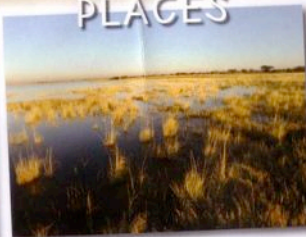
NYAE NYAE offers an enchanting mix of

PEOPLE



interesting cultures and dynamic communities committed to sustainability – people living in Nyae Nyae share a common vision for managing their area and its resources

PLACES



vast, diverse and spectacular landscapes – Nyae Nyae Pans, bushland, magical baobabs... a healthy environment diversifies economic opportunities and drives economic growth

& WILDLIFE



charismatic, free-roaming wildlife – elephant, lion, leopard, wild dog, diverse plains game, abundant birdlife... wildlife generates a variety of benefits for local people

people are living with wildlife, are managing natural resources wisely and are reaping the benefits...

A LITTLE HISTORY

Prior to Namibia's independence in 1990, communal area residents had few rights to use wildlife. Wild animals were often seen as little more than a threat to crops, livestock and infrastructure, as well as community safety. Ground-breaking legislation passed in the mid-nineties laid the foundation for a new approach to the sustainable use of natural resources. By forming a conservancy, people in communal areas can now actively manage – and generate benefits from – wildlife and other resources in their area, encouraging wildlife recoveries and environmental restoration. While a conservancy is a natural resource management structure, it is defined by social ties. Conservancies unite groups of people with the common goal of managing their resources. Today, over 60 communal conservancies embrace one in four rural Namibians, underlining a national commitment to both rural development and conservation.

Nyae Nyae is the oldest, as well as the second largest conservancy in the country, covering close to 9,000 square kilometres. Most of the 2,300

residents are from the Ju/'hoansi ethnic group, a sub-group of the San. Historically, the Nyae Nyae area occupied by the Ju/'hoansi stretched into Botswana in the east, north beyond what is today Khaudum National Park, south to the settlements of Eiseb and Gam and west beyond the settlement of Aasvoëlnes. Today, Botswana creates the eastern border of the conservancy, while to the south, west and north, Ondjou and N#̂a-Jagna Conservancies and Khaudum National Park adjoin Nyae Nyae, and in turn border onto other conservancies to form a huge contiguous conservation landscape.

The long process to mobilise, unite and support the Nyae Nyae community in forming a conservancy in a sense already began prior to Namibia's independence. In 1981, what is today the Nyae Nyae Development Foundation was formed to support the community in development and resource management. By the time the conservancy legislation was passed in 1996, the Nyae Nyae community was well placed to register the conservancy, which was gazetted in early 1998.

San or Bushman? Both terms have a slightly derogatory origin. Bushman originates from the Dutch word bosjeman - an outcast who lives in the bush. San comes from the Nama 'saa', referring to poor people without cattle. While the Regional San Conference of 1993 adopted San as the official term, Bushman has also lost much of its negative connotation and today is taken to refer more to the great environmental knowledge and bush skills of the San.

RESOURCES AND ATTRACTIONS

Conservancies are living landscapes...

The culture of the San is legendary, an often idealised icon of a balanced existence within the natural environment. The San have superb hunting skills and 'bush knowledge'. Their keen perception and understanding of the environment has allowed them to live in inhospitable ecosystems such as the Kalahari for countless generations. Nyae Nyae is rich in archeological artefacts and recent finds indicate a presence of people from the Middle Stone Age. It seems likely that the ancestors of the Ju/'hoansi have roamed across the area for thousands of years and their traditional knowledge and skills have great value.

stalking through African wilderness with a band of hunters, meandering through the veld gathering food, huddled around the evening fire watching traditional dances... the San culture has the power to inspire in us a search for a more harmonised existence

Today, most people in Nyae Nyae no longer live an active hunter-gatherer lifestyle and find themselves very much in a state of cultural transition and social change. Yet wonderful living museums make the past accessible again – for both visitors and a new generation of San no longer in touch with their heritage. 'Keeping our culture alive for our children is one of the most important aspects of the living museum' says Komtsa Daqm, a museum guide.

The vast, mostly unfenced Nyae Nyae environment retains a strong wilderness atmosphere, which is enhanced by the fascination of the San culture. Located on the western rim of the Kalahari Basin – the largest accumulation of sand in the world – much of Nyae Nyae is covered by wind blown sands. Areas of rocky ground retain seasonal surface water in the so called 'pannetjiesveld' (area of many pans). Here the Nyae Nyae Pans become a very important wetland after good rains. Nyae Nyae is generally flat, varying between 1,100 and 1,200 metres above sea level. The Aha Hills in the far south east of the conservancy create the only real topographical variation.

Huge baobabs punctuate the savanna woodland and create a sense of ancient Africa. Rainfall in Nyae Nyae is low and unpredictable, with an annual average of around 450 millimetres. The harshness of the environment is increased by high temperatures and extremely high evaporation. However, the water table is close to the surface, generally lying between two and 25 metres. All these environmental factors contribute to

interesting habitat variations and the highest biodiversity found in the communal areas of the Otjozondjupa Region.





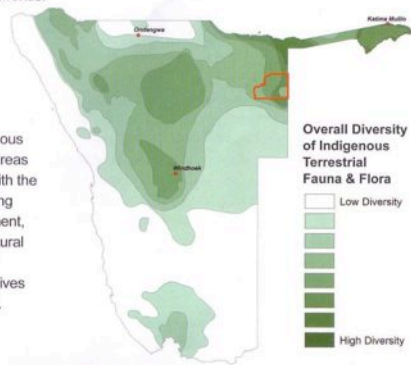
hartebeest, springbok, duiker, steenbok, warthog, spotted and brown hyaena, cheetah and jackal. More than 200 bird species have been recorded in the conservancy. Birding around the seasonal Nyae Nyae Pans is spectacular after good rains, when more than 10,000 waterbirds of over 80 species gather here, including great painted snipes, flamingos, wattled cranes and breeding slaty egrets. The area has been designated an Important Bird Area by Birdlife International and is eligible for Ramsar Site status.

Nyae Nyae is also rich in flora, and over 100 species of edible plants are utilized by the San. Huge baobabs are the most distinctive feature of many landscapes, but many other plants are of interest and importance, including manketti, leadwood, terminalia, false mopane and a variety of acacia trees, as well as devil's claw and Kalahari melon.

a seemingly endless world of bushland and pannetjiesveld, dotted here and there with the magical shapes of baobabs and brought to life by the mere expectation of seeing game, by the calls of lion and hyaena at night — and by the light tread of the first people

Since the establishment of conservancies, **wildlife** numbers in communal areas have rebounded from historic lows prior to independence. Nyae Nyae is one of the last refuges of the African wild dog in Namibia and the only place in the country where all of the Big Five occur – elephant, black rhino, lion, buffalo and leopard. Other mammals include giraffe, eland, kudu, blue wildebeest, roan, gemsbok,

Around Nyae Nyae... The nearby Khaudum National Park is known especially for its numbers of elephant and roan, as well as for its wilderness flair. Both Nyae Nyae and Khaudum form part of the Kavango Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA). The initiative links five countries and is one of the largest contiguous conservation areas in the world, with the aim of facilitating wildlife movement, conserving natural resources and improving the lives of rural people.



LIVELIHOODS AND DEVELOPMENT

Conservancies empower rural people...

With a national **population** of around 30,000 the San constitute less than two percent of the total Namibian population and have the lowest per capita income of all language groups in the country. Many communities rely on a variety of support and are challenged by social disintegration, alcohol abuse and poverty. Only around 15 percent of San in Namibia have resource utilisation rights to land. The literacy rate is low at around 20%, with school attendance at only half the national average. The few opportunities for formal employment are thus further inhibited by limited levels of formal education. The San have negligible representation in government and the Ju/'hoansi are one of only two out of



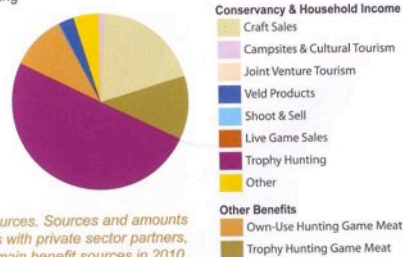
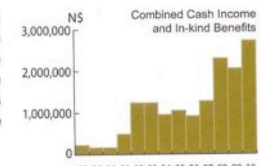
Nyae Nyae facilitates access to diverse training and capacity building, empowers individuals, especially women, to actively take part in decision-making, as well as instilling a renewed sense of pride in cultural heritage

the six San traditional authorities who have received official recognition. All this is the result of many years of marginalisation.

A variety of **development** initiatives by both government and non-government organisations over the last 30 years have attempted to move the San into modern society. Schools and health facilities have been developed, permanent water points have been established and livestock herding and gardening have been promoted. These activities have had a large influence on San culture. The Nyae Nyae Conservancy has returned natural resource user rights to the Ju/'hoansi community. San traditionally live in small groups in a democratic society that has never been structured into typical tribal leadership systems. Each group has a home ground or *n/ore* with exclusive resource use rights. Around 40 settlements are spread throughout the conservancy.

Tsumkwe, originally a *n/ore* water source, was established as the administrative centre of the area in 1959. An area of 30 square kilometres around Tsumkwe is excluded from the conservancy. The small town is the only place to buy goods and provides access to a combined school, a clinic and other government **facilities and services**. The nearest

hospitals lie outside the conservancy at Mangetti Dune and Grootfontein. There are five primary schools in Nyae Nyae and Ju/'hoan speakers participating in the Village School Programme have access to schooling in their mother tongue.



Benefits to the conservancy and its members come from a variety of sources. Sources and amounts vary from year to year, depending on factors such as agreements with private sector partners, and market fluctuations. The pie chart shows the main benefit sources in 2010.



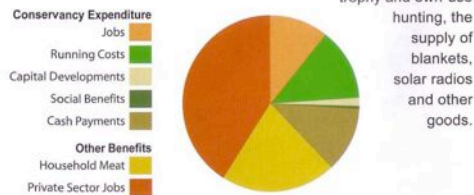
Harvesting of devil's claw for the health industry is practiced widely, providing income to around 300 to 400 harvesters. Craft production has become an important source of income for both men and women, with over 300 craft producers in the conservancy. While the men concentrate on producing traditional implements such as bows and arrows, women create exquisite ostrich egg shell jewellery and other beautiful items. The Ghunku Crafts shop, located next to the conservancy office, is a superb local outlet for these crafts.

The C44 gravel road provides **access for visitors** to the area, connecting Tsumkwe with the B8 tar road between Grootfontein and Rundu in the west, as well as the Dobe border post leading to Botswana in the east. Four wheel drive is needed beyond the gravel road, both within Nyae Nyae and to access Khaudum, or when proceeding into Botswana.

the conservancy is enabling a range of new livelihood options for its residents, including tourism, craft production, hunting and indigenous plant harvesting, all of which enable the Ju/'hoansi to utilise their traditional knowledge and skills

The people of Nyae Nyae today survive on a complex mix of **livelihood activities**. Veld food and occasional hunting still supplement other food sources, while livestock herding and small scale gardening are becoming increasingly important. The conservancy itself, as well as related natural resource use activities, provide employment and other benefits. The conservancy has paid for the development of numerous boreholes and distributes individual benefits each year, including annual cash payments, meat from trophy and own-use

The Tsumkwe Country Lodge, located in the town, is currently the only fixed **tourism** accommodation. While it does not have a formal relationship with the conservancy, lodge activities include village visits to the living museums at Mountain Pos and Dou Pos, with income going directly to the villages. Another excellent cultural experience, the Living Hunter's Museum, is located at //Xa/oba village along the track to Khaudum and includes a campsite. Wilderness campsites are also located at Makuri, Djokwe and Kremetartkop and, although underutilised, provide nearby villages with some income.



hunting, the supply of blankets, solar radios and other goods.

Trophy hunting is currently the biggest source of income for the conservancy and also provides important employment. The area has yielded superb trophies and is considered one of the foremost big game hunting concessions in Namibia.

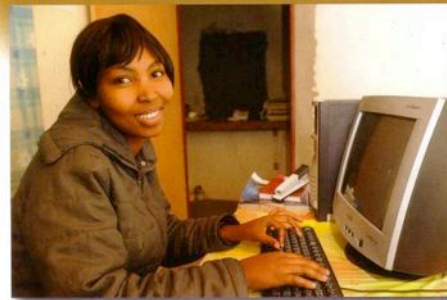
Nyae Nyae has received a lot of attention from local and international film teams and photographers, and the conservancy has received income from filming and photographic fees, although guidelines for these activities need to be improved and enforced.

The conservancy spends money and provides community and individual benefits in various areas. Areas and amounts vary from year to year, depending on factors such as conservancy income and priorities. Private sector jobs are created through agreements with private sector partners. The pie chart shows the main expenditure and benefit areas in 2010.

MANAGING NATURAL RESOURCES

Conservancies facilitate sustainability...

Nyae Nyae is divided into four areas for management purposes. The **management structure** includes the conservancy board, made up of representatives of each area, as well as the paid positions of chairperson and conservancy manager. The board focuses on appointing the management committee and manager, as well as on strategic planning. The management committee consists of a minimum of five members, including the conservancy manager. It appoints staff, supervises performance and makes short term decisions. Employees include 14 rangers, a CBNRM field officer, three water team staff, a craft trainer, a craft shop coordinator (funded through shop income), a devil's



the Nyae Nyae Conservancy provides vital structures for managing the communal natural resources of the area in a way that enhances development and ensures sustainability

claw coordinator, an agriculture coordinator, an office administrator and a cleaner. Annual general meetings are attended by village representatives, the board and the management committee and are used to decide on benefit distribution, elect board members and the chairperson, approve annual budgets and work plans, as well as deliberate on strategies or programme amendments. The conservancy office is located in Tsumkwe and integrates Ghunku Crafts. The office is owned by the conservancy, which also owns two four-wheel drives. Conservancy funds are spent on running costs, community development and individual benefit distribution. The funds are managed by a trust administered by the Nyae Nyae Development Foundation.

Activities... The conservancy is based on the traditional Ju/'hoansi *n!ore* land management system, which was recognised by government in 1991. Members have the right to hunt approved game within their *n!ore* on foot with bow and arrows, spears or bird traps. Hunting is reported to the *n!ore* owner and records are submitted to conservancy rangers and the Ministry of Environment & Tourism (MET). The conservancy has been zoned for a variety of land uses, including hunting and tourism.

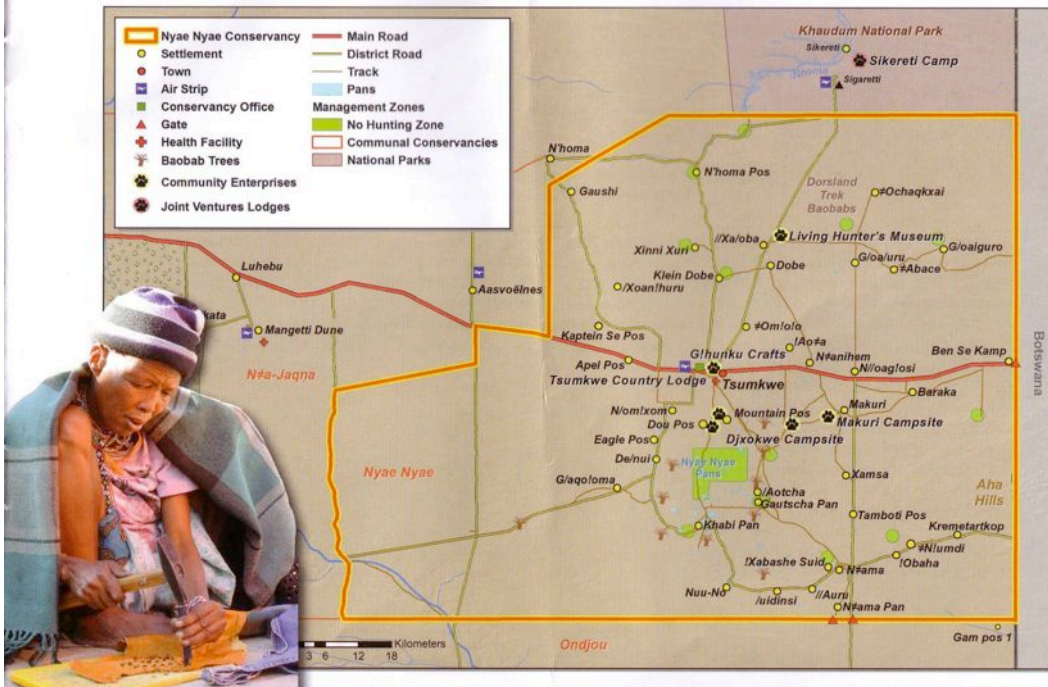
Wildlife reintroductions have significantly boosted game numbers and increased the value of the area for tourism and trophy hunting. An annual game count, done as a simultaneous 'full moon count' at waterholes in the conservancy, is carried out in collaboration with the MET and the support of NGOs. Conservancy rangers also do active natural resource monitoring through the Event Book monitoring system, recording data such as game sightings, human wildlife conflict, poaching incidents, game utilisation and any other data deemed important by the conservancy. All data is aggregated into monthly and annual reporting charts that facilitate adaptive management. Based on the game count and Event Book information, the MET sets annual quotas for using wildlife.

The conservancy is active in mitigating human wildlife conflict. With support from the Nyae Nyae Development Foundation and other NGOs, the conservancy has developed 'elephant proof water reservoirs for villages, which has reduced conflicts with elephants to isolated problems at gardens. A system of providing financial offsets for losses is being implemented through the National Policy on Human Wildlife Conflict Management. It will be applied by the conservancy with MET assistance.

the conservancy uses a mix of modern technologies and traditional knowledge and skills to enable healthy wildlife populations, a productive environment, and the effective management of natural resources

A grazing management project seeks to ensure sustainable use of rangeland and mitigate the effects of overgrazing. The conservancy has also attempted to address repeated illegal livestock incursions from neighbouring communal areas. The devil's claw coordinator helps with sustainable harvesting methods and the required permit system, as well

as collecting harvests for sale. Further support for the sector is provided by the Centre for Research Information Action in Africa (CRIAA-SADC) and the Millennium Challenge Account - Namibia (MCA). In order to better manage all plant resources of the area, a community forest is in the process of formation, which will be directly integrated with the conservancy.



CHALLENGES, OPPORTUNITIES...

Conservancies are full of opportunities...

The wonderful mixture of environmental and cultural resources provides largely untapped potential in Nyae Nyae.

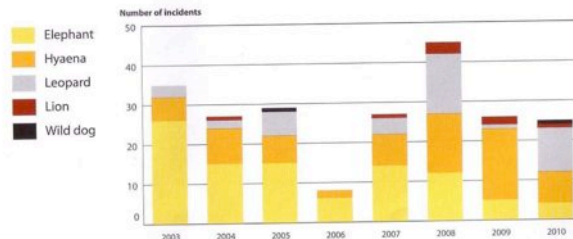
Challenges... The San culture is in a state of transition and is susceptible to external pressures, requiring sensitive and well-coordinated developments. Numerous government and NGO support agencies, with a mix of emphasis on social, religious, agricultural and environmental aspects, are active in Nyae Nyae. A more integrated approach to the various activities can facilitate a broader range of benefits for residents.

Nyae Nyae harbours great potential to overcome the social and environmental challenges that the area seems to face — and the conservancy is the ideal structure to coordinate many of the developments

Human wildlife conflict is a challenge where ever people coexist with wild animals, especially if these include elephants and large predators. The creation of artificial water points has increased the resident elephant population in Nyae Nyae, which poses a threat to the area's woodlands, especially in the vicinity of water. Nonetheless, human elephant conflicts have been significantly reduced through village water point protection measures and water points for game. With increases in livestock, predator problems are also increasing. At least some of these can be mitigated by herding livestock and keeping it in secure enclosures at night. Importantly, predators and elephants are of great value, both to the ecosystem and to tourism, and in the long run the benefits gained from these species should outweigh the costs of living with them. Human wildlife conflicts can be further mitigated through actively enforced zoning that sets aside different areas for wildlife and agricultural uses.



There are many unrealised tourism **opportunities** within Nyae Nyae, as well as the greater region. The mixture of the iconic San culture and authentic wilderness experiences provides various development options. Interpretation through qualified guiding and excellent information materials can make the complexity of modern San existence and the diversity of the environment accessible to visitors.



Human wildlife conflicts are monitored using the Event Book, indicating trends and improvements, such as reduced elephant conflicts achieved through water point protection measures.



strategic development, sensitive to social and cultural dynamics as well as the environment, can facilitate a bright future for the oldest and second largest conservancy in Namibia

A variety of **plans** for tourism development in Nyae Nyae exist. These need to be well coordinated and should receive continued input from tourism experts. While the planned developments are likely to fill most current gaps in accommodation needs, it is the interpretation of the products and the enhancement of the areas resources that can unlock the full potential. Tourism products could include well laid-out



... AND THE FUTURE

four-by-four routes with wilderness camping, serviced campsites near roads but away from larger settlements, luxury lodges and tented camps, high quality local guiding, birding and other special interest tours. Improvements to the current infrastructure in Khaudum, including the state of artificial waterholes, can facilitate the establishment of the Khaudum tourism route while maintaining the area's wilderness appeal. The development of tourism routes through Nyae Nyae and Khaudum into the Caprivi or Botswana can help the area become one of Namibia's primary wilderness tourism destinations.

Hunting forms an integral part of the San culture. Trophy hunting can play a vital role, providing significant income to the conservancy through concession fees, as well as creating employment that utilises

traditional San hunting skills. The superb hunting potential of the vast area in conjunction with the San culture creates a unique and very valuable product. Zoning is especially important to maximise the potential of tourism and hunting products and strengthen core wildlife areas and tourism sites.

Developments should work through the conservancy or coordinate with it, as well as working with the Nyae Nyae Development Foundation. Strategic, well coordinated initiatives can unlock the full value of the area's wildlife and natural plant products, the traditional knowledge and skills of the San, and of course both cultural and wilderness tourism, as well as trophy hunting and other forms of sustainable use. Numerous options exist that can enable a bright future for the conservancy.

Come to Nyae Nyae - be part of the future...




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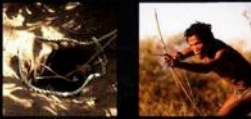
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Annexe 16 : Présentation Ju/'Hoansi Living Museum



THE HUNTER'S EXPERIENCE

An independent branch of the Ju/'Hoansi Living Museum is the Hunter's Museum. Apart from getting to know the ancient culture of the San, this museum specialises in providing visitors with a traditional hunting experience.




CAMPING

A basic but beautiful campsite next to the Living Museum is available.

GPS coordinates:
S 19°25.298, E 20°34.434

LOCATION & CONTACT




Distances

	Ju/'Hoansi	Hunter's
Rundu	285 km	420 km
Grootfontein	140 km	305 km
Tsumkwe	135 km	30 km
Kaudom	165 km	30 km


Email: contact@lcfn.info | Web: www.lcfn.info

The Living Museum is supported and recommended by

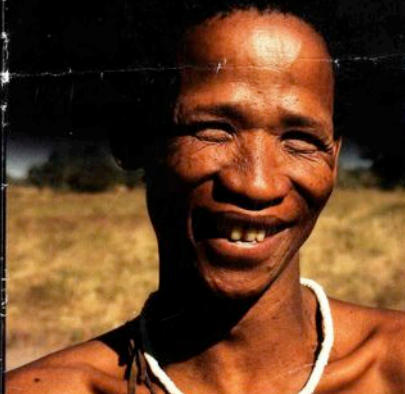
THE LIVING CULTURE FOUNDATION
NAMIBIA




This brochure is printed with support from the Millennium Challenge Account Namibia



JU/'HOANSI LIVING MUSEUM



EXPERIENCE TRADITIONAL SAN CULTURE IN NAMIBIA







THE LIVING MUSEUM

The Living Museum is an authentic open-air museum where guests can experience and learn about traditional San culture.

SAN CULTURE

The culture of the San is known as one of world's oldest cultures. However, the original traditions are at risk of getting lost with modernisation. The Living Museum is a means of preserving and sharing San traditions.









PROGRAMS

The secret of the Ju/'Hoansi Living Museum lies in the various interactive activities which visitors can participate in, such as:

Hunting, tracking, collecting bush food, making a fire the traditional way, preparing snares and ropes, making bows, arrows and quivers, using a bow and arrow, throwing a spear, playing games, experience a traditional doctor healing a patient and much more.



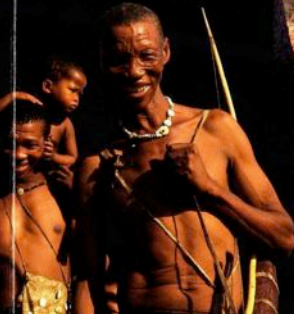



SPEND THE NIGHT UNDER A MILLION STARS

Under Mangetti trees in the midst of the Kalahari bush visitors will find a unique place to rest and spend the night.

There are three camping sites available each with a dry toilet, bucket shower and braai facilities.

GPS coordinates: S 19°14.320, E 19°14.578



Khaudum National Park

Khaudum cautionary tales

Besides the obvious wilderness and isolation of Khaudum, this park offers an experience of a different kind; danger, known to Khaudum staff as a 'vein-opener'. To avoid 'vein-openers', you can follow a few simple guidelines or suggestions. Below, in order of importance for Khaudum specifically, stories of true encounters with wildlife will highlight what to and what not to do.

Elephant – the most abundant and potentially most lethal animal encountered in park.

While inspecting waterholes in June 2008, two MET officials found themselves driving at night.

Do not tempt fate, and by law, do not drive at night.

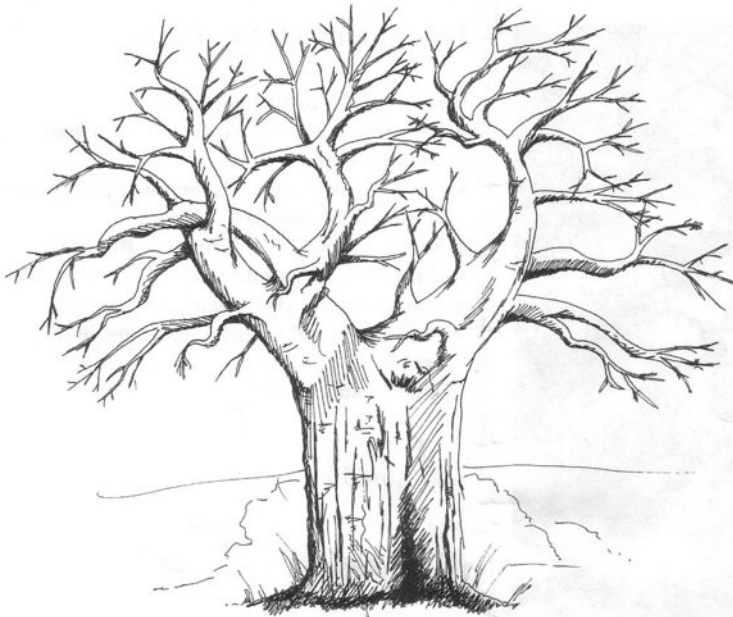
At around 21:00, they spotted an elephant breeding herd crossing the track in front of them, barely visible in the dimmed headlamps of the vehicle. They stopped and waited for the herd to cross and clear the road. "It is amazing how these grey giants just melt into the bush, surprising considering their body size. The African elephant is a master of disguise."

Take your time. Don't only look at the bush next to the road; look beyond, into, over and through them if you can. When in Africa, do like the Africans – be at one with the land.

A couple of minutes passed while the officials' attention was focused on the herd 80 metres in front of them. Then, suddenly and very unexpectedly, a young bull elephant tore through a bush, ten odd metres from the idling vehicle. "We immediately shifted into reverse, with skyrocketing revolutions demanding every joule of energy from the screaming engine. A 'vein-opener' was at hand. Sand spewed out from beneath our wheels as the vehicle retreated, but it was too late. The bull charged with head lowered and trunk tucked beneath the mouth."

The Khaudum demands everything from your vehicle. Be sure it is in top condition and always keep it engaged in 4x4, even if the terrain doesn't demand it. You will need all the power and traction your vehicle has to offer when facing a close encounter.

"Thick loose sand prevented the vehicle from driving away quickly, giving the charging bull enough time to catch up. In what looked like a rehearsed move, the bull scooped up the vehicle with flashing white tusks, lifting the front part clear off the ground. Fortunately by then we already had a fair dose of adrenalin pumping and followed through with the attempt to get away, keeping on the accelerator and moving backwards, albeit only on the two rear wheels."



Get away, as quickly and as effectively as possible. You can worry about the damage to your vehicle later.

"After about 40 metres of playing 'push the wheelbarrow' with a six-ton elephant, we realised that being the wheelbarrow was not that much fun. We started beating on the sides of the doors and fired a few warning shots in the air. This was enough to distract the elephant from its rampage and consequently the vehicle was dropped to the ground. The bull walked away in a calm, proud manner whilst we felt the 'vein-opener' tremors shake through our bodies. We were rescued by fellow MET staff the next morning and the broken-down vehicle (with its seized engine) was pulled to camp."

Elephants are big, and they know it. Should one charge, which will more often than not be a mock charge, the sound of beating metal is the most effective. Beat on the side of your door as a first means of escape, at the same time observing your surroundings for the best getaway. In other words, always keep one eye on the elephant while looking for escape routes with the other eye. Always have a plan. Keep a good distance from elephant herds, especially those with calves.

Spotted hyaena – the most common nocturnal visitors in camps

Both the Sikeretti and Khaudum camps have resident hyaena packs that have marked the tourist sites as their own. They will inspect their territories during the night

hours and carry away anything that smells like food, often left behind by tourists with good intentions.

Do not feed the animals. Pack away all utensils, shoes, grills, pots and pans before calling it a night. Dispose of garbage in provided containers.

Only two human-related incidents have been recorded involving hyaena in the Khaudum National Park. Both incidents, although separate, played off in much the same way. In both cases tourists enjoyed the outdoors a bit too much and ended up in vulnerable sleeping bags on the ground.

Be responsible. Always remember that you are in the wild and that the wild in you can get you injured, or killed.

"As is normal in alcohol-induced stupors, pain comes in a delayed form. And this surely was the case when hyaenas saw the opportunity and started to chew on sleeping, unsuspecting tourists. One tourist lost half of his calf whilst the other got a nasty bite in the face. The following morning the guys were presented with a painful reminder of stupidity."

Hyaenas are known as 'take away' specialists. They bite, rip and run. Be careful. Always sleep in a properly closed tent or bungalow. This 80-kg predator is extremely successful and will take every opportunity presented.

www.met.gov.na



Environmental Care Code

Please adhere to the following:

- Be cautious of elephants and keep well away from breeding herds.
 - For your own safety, travel in the park with a minimum of two 4x4 vehicles.
 - Remove all your rubbish from the park.
 - Light fires only in designated camping areas.
 - Stay on established roads and tracks.
 - Keep to the rules and regulations listed on your permit.
- Enjoy the adventure!

Sponsored by:



Annexe 18 : Minorities in Independent Namibia



report

Minorities in Independent Namibia

By James Suzman



Acknowledgements

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Minority Rights Group International

Minority Rights Group International (MRGI) is a non-governmental organization (NGO) working to secure the rights of ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities and indigenous peoples worldwide, and to promote cooperation and understanding between communities. Our activities are focused on international advocacy, training, publishing and outreach. We are guided by the needs expressed by our worldwide partner network of organizations which represent minority and indigenous peoples.

MRGI works with over 130 organizations in nearly 60 countries. Our governing Council, which meets twice a year, has members from 10 different countries. MRGI has consultative status with the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), and observer status with the African Commission for Human and Peoples' Rights. MRGI is registered as a charity and a company limited by guarantee under English law. Registered charity no. 282305, limited company no. 1544957.

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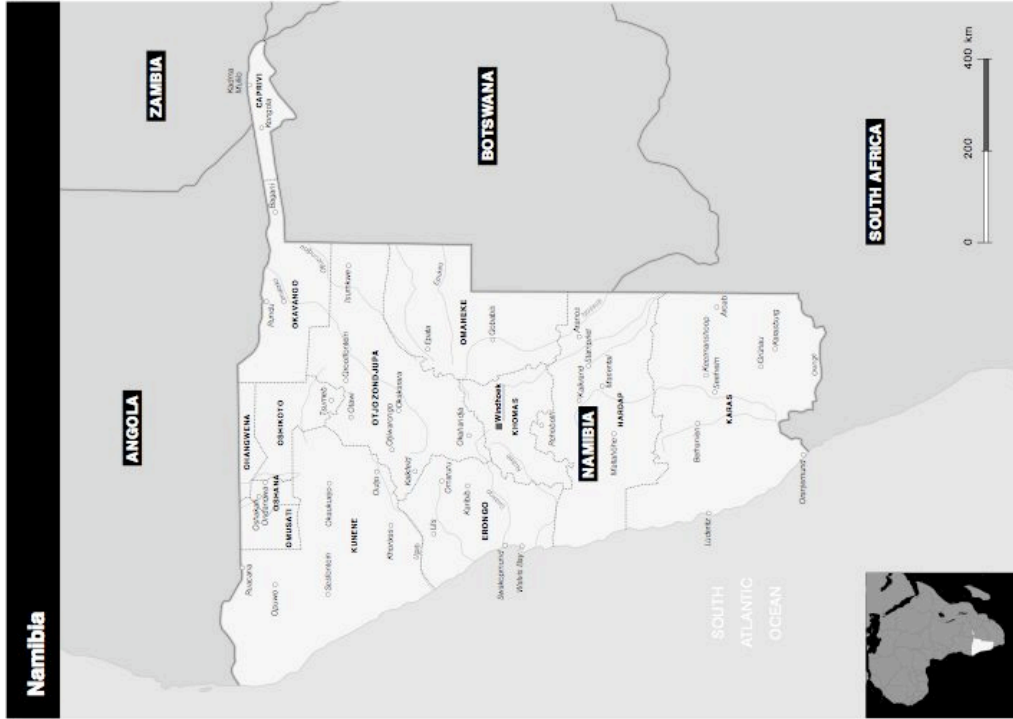
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Minorities in Independent Namibia

By James Suzman

Contents

Map	2
Preface	3
Introduction	4
Minorities in Namibia	6
Historical context	7
Constitutional and legal rights of minorities in independent Namibia	11
Government and governance	15
Minority rights issues	19
Conclusion	29
MRG's Recommendations	30
Relevant international instruments	32
Notes	33
Bibliography	35



Preface

Namibia is the one of the youngest African nations, attaining its independence just 12 years ago. Those who were present at the independence elections in 1989 recall it as a tense time, but also one of euphoria as the members of all the country's diverse communities lined up to exercise their democratic rights. In retrospect, it was a moment which also presaged equally momentous changes in neighbouring South Africa.

Namibia, whose population is estimated to be less than 2 million, is one of the dirtiest yet most mineral-rich countries in the region. In addition to the Owanbo, making up about half the population, the country is composed of people from some 10 other language groups and a range of different communities, including: Basters, Caprivians, Damara, Herero, Himba, Kawango, Nama, San and Seswana. These different ethnic groups reflect not only a picture of a highly heterogeneous population, but also disparate traditions and different histories of 'development'. Some of the above are hunter-gatherers, some are nomadic-pastoralists and others agro-pastoralists. The government of the South West African People's Organization (SWAPO), which has been in power since independence, has been accused of disregarding cultural and ethnic indicators in order to build a new single Namibian culture.

Despite the fact that Namibia is classified as a middle-income country, it exhibits extreme disparities in wealth. The country's wealth and economic opportunities remain concentrated in the hands of a numerically small pre-independence white economic elite, now joined by a growing politically-connected black elite. While disadvantage is widely spread across many groups in Namibia, some minority communities – in particular the San – constitute the poorest of the poor. Some communities of hunter-gatherers and pastoralists have been evicted from their land or are under threat of eviction. This will deprive them of their means of livelihood and deny them access to ancestral land, infringing their economic, social and cultural rights.

Although the Namibian Constitution incorporates a number of important international human rights stan-

ards, the Namibian government has been widely criticized for failing to address and rectify the marginalization of minority communities left behind by the *apartheid* policies of the former South West Africa Administration, and for pursuing a series of 'development' policies which are detrimental to minority communities. Contrary to the provisions of the United Nations (UN) Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities, major 'development' projects in Namibia have been formulated without consultation with minority groups and also without considering the impact on their lives. Such projects, if carried out, would carry a very high risk of negatively affecting minority communities in the country. The case of the Epupa Dam and Kakharri game reserve are two examples.

Disadvantaged communities in Namibia typically lack or have restricted access to basic education, employment, health services and shelter. Many minority communities, due to marginalization, are used as sources of cheap labour and live in segregated conditions. More often than not, other work sectors are also closed to them because of a lack of educational and training opportunities to enable them to compete. Minority women in Namibia face particular challenges. They are doubly disadvantaged, generally poorer and more marginalized than the men.

Minorities in Independent Namibia, written by Dr James Suzman of Cambridge University, provides factual description and analysis of the current situation of minorities in Namibia, and describes how inter-group relations affect them. The report discusses the historical background, the liberation struggle, land rights, culture, development, education, gender, governance and affirmative action, as well as Namibia's involvement in the war in Angola. It also identifies key underlying problems and suggests policy recommendations for promoting change consistent with international human rights standards, that will help make the hopes expressed at Namibia's transition to independence realizable for all.

Mark Lattimer
Director
December 2002

Introduction

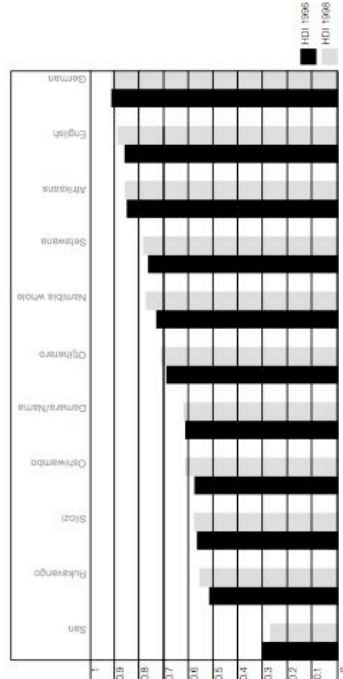
In 1990, Namibia achieved independence from South Africa. It was hoped that the South West African People's Organization (SWAPO)-led government would usher in an era of peace and prosperity, to heal the wounds inflicted during a 25-year liberation war. Few observers had any illusions concerning the difficulty of the task facing the new government or the potential problems that could develop in the fledgling republic. A particular concern for many was the inevitably dominant position that would be assumed by Owanbo peoples in national politics, given that they comprised close to half of the national population and because of their prominence in the liberation movement. This concern was a reflection of the antipathies between various ethnic communities in Namibia, which had been fostered and exploited by the South African regime as part of its divide-and-rule strategy.

Given this scenario, the SWAPO government has made some important progress, particularly in education and healthcare. Moreover, despite concerns over Owanbo domination, the government has moved towards accommodating the concerns of most minority populations, a

fact reflected in their being returned to government in 1999 with an absolute majority – indicative of support well beyond SWAPO's traditional Owanbo constituency. During its first term in office, the government was applauded for its transparency and efforts to foster a climate of national reconciliation. Further, the United Nations (UN)'s Human Development Index (HDI) and Human Poverty Index (HPI) reveal that, with some exceptions, most Namibians enjoy a similar socio-economic status regardless of their ethnic affiliations.

These positive developments have, however, been offset by the government's increasingly authoritarian and uncompromising attitude to some minority concerns, and its failure to meaningfully address issues like land reform. In its second and third terms in government, SWAPO has proved to be less concerned with enhancing its credentials as the leader of a liberal democracy than with asserting a distinctive brand of political authority. As part of this process, the SWAPO government has expressed increasing frustration with some liberal democratic institutions, such as the independent judiciary and the free press. Members

Figure 1: Human Development Index by language group, 1986 and 1998



SOURCE: UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (UNEP), HUMAN DEVELOPMENT REPORT 1998

Minorities in Namibia

Namibia is home to a population of 1,826,854 people according to the preliminary results of the 2001 national census. Population densities are very low in much of the country, and almost half of Namibia's population live in the comparatively fertile and west north. Despite its small population, Namibia has an ethnically and culturally diverse population, comprised of 11 major language minority ethnic communities.

The Owambo language group is the largest in Namibia and comprises roughly half of the national population. Maintaining strong links to ancestral territories in Angola as well as Namibia, the Owambo are the dominant ethnic constituency in contemporary Namibian politics. The designation 'Owambo' includes several distinct tribes, or as they are referred to in Namibian law, 'Traditional communities'. Prior to their final subjugation by South African forces in 1917, the Owambo comprised a number of autonomous kingdoms that maintained an uneasy relationship with one another, despite their shared language and culture. While the Owambo still assert their identity according to their affiliations with these kingdoms, most identify themselves broadly as Owambo.

None of the remainder of Namibia's 10 minority language communities comprises more than 10 per cent of the national population, however, all view themselves as minorities and, to a greater or lesser degree, express anxieties about their status in a minority rights idiom.

have been events in Namibia's troubled Caprivi region, in the wake, initially, of an attempted secession bid by Caprivan separatists and, subsequently, the expansion of the Angolan War into northern Namibia following the Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA)'s spring offensive against the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) in 1999.

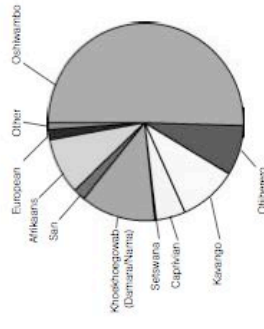
To some extent, Namibia's capacity to cope with the concerns of minorities has been diminished by other pressing concerns. While the Namibian economy has grown since independence, unemployment remains high. Only 43 per cent of the working-age population are currently employed, and Namibia's income inequality can create a high level of discontent among the poorest. This discontent can be articulated in ethnic terms, with some ethnic groups believing themselves to be discriminated against by others.

of minority communities also fear the emergence of a new elite in Namibia, comprised mainly of leaders from the liberation war. Further, the government has failed to neutralize inequalities in wealth. A decade after independence Namibia's gini' coefficient of 0.7 shows it to have the least equitable wealth distribution of all the countries in the UN system, with the richest 1 per cent of the population earning more than that of the poorest 50 per cent. While this is partly due to the white population's continued economic prosperity, it is also indicative of the emergence of a growing, politically connected, black elite. A significant number of businesses and financial concerns (including commercial farms) are now owned and managed by members of this elite.

Of particular concern has been the government's attitude towards the special problems encountered by some minority communities like the San. Of equal concern

While Namibians claim a far stronger national identity than they did during the colonial era, ethnicity remains an important marker of social and political identity. This is mainly because Namibia remains geographically and functionally divided into areas in which individual tribes and language communities dominate. In these areas culture and common activities continue to bind people together according to ethnic and linguistic affiliation.

Figure 3: Major languages in Namibia

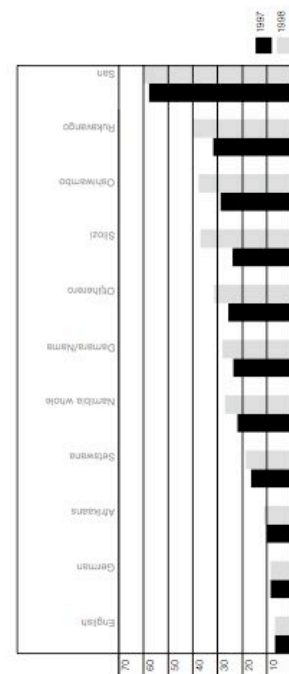


SOURCE: 2001 NATIONAL CENSUS

Figure 4: Key socio-economic indices by language group, 1998

Language group	Life expectancy (years)	Literacy (%)	School enrolment (%)	Income (N\$)
Afrikaans	67.2	91	91	13,996
Damara/Nama	56.6	63	60	2,404
English	66.9	97	93	21,708
German	75.0	100	92	36,459
Owambo	61.3	64	91	1,707
Ojhwana	64.1	58	77	3,077
Rukwanga	55.9	56	81	1,652
San	48.1	23	21	1,315
Setswana	61.7	70	81	5,326
Siidat	56.6	73	88	1,892
Namibia whole	61.0	66	83	3,608

SOURCE: UNIT NAMBIA NATIONAL CENSUS REPORT 2001



SOURCE: UNIT NAMBIA NATIONAL CENSUS REPORT 2001

Historical context

First peoples

Namibia is one of the driest countries on earth. Bounded to the north by the Kunene River and with the Orange River to the south, it has no perennial rivers or wetlands save for the Swango and Cunene rivers that pass briefly through the western Caprivi *en route* to Botswana.

Namibia's arid coastal belt is generally unsuitable for large-scale human settlement. Separated from the coastal desert by a mighty escarpment and sliding eastwards into the Kalahari Basin, Namibia's central plateau dominates much of the country. Sustained by the short, albeit often intense, wet season, the plateau's once abundant wildlife is now confined mainly to game reserves and national parks. To the east lies the semi-arid Kalahari Desert that extends across Botswana towards Zimbabwe.

As with other southern African states, the pre-colonial history of Namibia is a subject of some speculation, and it is thought that human settlement in Namibia dates back some 27,000 to 30,000 years.⁷ These earliest humans in Namibia were the forebears of southern Africa's Khoe and San peoples. These early populations were scattered throughout much of the country, and survived primarily on hunting and gathering. As much as they were unified by their common engagement with the harsh environment, these populations were diverse, speaking different but related languages.

The largest Bantu migrations into Namibia occurred in the second millennium CE. Entering Namibia from the north these groups settled initially in the comparatively fertile regions bordering Angola and only later began to move southwards, led by nomadic pastoralists in pursuit of grazing for their livestock. These pastoralists clashed with indigenous populations of San hunter-gatherers. The mutual suspicion and animosity between these groups persisted in some areas to this day. In the same period Nama-speaking herders trekked into Namibia from south of the Orange River. While some San groups moved away from areas in which pastoralists settled, others vigorously resisted incursions into their territories. For example, in the Omaheke, the San were sufficiently organized to maintain the territorial integrity of their ancestral lands until the advent of European colonialism.

By the mid-nineteenth century, Namibia was home to the immediate ancestors of most of the peoples living there today. The Herero-speaking Himba and Tjimba had settled in and around the Kunene Basin; the Owambo

were repatriated *en masse* to Europe; South Africa, operating under the mandate of the newly formed League of Nations, set about erecting an administration for South West Africa and stamping its authority on the people. South African rule in Namibia was to last over seven decades, during which Namibia's political and economic landscape was radically polarized along racial and ethnic grounds.

During its first decade, the South African-led South West Africa Administration (SWAA) demonstrated its power in unambiguous terms. In 1919 it extended its authority into Ovamboland after launching an offensive against the Swanyama (hitherto the most influential of the Owambo kingdoms) in response to complaints from the Portuguese authorities in Angola of cross-border violations by Kwanama under the leadership of their youthful King, Manduane ya Ndenefayo. Between 1922 and 1924, the SWAA's forces also crushed rebellions led by the Bondelwars Nama, the Ju/'hoan Bushmen of the Omaheke and the Rehoboth Basters.

Land and labour

While these violent excesses stirred much resentment, the administration's land policies caused the greatest concern. The SWAA encouraged white South Africans to settle in South West Africa – in order to deal with the poor white problem in South Africa and to bolster the SWAA's sovereignty over the colony. Prospective white settlers were enticed by offers of subsidies and technical assistance. By 1938, in addition to its growing urban population, South West Africa had 3,305 white-owned farms covering a total of c. 25 million ha. By 1989 there were over 6,000 such farms.⁸

In order to satiate the requirements of land-hungry settlers, the administration embarked on a land programme that would culminate several decades later in the Odendaal Plan (see later). The SWAA's appropriation of land for white farmers led to resentment areas being identified for the black people who were displaced. With prime farming land in central Namibia already allocated to white farmers, this led to the allocation of marginal areas as 'native reserves'. Peoples like the Herero, Nama and San occupying lands within the police zone⁹ suffered substantial losses. The San were deemed to be a 'lower expression of humanity' than the other peoples and were not considered sufficiently 'developed' to be granted native reserves. In areas where their territories were not annexed by the SWAA for commercial farming, they were ceded to displaced black farmers. The San's position was reduced to a dependent economic underclass.

Throughout the dispossession of colonial rule, land areas designated as native reserves were progressively expanded. For example, Hereroland (Epukiro Reserve)

was expanded from its initial territory of 178,000 ha in 1923 to 3,095,152 ha by 1975. It is also noteworthy that some ethnic communities, such as the Himba, Kavango and Owambo peoples, escaped any substantial alienation of their traditional territories during the colonial period.

During its first decade, the SWAA issued a range of proclamations aimed at controlling the movements of the native population so as to ensure a steady supply of cheap labour to white-owned farms and industries. This has led to the migrant labour pattern that remains today.

Native autonomy and separate development

Ethnic, linguistic and tribal identity remains a prominent feature of Namibia, this is largely a result of the SWAA's policy of separate development. This policy demanded not only the separate development of 'races', but also the separate development of different ethnic or tribal groups. Members of recognized ethnic communities, i.e. those recognized by the SWAA, were only permitted to settle within areas designated as their 'homelands'; similarly, townships¹⁰ in urban areas were divided into discrete locations for occupation by members of particular ethnic groups. Thus Namibian townships remain (now informally) divided into separate *lobates* (locations) for the Damara, Herero, Owambo and others. Although the South African regime argued that separate development was intended to ensure the tribal and cultural integrity of Namibia's different ethnic groups, it was also clearly used to divide and rule, to exploit ethnic tensions among the black population.

South African policy 'granted' the black or 'native' populations a degree of self-governance and autonomy within the designated tribal reserves or homelands. The Native Reserves Commission of 1921 laid the foundations for the policy of separate development, and stipulated a range of measures aimed at securing land for specific native populations and controlling their movements within the colony. The reserves were allocated on an ethnic basis, with separate reserves for Basters, Caprivians, Damara, Herero, Kavango, Nama and Owambo. While these reserves provided areas for subsistence farming, the land's marginality assured the tightly-controlled flow of migrant labour to white farms and industries. Moreover, it was understood that, because these populations would necessarily be dependent on revenues earned in white areas, they would be more compliant.

The SWAA's separate development policy found its ultimate expression in the Odendaal Plan, which was implemented in the 1960s and 1970s, and laid out the responsibilities and rights of groups residing in the homelands. It devolved a degree of autonomy to native authorities, in the form of chiefs and headmen – within

the reserves, who were entitled to administer customary laws and allocate land to their subjects. As greater international pressure was placed on South Africa to pull out of Namibia, it sought to engineer a submissive Namibian state – to be comprised of a federation of quasi-autonomous ethnic sub-states, governed ostensibly by second-tier authorities and elected by specific ethnic constituencies. This process was enabled by the passing of Proclamation AG8 in 1980, which empowered the seven major ethnic groups – the Basters, Damara/Nama, Herero, Himba, Kavango and Owambo – to elect ‘representational authorities’ with broad powers of government in their respective ethnic constituencies.

These policies led to the revival and intensification of these groups’ identities, thereby ensuring that Namibia’s non-white populations would be too divided to form a united opposition to white dominance. Today, ethnicity remains an important marker of social identity, particularly in rural areas.

The liberation struggle

While resistance to South African rule emerged in a number of quarters, SWAPO’s role was unquestionably the most important. SWAPO evolved out of the Owambo Peoples Organisation (OPO), a body formed in 1958 to represent the views of Owambo peoples engaged in migrant labour. As the organization grew, its leadership resolved that it should be expanded to represent the interests of all Namibians seeking independence from colonial rule. As a result, the OPO was dissolved and SWAPO was formed in its place in 1960, as an organization devoted to liberating Namibia from South Africa. SWAPO grew in stature, gaining international credibility and legitimacy. Bolstered by the UN General Assembly’s assertion of the illegality of South Africa’s occupation of Namibia in October 1966, SWAPO began its armed struggle through its military wing, the People’s Liberation Army of Namibia (PLAN). Operating out of Zambia, PLAN lacked the logistical support to do more than harass the large South African military presence in northern Namibia. Ironically, a coup in Lisbon in 1974 provided the spur for the intensification of PLAN’s military initiatives. The ousting of the Caetano regime in Lisbon and Portugal’s rapid withdrawal from Angola, meant that PLAN could launch offensives into Namibia from a friendly neighbouring state.

Over the following 15 years, the military struggle rapidly intensified in southern Angola and Namibia. The armed struggle had had an enduring legacy on ethnic politics in Namibia.

Legal status and the role of the UN

At the end of the Second World War, the UN, This new League of Nations was replaced by the UN. This new body sought to dissolve the territorial mandates issued by its toothless predecessor. Despite South Africa’s desire to absorb South West Africa as its fifth province, the UN insisted that it become a UN Trust Territory. The South Africans, however, stood their ground, and the UN proved either unwilling or unable to assert its authority. In 1948, when the National Party of South Africa swept into power on a rising tide of Afrikaner nationalism, South West Africa became a virtual South African dominion, with its white population granted representation in the South African parliament.

Subsequently, the UN demanded ever more robustly that South Africa relinquish its grip on South West Africa, a process bolstered by South Africa’s pariah status in the global community because of its *apartheid* policies. This process gathered momentum in 1966, when the UN General Assembly passed a Resolution declaring the League of Nations-granted mandate invalid. Over the next decade, the UN passed a number of Resolutions aimed at securing South Africa’s withdrawal from Namibia. But South Africa clung resolutely to its dominion of the desert state. This resulted in the intensification of PLAN’s military struggle for Namibian independence.

After lengthy consultations between the UN, SWAPO, the South Africans and representatives from the states bordering South Africa, the UN Security Council passed Resolution 435 in April 1978. It called for the holding of free elections in Namibia under UN supervision, the cessation of all hostilities and the withdrawal of all foreign troops. South African commitment to Resolution 435 proved to be superficial, and created conditions that would only allow Namibia to achieve independence on South African terms. Various inclusive government bodies were established according to a framework agreed at a constitutional conference convened by the South Africans in 1975 – now dubbed the Turnhalle talks. However, SWAPO’s exclusion from the Turnhalle deliberations and subsequent elections for a Constituent Assembly in 1978 and a National Assembly in 1979, as well as South Africa’s continuing control of Namibia through the Administrator General, hamstrung the legitimacy of these developments. Moreover, the increasingly visible presence of South African military forces in Namibia suggested something of the hollowness of South African commitments as the liberation struggle and Angolan War intensified.¹¹

Over the next decade, intense diplomatic efforts eventually led to the implementation of Resolution 435. With the United States of America (USA) acting as a mediator and the UN Secretary General’s Special Representative, Marti Ahtisaari, playing a key role, the prospect of *reparadigm* during the 1980s, because ever more possible. In May 1988, a US-led negotiating team convened a meeting in London that secured agreement from Cuba and South Africa to withdraw their troops from Angola, and thereby pave the way for the implementation of Resolution 435. At the same meeting, it was agreed that Resolution 435 would be implemented from 1 April 1989, under supervision of the UN Transition Assistance Group (UNTAG).

Independence

With UNTAG firmly in place, South Africa withdrew its forces from Namibia, some 42,000 refugees returned under the auspices of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and by the end of 1989 most discriminatory legislation was repealed. Elections for a transitional Constituent Assembly were held in November 1989 and SWAPO formed the first government of an independent Namibia, winning 41 out of a total 72 parliamentary seats through gaining 57 per cent of the vote. The Constituent Assembly adopted a Constitution in February 1990 and, in March of that same year, Namibia formally gained its independence from South Africa.

Once in office and in line with its commitments to the electorate, the SWAPO government asserted that nation-building was its priority. The process of nation-building, however, demanded the subordination of individual ethnic identities in favour of a broader, all-encompassing national identity. Nation-building reflected the Namibian government’s stated priority of national development and its desire to dismantle the South African regime’s *apartheid* structures. Similarly, it was intended to assert the primacy of individual rights over collective rights.¹²

The SWAPO government was faced with the problem of building a nation from an ethnically divided state. Not only did it need to reassure minorities, it also needed to demonstrate a commitment to the continuity of the once relatively autonomous traditional ‘tribal’ authority struc-

tures and the legitimacy of customary law within the former homelands.

Several communities were extremely anxious about their future in an independent Namibia. Such feelings were particularly acute among those ethnic minorities that had supported the South African regime or opposed SWAPO during the liberation struggle. While SWAPO tried to reassure the population that the new republic would accommodate all Namibians, some remained anxious. As a result, close to 4,000 San chose to be resettled in South Africa by the South African Defence Force, because they feared reprisals for their apparent complicity with the colonialists. This potentially divisive issue was underlined by the Baster community’s explicit demands for their secession from Namibia immediately after independence (see below).

As much as these brought home to the new government the potentially incendiary nature of ethnic minority concerns, it also led to determination to ensure that legislation did not encourage the tribalization or ghettoization of national politics. As with other southern African national governments, the Namibian leadership felt that the ethnic heterogeneity of their population precluded a series of ready-made fault lines, the fissuring of which could threaten the integrity of their youthful state.

In view of these sensitivities, the government invited representatives from Namibia’s diverse communities to participate in formal deliberations concerning their future roles. Community leaders, headmen and chiefs from almost all of Namibia’s myriad ethnic minorities contributed to policy debates concerning traditional leadership, communal land administration and the role of customary law. However, it became increasingly clear that ethnic minority communities’ former substantial autonomy would be replaced by a strong central state.

Moreover, while there was to be a formal role for traditional leaders in the new Namibia, this was a diminished one. Additionally, traditional authorities were told that customary law would remain valid under the new Constitution, but only insofar as it did not clash with constitutional or statutory law. Some traditional authorities, the Herero for example, made it clear that they were opposed to the dilution of the traditional leaders’ formal powers.¹³

Constitutional and legal rights of minorities in independent Namibia

The Namibian Constitution is unique in that it provides for the domestic application of international treaties in the domestic legal system, once they are ratified by parliament. Namibia acceded to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) in 1994. Under the Covenant all peoples have the right to self-determination, as well as their right to freely determine their political status, freely pursue their economic and social development and to freely dispose of their natural wealth and resources.¹⁴

Namibia is also a party to the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR) and the Convention on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (CERD). In addition, Namibia is a member of the International Labour Organisation (ILO), but like many other African countries, it is not a party to the ILO Convention on the Rights of Indigenous and Tribal Peoples, which is the only legally binding international Convention dealing with the rights of indigenous peoples.¹⁵

The formal status of ethnic minorities in Namibia is expressed in the Constitution and is further elaborated in legislation. The guiding principle is the formal separation of ethnic and national identity, with the latter given priority. This is intended to assert the primacy of the state without disposing of the reality of ethnic diversity. Article 19 of the Namibian Constitution stipulates:

'Every person shall be entitled to enjoy, profess, maintain and promote any culture, language, tradition or religion subject to the terms of this Constitution and subject to the condition that the rights contained in these articles do not impinge upon the rights of others or the national interest.'

The government has been cautious about using the language of 'inclusion' in policy documents or statutes. Consequently, self-identifying ethnic and cultural communities are not referred to in legislation as tribes, kingdoms or ethnic groups, but as 'traditional communities'. While somewhat clumsy, the definition of a 'traditional community' as stipulated in the Traditional Authorities Act (TAA, 2001), is intended to accommodate all of Namibia's pre-colonial ethnic groups. In the same vein, the leaders of traditional communities are not formally referred to as chiefs, kings, *kapteem* or headmen in law, but as 'traditional leaders' or 'traditional councillors'.

status of traditional communities, are the TAA (2001), which superseded the previous Traditional Authorities Act (1995) and the Council of Traditional Leaders Act (1997). Whereas the former outlines the principles for the formation and recognition of a traditional authority – and hence a traditional community – the latter sets out the role of traditional authorities in state governance.

In Section 3 of the TAA, the duties and functions of recognized traditional authorities are identified as the:

- identification and codification of traditional law;
- administration and execution of traditional law;
- preservation and protection of culture and tradition;
- promotion of affirmative action within their communities;
- registration of traditional leaders;
- provision of assistance to police; and other state organs where necessary;
- conservation and sustainable use of natural resources;
- settlement of disputes over customary matters; and
- establishment of community trust funds.

The statutory limitation of the traditional authorities' powers was agreed on by the Constituent Assembly before independence. It is enshrined in the Constitution and elaborated on in the TAA. The subordination of traditional authorities to state authorities is unambiguous. As the TAA stipulates:

'14. In the exercise of the powers or the performance of its duties... by a traditional authority or a member thereof –
(a) any custom, tradition, or practice, or usage which is discriminatory or which detracts from or violates the rights of any person as guaranteed by the Namibian Constitution or any other statutory law, or which prejudices the national interest, shall cease to apply.'

In addition to this, the TAA prohibits traditional authorities from playing any formal role in mainstream party politics. Thus, for example, should any individual with a recognized position in a traditional authority seek elected office in government he (or very occasionally she) will have to relinquish all their duties and privileges as a traditional leader for this period. While traditional communities and traditional authorities are actively supported by central government, they are also beholden to it. Indeed, one of the most problematic aspects of the TAA is that, in order to take up their mandated roles, traditional authorities require state recognition through the office of the Minister for Regional and Local Government and Housing (MRLGH). This provides scope for abuse because it empowers government to dispute the legitimacy

of an unsympathetic traditional authority or to intervene in the internal politics of a traditional community. This was illustrated by the government's intervention in Mbukushu community politics. In 1999, the Mbukushu community in the Karango region voted overwhelmingly to dismiss their incumbent traditional leader, the Furu (Chief) Erwin Mbandu, on the grounds of alleged corruption, extortion and the illicit expropriation of community funds. The Furu Mbandu, however, was a staunch SWAPO ally who maintained strong ties with the party, and his nominated replacement was an opposition supporter. The SWAPO government refused to acknowledge the legitimacy of the ballot – despite the fact that this was how Mbandu was elected Furu – and the community's right to choose their own leadership.

An important axiom of the TAA is the relationship between traditional authorities and traditional communities. The TAA stipulates that the recognition of a traditional authority is contingent on the legitimacy of the traditional community that any such authorities may claim to represent. The 1995 Act accommodated 'traditional communities' that may not have had formal leaders during the period of South African occupation or whose leadership structures were dismantled by the colonial regime. This is made clear in section 2 (1) of that Act, where it is stated that 'every traditional community shall be entitled to have a traditional authority'. In other words, formal recognition by government of a traditional authority also signified formal recognition of a traditional community.

The 2001 TAA defines a 'traditional community' as:

'Indigenous homogeneous and endogenous social grouping comprising families deriving from exogenous clans which share a common ancestry, language, cultural heritage, customs and traditions, occupying a common traditional authority and inhabits a common area and includes members residing outside the common communal area.'

From a legal (or anthropological) perspective, this definition is problematic since it discriminates against those ethnic minorities (like most San and several Damara areas during the colonial era. The weakness of this definition provides government with a mechanism to deny any traditional authority the legal recognition necessary for it to assume its duties. One result of this has been the selective recognition of traditional communities by government, with a lack of consistency in the recognition process.

Non-recognition of minority communities

In anticipation of the drafting and passing of the 1995 Act, the government consulted with traditional leaders from most of Namibia's ethnic communities. While some notably impoverished communities were unable to send representatives to these gatherings, the government made efforts to ensure their inclusion. With the passing of the Act in 1995, the government began assessing the validity of claims to traditional leadership submitted by Namibia's various communities. The government received over 40 submissions. After some consideration, it announced via the *Government Gazette* (no. 1 828) in 1998 that it would recognize 31 traditional leaders and hence acknowledge the existence of 31 traditional communities.

None of the six traditional authorities from the San communities that initially applied for formal recognition were listed. Following a formal complaint, the MERLGH requested them all to put their cases in writing. These claims were then forwarded to the Investigating Committee on Tribal Disputes for assessment. On the strength of the Committee's recommendation, the MERLGH decided that only the two traditional authorities that retained an autonomous land base would be recognized, and that further consultations would be required regarding the four outstanding applications.¹⁷

It subsequently emerged that the Committee had recommended the formal recognition of two of the outstanding San communities and that this view was endorsed by the Council of Traditional Leaders, who passed on their recommendations to the President. However, their recommendations were unilaterally dismissed by the President for reasons as yet undisclosed. Of the 14 issues deliberated on by the Council over the period 1998-2000, the President followed the Council's recommendations on all matters with the exception of those relating to the San.¹⁸ While it is likely that the President's decision will be contested in the courts, his reluctance to follow the Committee's recommendations, or attend closely to the TAA, is a matter of concern.

The San were not the only traditional authorities that were denied recognition. Among others, some 42 Herero leaders were denied recognition by the government. They plan to challenge the government in court on the issue, and allege that their non-recognition is a result of prejudice.

Land and leadership

An ethnic group's formal recognition as a 'traditional community' has important repercussions regarding access to land in communal areas. The Communal Lands Bill

currently working its way through parliament reaffirms the ethnically-based territorial divisions put in place by the South African regime. As drafted, the Bill provides protection for the majority of established communal-area farmers through the recognition of their 'customary' or 'traditional' rights to land. Significantly, it also allows traditional leaders to retain the right to allocate land for residential or economic purposes, and therefore gives some way towards reinforcing the status quo regarding land in existing communal areas.¹⁹ Traditional or customary rights are granted under section 16 (3) of the Bill, which stipulates that:

A board shall not grant any right referred to in section one (1) to any person other than a member of a "traditional community" residing in the communal land area in question, except if such a person is specifically exempted by the Minister in writing from the provision of this subsection or belongs to a category of persons in respect of whom the Minister has given general notification granting exemption from these provisions.²⁰

For many of Namibia's ethnic minorities, the Communal Lands Bill is an important document insofar as it reaffirms land as a constituent of their heritage and identity, and it also grants additional power to traditional authorities otherwise weakened in the independence era. This positive development for some ethnic communities is a negative development for others – in particular those minorities not formally recognized by the government under the TAA, and those communities that were excluded from communal areas during the colonial era. As far as these groups are concerned, the Bill underwrites and continues an inequitable situation. This problem is particularly marked in areas such as the vast Herero communal lands, almost all of which were once the exclusive territory of the Omahakwe Ju/'hoansi but are now unambiguously in the hands of the various recognized Herero traditional authorities. Of equal significance for groups like the Omahakwe Ju/'hoansi is the fact that they are denied automatic rights to residence in the Herero communal areas. In order for such groups to gain land rights, they must acknowledge Herero sovereignty over them and thereby reaffirm their subordinate status.

Given that few of the recognized traditional communities in communal areas that are home to large numbers of San (Herero, Karwango and Owambo communal areas) consider the San to be their social equals, it seems unlikely that the San will be granted land to a meaningful degree. Effectively, the exclusion of minority groups from this process will ensure that they remain landless, highly mobile and economically vulnerable, as well as dependent on opportunistic economic strategies such as begging and casual labour to eke out a living.

The problem of customary law

The devolution of some powers to native authorities in the reserves and homelands of Namibia before independence ensured that customary law would continue as a means of dealing with some criminal and most civil disputes. By independence, the new government realized that, not only did it lack the resources to effectively extend civil law into the communal areas, but also that doing away with customary law would alienate large portions of the electorate – even among its traditional Owambo support base. In addition, strong arguments were presented to suggest that the continuity of customary law in communal areas constituted a collective and inalienable right.

Customary law is therefore constitutionally recognized as a legitimate means to secure social justice in certain contexts. However, as with the status of traditional leaders, customary law is also subordinate to Namibia's statutory and constitutional laws. This is made clear in Article 66 of the Constitution, which stipulates that:

'Both customary law and the common law of Namibia shall remain valid to the extent to which such customary or common law does not conflict with the constitution or any other statutory law.'²¹

It is also elaborated on in the TAA, which specifies that:

'1 (1) (b) In the performance of the functions and duties and exercise of the powers referred to in section 10 any customary law which is inconsistent with the provisions of the Constitution or any other statutory law, shall be invalid to the extent of the inconsistency.'²²

The incompatibility of some customary and statutory laws has inevitably been a source of dispute, particularly where customary law is discriminatory. Most instances where customary laws have been challenged in the courts, have concerned the rights of women in customary marriages. Customary laws regarding marriage, divorce and

child maintenance are often heavily weighted in favour of males. These can conflict with constitutional provisions for gender equality and Namibia's obligations as a signatory to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

Education and culture

The SWAA largely neglected the formal education of the majority non-white population. As a result, the SWAPO government identified the provision of basic education as a priority, and has routinely allocated it between 20 and 25 per cent of the annual budget. With such substantial investments in education important progress has been made over the past decade and school enrolment has increased in line with stated targets, with close to half a million learners now attending 1,489 schools.²³

The Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (MBESC) has taken steps to ensure that minorities are catered for in Namibia's education system. Significantly, Namibia has adopted a policy that demands first-language ('mother tongue') learning during the first three years of schooling for all language communities. The adoption of such a policy recognizes not only the cultural value of language but also the importance of first-language learning in literacy development. In addition to this, the MBESC has established an inter-sectoral task force to deal with problems specific to educationally marginalized communities such as the San and the Himba.

Despite the huge resources that the government has ploughed into educational development, considerable problems remain, especially for some minority communities. In the case of groups like the San – for whom educational status is contingent on a number of other factors, such as secure access to land – educational success has been limited. This is also due to the government's reluctance to deal substantively with these other factors.²⁴ Further, in the case of many San from small language communities, there are insufficient resources to allow them to have first-language learning.

Government and governance

The Namibian government is comprised of the executive, the legislature and the judiciary. Excluding the position of the President, the legislature in Namibia has four levels: the National Assembly, the National Council, regional councils and local authorities. The National Assembly is the principal legislative body and is comprised of 72 members, elected on the basis of proportional representation, and six further members appointed by the President. The second tier of government is the National Council, which has 26 members elected from regional councils. Regional councils are comprised of seven councillors elected on a first-past-the-post basis. Operating closely with regional councils are the smaller local councils in the form of municipalities, town or village councils.

The executive is made up of the President, Prime Minister and a Cabinet appointed by the President. The judiciary is comprised of judges nominated by the Judicial Services Commission and appointed by the President. The Chief Justice 'heads' the judiciary, while judges of appeal sit in the Supreme Court. The Judge President and other judges sit in the High Court, while magistrates sit in the Magistrates Court. Magistrates are appointed by the Minister of Justice, as with any other civil servant, and not by the Judicial Services Commission.⁷

Despite plans for decentralization, regional and local government structures remain largely subordinate to a strong central government. Regional councils' most important work is currently limited to regional socio-economic planning. Regional and local councils are elected on a constituency basis. This means that they are usually more representative of the local population than central government structures. Certainly for localised communities, such as some Rukwanagali, San and Si!zi-speaking groups, who comprise a small minority on a national scale, local and regional government are more likely bodies in which to gain representation.

Party politics

In the 1989 elections for the transitional Constituent Assembly, SWAPO emerged as the clear victor having secured 57 per cent of all votes cast. Subsequently, in the 1994 elections, contested in the face of increasing water apathy and a weak opposition, SWAPO was returned again to government, and with a considerably increased majority through winning 73 per cent of the vote. Despite the formation of the Congress of Democratic Party in

leadership's line may well find themselves removed from or demoted on existing party lists – as was the case in the 1999 elections. Moreover, despite SWAPO's best efforts to be inclusive, it remains ultimately at the service of its core Owambo-speaking constituency, the alienation of which would fracture its grip on power. Consequently, individuals within SWAPO structures who represent ethnic minority concerns do so only to the extent that their presentation of these concerns do not impinge on those of the majority.

The existence of regional councils and the National Council are intended to offset this imbalance. However, given these bodies' limited effective powers and the dominance of a strong central government, regional councils play only a peripheral role.

Having noted these constraints, SWAPO must be given credit for its efforts to ensure that its membership is drawn from a broad cross-section of Namibia's ethnic communities. Of particular significance is the fact that, while most senior cabinet posts are occupied by Owambo speakers, the Prime Minister and Deputy Prime Minister hail from the Damara and Nama communities respectively. Nevertheless, some members of minority communities perceive SWAPO as a predominantly Owambo party and argue that those members of their communities represented in SWAPO will not generally act in their home communities' interests. Further, this issue has led to deep resentment in some areas. This resentment is particularly acute in areas where the government has given jobs to former Owambo freedom fighters at the expense of local populations who are also desperately in need of employment.

The media and civil society

With SWAPO receiving increased majorities in successive elections, the government has become increasingly forthright and inflexible in the presentation of its views and pursuit of its policies. SWAPO's sizeable majority in parliament increases the need for mechanisms to ensure that minority interests are neither overlooked nor ignored by a powerful popular government.

With its majority mandate, SWAPO has expressed frustration with some of the constraints placed upon it by Namibia's liberal democratic Constitution. Some senior government officials, for example, have questioned the need for the separation of government functions and have outspokenly challenged the autonomy of the judiciary where its findings have clashed with government desires. Likewise, senior SWAPO officials have demonstrated increasing irritation with the independent media. In 2000, the government imposed restrictions on the activities of foreign journalists who are now required to apply

for temporary work permits in order to report directly on Namibian stories.

The Namibian Broadcasting Corporation, the Namibian Press Agency and one national weekly newspaper are state owned and controlled. While these organizations have rarely criticized the government or failed to use the SWAPO party line, they were chastised by the President in August 2002 for not being sufficiently pro-government.⁸ As a consequence, the President granted himself the information portfolio to whip these bodies back into line. Without going so far as to challenge the autonomy of the independent press, the government has sanctioned some local independent media. The daily newspaper, *The Namibian*, has been the main target of government ire despite the fact that, historically, *The Namibian* was the harshest critic of the South African regime – and by virtue of this was a SWAPO ally in the run-up to independence. Because of *The Namibian's* sometimes critical attitude, the government has now banned the newspaper from all its offices and denied it revenue from public sector advertising. According to the Media Institute of Southern Africa, the state-owned media in Namibia has neglected to give any attention to parties critical of government.

Since 1995, there have been several instances of clashes between the government's intentions and the desires, aspirations and needs of some minorities. This is partially a consequence of SWAPO increasingly presenting itself not as a party within the state, but as a manifestation of the state. This was well illustrated during the campaign for the 1999 general elections, during which SWAPO representatives equated support for key opposition parties as 'treasonous'. While such statements could simply be dismissed as over-heated election rhetoric, prior and subsequent events – such as the Caprivi secession crisis and the extension of the Angolan conflict into Namibia – suggest that they are symptomatic of a potentially more sinister trend.

Notwithstanding sometimes aggressive government posturing, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) concerned with rights and civil society issues have thrived in Namibia since independence and, despite occasional problems, have continued their work relatively unimpeded. These organizations have typically been free to chastise government on a range of rights-related issues. Along with the independent media, they have played an important role in ensuring the government's public accountability on matters of concern. Similarly, they have played an important role in increasing the public's awareness of their constitutional and legal rights. Most prominent among these NGOs are the Namibian Society for Human Rights (NSHR) and the Legal Assistance Centre (LAC). Whereas the NSHR has been vigilant in drawing attention to

alleged government infractions of rights, the LAC has played a more proactive role, providing legal assistance to individuals and communities on various rights-related issues, and through its numerous education, research and information projects. These projects have provided a platform for collaboration between state institutions and the NGO sector on issues such as farm-workers' rights, gender rights, juvenile justice and minority rights issues. Thus, for example, Namibian police use a human rights manual designed for their officers by the LAC.

Despite the sometimes fruitful cooperation between the state and NGOs, the government has occasionally reacted aggressively to NGO interventions on rights-related matters. The NSHR has frequently been the target of government ire as a result of its work, and the LAC has faced government criticism for its legal support of minority groups such as the *Klows* in western Caprivi and its legal representation of the victims of alleged government harassment or torture. As a result, these organizations have been accused of being unpatriotic, or even treasonous. It is, however, important to note that the government's bark has been worse than its bite in these instances, and these NGOs have been able to persevere with their work.

Gender issues in Namibia

Namibia is now a signatory to CEDAW and has taken steps to ensure that its laws and policies fall within CEDAW's parameters. The Namibian Constitution assures gender equality and the government adopted a National Gender Policy and a National Gender Plan of Action in 1999. These came in addition to the Married Persons Act (1996) that sought to abolish 'marital power' and to deal with issues such as the custody of children, maintenance, and the acquisition and division of property in and after marriage. Nevertheless, legal provisions for gender inequality do not automatically translate into effective gender equality on the ground.¹⁶

Despite the government's progressive approach to gender issues, the status of women in Namibia remains problematic at both an institutional and local level. Gender roles in most of Namibia's traditional communities are clearly demarcated, with specific rights and obligations pertaining to an individual's gender identity. While many men and women are satisfied with their designated gender roles, there are a number of areas where women are disadvantaged. (There do not appear to be any obvious negatives for men from a gender perspective.) Moreover, as females gain greater access to education, ever-increasing numbers have expressed a desire to transcend the limitations of their traditional roles. In addition, beliefs concerning the traditional role of women undoubtedly

contribute to the high levels of domestic and sexual violence in Namibia.¹⁷ Likewise, traditional attitudes to gender also continue to militate against women's achievement in education and to maintain the exceptionally high rate of teenage pregnancy in Namibia – two factors that make it more difficult for women to assert their status at home or in the workplace.

Gender inequality is also apparent in the workplace. Work usually undertaken by women is often underpaid when measured against payments made to men. In part this is because women tend to take on lower-paying jobs than men such as domestic labour. However, it is also a reflection of the fact that women's labour is often devalued. For example, in the agricultural sector, women labourers were paid on average only 60 per cent of their male counterparts' earnings.¹⁸ This trend is apparent in a range of sectors. Having noted this, the gender balance in the public sector has improved tremendously since independence. The proportion of women employed in the public sector rose from 36.5 per cent in 1990 to 48.4 per cent in 1998.¹⁹

In contrast to the equitable gender balance in the executive branch of government, the legislature remains conspicuously male-dominated, with only four women occupying ministerial or deputy ministerial posts. At present 2.3 per cent of members of the National Assembly are women and 8 per cent of the National Council. Only one regional governor is female and only 4 per cent of regional councillors are women. Women's representation is highest in local councils, in which 44 per cent of all councillors are women – this follows an agreement between the parties to ensure equal numbers of men and women on their party lists for regional councils.

While many women in rural areas are largely satisfied with their status, there are aspects of customary law that are highly discriminatory. Divorce and inheritance laws in particular are heavily weighted against women in both patrilineal and matrilineal societies. As a result, a divorce or the death of a spouse may (and has in some instances) leave women impoverished and homeless. As much as the subordination of customary law to statutory law effectively provides women with the legal right to contest their disenfranchisement, few women in rural areas have either the wherewithal or capacity to do so.

The government has adopted several important measures to offset the traditional marginalization of women in Namibia. Indeed, Namibia was one of the first countries to ratify the Optional Protocol to CEDAW, which grants women the right to seek redress at international level for violations of it. Working with groups like the Gender Research and Advocacy Project at LAC, the government has made measurable progress since independence and has shown some flexibility in dealing with gender-related

issues. An important aspect of this has been the establishment of a government department and, later, the Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare. In addition, SWAPO has drafted and ratified legislation specifically aimed at improving the state's capacity to combat domestic violence and rape.

While women remain relatively marginal in Namibia, their status has improved dramatically since independence. SWAPO has proved willing and able to design and implement legislation regarding gender discrimination. Nevertheless, it is clear that gender discrimination remains very much part of the fabric of Namibian society and it is unlikely that, in the short term at least, government efforts will be of more than cosmetic value. In the longer term, however, better education and declining levels of teenage pregnancy will contribute greatly to improving the status of Namibian women.

The treatment of sexual minorities

While Namibia's Constitution protects the rights of sexual minorities, gays and lesbians have had a difficult time in independent Namibia having been the subject of government-incited harassment and ridicule. Public criticism of homosexuality by senior government officials first emerged as statements of support for Robert Mugabe (the Zimbabwean President) after his outspoken criticism of homosexuality in 1997. Since then, the Namibian government has become increasingly virulent in its condemnation of homosexuals, with two senior figures, the President and the Minister of Home Affairs, being the most outspoken. The President appears to be deeply opposed to homosexuality, claiming that it is against God's will as 'it is the devil at work'.²⁰ At a public gathering in Okahau in the Omusati region in April 2001 he exhorted regional governors, councillors and traditional leaders to ensure that 'gays, lesbians and criminals' in their

communities are chased from their villages and regions. He explained to the crowd: 'We in SWAPO have not fought for an independent Namibia that gives rights to *boswos* (criminals), gays and lesbians'.²¹ This view was further reiterated at the 2002 Earth Summit in Johannesburg, where in a BBC interview, the President explained that:

When you talk about human rights you include also homosexuality and lesbianism, it's not our culture we Africans. And if you try to impose your culture on us Africans, we condemn it, we reject it!'²²

While the President was chastised by numerous local and international rights organizations for these comments, the response of diplomats was conspicuously muted. This is doubtless because the government's approach to homosexuality is not inconsistent with that of many other governments in Africa, where homosexuality is illegal for men in 29 countries and for women in 20 countries. Having said this, it is important to note that anecdotal evidence suggests that many of Namibia's homosexuals have left Namibia for more tolerant climates.

The outspokenly prejudicial attitude of senior government members concerning the gay and lesbian community is symptomatic of an underlying conservatism among the SWAPO government, and its increasing intolerance of some aspects of liberal democratic principals to which it is constitutionally bound. To some degree, the vilification of homosexuality is a sideways swipe at proponents of a liberal society. The government's anti-homosexual rhetoric taps directly into the predominantly homophobic attitude of the Namibian public, and the government uses this as a means to question the legitimacy and appropriateness of liberal, rights-based ideologies. An important aspect to government criticism of homosexuality is its association in Namibian popular culture with foreigners, and Europeans in particular.

Minority rights issues

The Basters

The Baster population of Namibia is c. 40,000 people. They are a group of mixed racial heritage, who nevertheless maintain a strong, clearly delineated and exclusive political identity. The Basters migrated into Namibia in the late nineteenth century and settled in the Klooms Mountains south of Windhoek in the Rehoboth area. Having captured land from the Namas, they declared a republic in 1872 and drafted a Constitution that vested power in an elected male chief. Throughout the colonial period the Basters maintained a significant degree of political autonomy, in agreement with the German and later the South African regimes.

Given their relatively privileged status under South African rule, the Basters were deeply concerned about their future in an independent Namibia. These concerns became apparent before the first independent elections in 1989, when the Baster Kaptein, Hans Diergaardt, pulled out of the Constitutional Assembly in protest, after it rejected the possibility of a federal Namibia divided into quasi-autonomous ethnic sub-states. He subsequently occupied government buildings in Rehoboth in defiance of a court order and declared Rehoboth independent. The new government adopted a cautious, yet firm approach to the Basters' attempt to secede. The Prime Minister asserted the unconstitutionality of the Basters' claim and the President sought to reassure Basters that they were an integral part of the new Namibian state. The Basters, however, were not uniformly in favour of secession. Diergaardt drew his support almost exclusively from older generations, who were less willing than younger ones to embrace the post-apartheid state.

With the government proving intractable on this issue, Diergaardt ended his occupation of the Rehoboth government offices in September 1990. Nevertheless, his desires for greater Baster autonomy remained. Popular support for greater Baster independence was reinforced by the land and definition policies adopted by the new government. Specifically, the Basters objected to the vesting of all communal lands – including the Rehoboth area – to the state, and the apparently arbitrary division of the former Rehoboth area into two different regions.

In 1996 Diergaardt took his concerns to the UN Working Group on Indigenous Populations and the UN Sub-Commission on the Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities. The Basters submitted a

'It is ironic that when the Basters were here they told us we are too black, and when the blacks come they tell us that we are too white.'

Also, the government's robust response to the Basters' secessionist ambitions gave a clear indication of the approach that it would take to any similar attempts. Further, it served to alert the broader population to the government's uncompromising attitude to minority interests when they were perceived to clash with the national interest.

The Himba

The dry and mountainous north-west Kunene region is home to Namibia's Himba and Tjivha peoples.⁵⁷ The Himba stand out among Namibia's peoples for their continued adherence to traditional modes of dress and adornment, and the continued value they place on maintaining aspects of their traditional semi-nomadic pastoralist lifestyle.

The Himba migrated into north-west Namibia and south-west Angola along the Kunene River in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and have settled there. Their adherence to traditional modes of dress represents their strong sense of exclusive identity and cultural continuity. Having noted this, while the Himba consider tradition to be of great importance, they are by no means uniformly opposed to change. Indeed, since independence, many Himba have expressed concerns regarding the slow pace of development in the Kunene region and have complained of government neglect. As much as they are portrayed in tourist brochures as living exemplars of an 'unchanging African rural idyll', and by government agencies as under-developed and 'primitive', the Himba maintain a sophisticated and, by Namibian standards, relatively lucrative and prosperous cattle-centred economy. The accusations of government neglect may be unfounded, since significant developments have taken place in the Kunene region since independence. Of particular significance has been the improvement in healthcare and education, with Himba children – as an educationally marginalized group – receiving special attention from the MBESC. Moreover, while Himba see themselves as marginalized in terms of some key social development indicators, they maintain control over much of their ancestral lands and are prosperous by Namibian standards in terms of livestock capital.

The Epupa Dam debate

In 1969 Portuguese and South African authorities signed a plan to dam the Kunene River, with a view to providing southern Angola and northern Namibia with access to a

sustainable source of hydroelectric power. The acceptance of this plan led to the establishment of the Ruacana Hydro-power Scheme, the building of the Gove Dam and the Callique Reservoir. Following independence, the new government used the original plan as a blueprint for further development on the Kunene River, Angola and Namibia formed a joint technical committee to oversee Kunene development, which in turn commissioned a group of consultants to assess the feasibility of building a hydroelectric power scheme at the scenic Epupa waterfall on the Kunene.

The government presented the plans to dam the Kunene as a vital development intervention for the region. It argued that it would create jobs, provide power and give a much-needed kickstart to the development of northern Namibia. The envisaged dam would cover 250 km² and generate up to 200 megawatts of electricity a year, depending on the rainfall.⁵⁸ Public reaction to the proposed dam was mixed. While the citizenry of Opuwo (the capital of the Kunene region) supported the dam, a faction of rural Himba represented by Headmen Kapika and Tjavara opposed it – claiming that not only would it deny many Himba access to grazing along the fertile floodplains of the Kunene near Epupa, but that it would also lead to the submersion of ancestral graves. For many Himba this latter point is significant, since graves are thought to embody the continuity of social and territorial relations, and have a crucial ritual value.

Should the dam be built at the Epupa site, then c. 1,000 Himba would be permanently displaced, and as many as 5,000 would lose access to the grazing they depend on for their livestock.⁵⁹ This would increase pressure on grazing further inland and increase the Himba's susceptibility to drought. The building of the dam would inevitably have an adverse effect on the Himba's traditional pastoral economy. Detractors not only raised concerns about the impact that the dam may have on the Himba, but also of the potential ecological cost – in particular the potential habitat destruction that the dam would cause, and also the large loss of water through evaporation. They highlighted the need to explore alternative energy sources like gas and wind.

Kapika and Tjavara both sought legal advice from the LAC in Windhoek, and undertook to mobilize international support for their cause. With the advocacy work of groups like the International River Network, the Epupa debate achieved some profile in the international media in late 1998 but interest has subsequently died down as the scheme appears to have been put on the back burner. The government responded aggressively to Himba efforts to mobilize popular criticism of the dam. In one instance it was reported that the military broke up a consultation between the Himba and their legal representatives.⁶⁰

While the government insists that it will go ahead with the project, there are currently no concrete plans to do so in the near future. The plans have been stalled because the Angolan government favours another site for the dam, one with less social and environmental impact. Despite these obstacles, the government recently reassessed its desire to go ahead with the project at a meeting organized by the LAC. Represented by the Deputy Justice Minister, Albert Kawana, the government argued that while the Himba had the right to raise objections to the dam, their underdevelopment constituted a 'serious violation of human rights' and that the dam would ensure more rapid development in the Kunene region. Likewise, at the SWAPO Congress in Windhoek 2002, SWAPO delegates resolved to proceed with the construction of the dam.²⁰

It is important to note that the Himba are by no means united in their opposition to the dam. Many of those Himba who feel that the government has neglected the Kunene region since independence argue that the construction of the dam will bring much-needed jobs, and opportunities for economic advancement. While it may be argued that the construction of the dam will partially violate the rights of the Himba as detailed in the CESCER, through limiting their capacity to practise their traditional culture and economy, this is not a clear-cut case since the Himba are by no means unanimous in their opposition to the dam. Those in favour of the dam, for example, might argue with equal justification that not going ahead with the dam would violate their right to economic development.

The negative reaction of many Himba to the Epupa proposals is partly due to the SWAPO government's failure to adequately consult them concerning the planned hydroelectric scheme. The effective exclusion of the Himba from the planning process was made abundantly clear when the 2002 SWAPO Congress resolved unilaterally to go ahead with the dam. Of greater concern from a minority rights perspective than the actual construction of the dam, is the government's determination to press on with the scheme in the face of mounting opposition, and to brand such opposition as 'vandalistic'. The government's antipathy towards Himba leaders opposed to the dam and their various supporters is symptomatic of a more totalitarian approach to issues of national governance. Certainly if, as the government asserts, the development needs of the Himba community are a priority, then more attention needs to be paid to ensuring that the Himba are empowered through being able to participate in important decision-making processes.

The San

The status of Namibia's 31,000-strong San (Bushman) population has emerged as the most clear-cut minority

rights issue within the fledgling republic.²¹ While the SWAPO government made a clear commitment to address the plight of the San soon after taking power, they have generally proved unable or unwilling to implement the kinds of policies and programmes necessary to break the cycle of poverty, social discrimination and marginalization in which the majority of San are trapped. The status of the San has arguably deteriorated in the 12 years since Namibian independence.²² The government's failure to deal with the apparent intractability of the San's marginalization has been compounded by its refusal to formally recognize the existence of San traditional communities outside of the former 'Bushmanland'; its treatment of the highly marginalized Khwe San community in western Caprivi and its failure to prioritize the San in the land redistribution process.

Despite the fact that they are now widely used, the labels 'San' and 'Bushman' are etymologically pejorative and do not refer to a single self-identifying linguistic or cultural community. The San are comprised of a number of linguistically, culturally and economically diverse communities with distinct histories and cultural practices. Within Namibia alone, the San population falls into three major language groups (Kxoe, !Kung, and !Xo) that are in turn sub-divided into several self-identifying communities, including the Hai/om, the Ju/'hoansi, the !Kung, the Naro and the !Xo. What collectively distinguishes the San from others is their historical reliance on hunting and gathering as their primary mode of subsistence; their shared history of marginalization at the hands of both Bantu and white settlers in Namibia; and their continuing marginalized status.

The extent of San marginalization in Namibia is most dramatically illustrated by reference to the UNDP's Human Development and Human Poverty indices (see Figures 1 and 2). Their HPI is close to three times that of the national HPI and their HDI is roughly one-third that of the national HDI. In addition, the San stand out for their low levels of educational attainment, extreme social problems and weak representation in government. As highlighted in a recent LAC report,²³ a number of clear problems confront Namibia's San population:

- Despite almost universal dependence on the agricultural sector, only around one-fifth of Namibian San have *de jure* rights to land. Large numbers of San are consequently highly mobile and have no homes, lack security of tenure and are economically dependent. Most San are also extremely vulnerable regarding food security, with as many as two-thirds dependent on free food aid.
- Very few San have adequate access to schooling. Despite the efforts of the MBESC, in particular, atten-

dance levels are less than half of the national mean, while fewer than one in five San are literate. Only a small proportion of San have attended school and a negligible number have completed formal education. Income among the San per head is the lowest in the country. Most San lack access to any independent means of subsistence, and most have no direct cash income.

- San life expectancy is some 22 per cent lower than the national average, indicating poor nutrition and health-care. In addition, a variety of serious social problems have arisen in San communities, including alcohol abuse, crime, depression, and high levels of domestic violence.
- Many San feel alienated in the new Namibia. As a group they remain under-represented in government structures. Although they have some representation in the Council of Traditional Leaders and the National Assembly, San have no effective representation in local and regional elected bodies.
- Few San outside of the NGO sector feel that they have any real say in their future or in the direction their development should take. In almost all government-run projects, a highly paternalistic top-down approach has been pursued. As a result, these projects have had a poor success rate and have failed to empower project beneficiaries.
- The dominant perceptions of the San are mostly negative. The San complain that they are discriminated against on a daily basis.

Historical context

The contemporary marginalized status of Namibia's San community is largely a function of their unique treatment during the colonial era, and their vilification and subordination by many of their neighbours – who regarded them as an inferior order of humankind. Colonial administrators did not consider the appropriation of San territories to be an act of disenfranchisement. Because they understood the San to be 'nomads', they argued that the San could not 'own' land. Indeed, it was widely believed that, like wild game, the San constituted part of the landscape to be colonized. As such, farmers allocated farms in areas where the San lived, rarely tried to drive them away but enticed, and in some instances, forced them into becoming their long-term workforce.

Up until the 1960s, debate at the government level on the issue of land for any of the Namibian San groups centred 'future conservation'. If the San were to be granted land, it was not due to any consideration of their right to have land, but whether they, along with other elements of their 'habitat', might be preserved from 'extinction' for the purposes of scientific study. If there were, after all,

special reserves for elephants and lions, it was reasoned, then why not for the San? Significantly though, close to 1,000 Hai/om San who had been considered part of Etosha game reserve were expelled from their ancestral territories on the recommendations of the 1953 Bushman Commission, because they no longer lived in a 'traditional manner'.

The process of land dispossession accelerated during the late 1960s and 1970s, and the few remaining areas in Namibia where the San retained a substantial degree of autonomy were brought directly under the administration's authority. Apart from Bushmanland (which was home to fewer than 1,000 Ju/'hoansi at the time of its formation), all other areas in which significant San populations lived were gazetted as 'communal land' under the control of other traditional authorities, commercial farmland for white farmers or conservation areas administered through the Department of Wildlife. It also signified an end to their economic and political autonomy. By 1971, 66 per cent of Namibia's San population lived within white commercial farming areas and 31 per cent in native reserves under the control of Herero, Kavango and Oshanao traditional authorities. Only the remaining 2 per cent of Namibia's San population retained partial *de jure* control over their traditional territories.²⁴

With the dispossession of their lands, the San were forced to become dependent on their various neighbours. On the white farms, the extent of San dependency meant that farmers could afford to pay them less and treat them worse than other farm labourers. Similarly, in the communal areas, the San, dispossessed of their lands and livelihoods, came to constitute an often-scorned underclass of cheap labour. Their economic marginalization was underwritten by their social stigmatization. Most residents of the communal areas saw the impoverished and marginal status of the San as a function not of their treatment by others but of their innate inferiority to others.

Land and resettlement

The extent of San alienation from land during the colonial era and its consequences were clear to the new administration. Thus at the National Land Conference, convened in 1991 with a view to designing a framework for land reform in Namibia, it was resolved that:

*'Ever increasing land pressures in the communal areas pose a threat to the subsistence resources of especially disadvantaged communities and groups. Comprehensive resolves that disadvantaged groups, in particular the San and the disabled should receive special protection of their land rights.'*²⁵

Soon after independence the need to address the San's

status in commercial farming areas became increasingly urgent. In anticipation of a cut in subsidies and new legislation dealing with labour and social security issues, farmers started laying off excess staff. Large numbers of San and their dependents were dismissed from their workplaces – they literally had no place to go. This problem was particularly apparent in the farming areas with the largest San populations like the Otamboke and Oshkoto regions, where San squatters gathered disconsolately on the peripheries of major towns and villages.

As a result, the San were foremost on the list of intended beneficiaries of the resettlement lands purchased under the Agricultural Land Reform Act (1995). This Act empowered the government to purchase commercial farmland to resettle the most marginalised of Namibia's landless rural poor. According to the Act, land purchased by the government would subsequently be granted in leasehold to those restricted on it. The land could be used for collateral for small business loans, in addition to providing settlers with a secure space in which to engage in subsistence-related farming. By 1999, the government had purchased 51 farms for resettlement, covering 305,556 ha.⁶⁰

Despite the prioritization of the San in the National Land Policy and the Agricultural Land Reform Act, by 2000, of the 51 farms purchased for resettlement purposes only one farm, Skoobeshel, was home to more than 100 San.⁶¹ Moreover, on this farm, San settlers were not granted the leasehold rights they were entitled to under the Act, with the result that the farm was occupied by a large contingent of Herero whom the government has proved unwilling to relocate. Consequently, the number of landless San squatters living on the outskirts of towns and in communal areas has continued to swell. Farm employment levels are now down to 1950s levels – despite a threefold increase in the rural population.

The government has also neglected the San in its deliberations on the future of communal areas in Namibia. This not only reflects some of the inherent weaknesses in the land reallocation process, but also suggests that the government views the San's needs as of secondary importance.

The consequences of this for the San are considerable. Without secure access to land, they will remain highly mobile and economically insecure, eking out a living in the margins of others' economies. This will not only ensure their continued dependency and economic vulnerability, but will also continue to deny them effective access to development services.

A further cause for concern has been the government's expressed intention to relocate refugees from the overcrowded Otjere refugee camp near Grootfontein to a proposed new camp near Mkatzi in eastern Ojoondjupa (former Bushmanland). The impact of relocating up to 20,000 refugees into an area in which 4,000 of Namibia's

in Namibia allege that, since 1997, they have been the targets of a sustained campaign of intimidation and harassment by Namibian police and military units based in western Caprivi.⁶²

The fractious relationship between the Khwe and the SWAPO government became increasingly apparent during the mid-1990s, when the government embarked on plans to build and expand on a prison farm adjacent to the Khwe community campsite situated along the banks of the Kawango River. Since independence, the Khwe have participated in a community-based natural resources management programme in western Caprivi assisted by a Namibian NGO, Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation (IRDNC) and funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF). The programme was intended to devolve the responsibilities and benefits of wildlife management in western Caprivi to the Khwe community.

Although the Khwe of western Caprivi are the most established of all the San traditional authorities, theirs has not been recognized by the government. Instead the government has supported claims by the Mhukushu Chief, Erwin Mlambo, that the Khwe are his subjects and hence that the territory of the western Caprivi should fall under Mhukushu control. That the Mhukushu considered the western Caprivi to be theirs became apparent soon after independence when large numbers of Mhukushu settled there without first securing the permission of the then Khwe Chief, Kipi George (who died in December 2000). The government's support to the Mhukushu's claims to sovereignty over western Caprivi was enmeshed when it negotiated and agreed government proposals to build and later to extend the prison farm in the heart of Khwe territory with the Mhukushu traditional authority. Only after a protracted legal process, with the Khwe challenging the government in court, did this process end, with the government agreeing to establish a commission of inquiry to assess the status of western Caprivi.

The commission of inquiry was never convened, however, and the government continues to publicly assert the legitimacy of Mhukushu claims to be the *bona fide* traditional authority of the Khwe, in defiance of several Articles of the TMA.

The Caprivi coup

Midway through 1998, Khwe community representatives reported that they had been harassed, intimidated and interrogated by government forces seeking out a 'secret military training camp' in western Caprivi. In November of that year, the Botswana authorities reported at first a trickle and then a stream of Namibian refugees coming across its Caprivi border. By January 1999 it was estimat-

ed that more than 2,000 Namibians had crossed into Botswana, where they were picked up by the Botswana Defence Force and billeted at Dukwe refugee camp north of Francistown.⁶³ It later emerged that among the refugees that crossed into Botswana were Khwe Chief Kippie George and as many as 650 Khwe from the villages Onepepa III and Chetno. It was clear that those Khwe who chose to flee did so spontaneously, leaving behind not only their livestock, but also essential items such as blankets, clothes, cooking pots and knives. The Khwe that fled alleged that they did so in response to threats to their safety made by military personnel.⁶⁴

After the abortive secession attempt in August 1999 (see later), it became apparent that the Khwe were not actively involved in any sinister plots to break up the nation. As a result, the government allowed them to return to western Caprivi, a process that was underway in mid-1999, by which time Khwe fears of government harassment had been assuaged by the UNHCR.

The Angolan War

Immediately following the 1999 elections, the Namibian government granted the Angolan army (FAA) permission to attack UNITA positions in southern and eastern Angola from Namibian soil. To this end Angolan troops were deployed in western Caprivi from December 1999 to August 2000. In response, UNITA forces carried out numerous attacks in Namibia – reportedly to secure food and other essential resources after having had their supply lines cut off.⁶⁵

Following the deployment of FAA troops in western Caprivi, the UNHCR again reported large numbers of mainly Khwe-speaking refugees from western Caprivi arriving in Botswana. The UNHCR reports that between 31 December 1999 and mid-March 2000, around 1,400 refugees crossed into Botswana, most of them Khwe. A large proportion of these refugees were Khwe that had recently returned to Namibia from Dukwe.

Khwe allege that, following the resumption of military operations in western Caprivi in December 1999:

- there were repeated, active and forceful attempts to recruit Khwe men into the FAA as mercenaries;
- there were repeated raids by UNITA, especially in and around Muretku/Bagan; and
- several Khwe were killed by UNITA forces and landmines;
- there were numerous incidents of harassment by and conflict with the FAA before they returned to Angola in August 2000;
- landmines have been laid in Muretku and blocks Charlie and Delta are now uninhabitable; and

- Namibian security personnel embarked on a sustained campaign of harassment and intimidation of Klwe community leaders.³³

The seriousness of these issues was first brought to light in December 2000 after Klwe community leaders held an emergency meeting to highlight what they considered to be an 'untenable situation' and to seek an end to what they referred to as 'persecution and harassment' by Namibian security services. This meeting was called in response to the detention and subsequent 'disappearance' of 15 community members, and the arrest of three community leaders on charges of high treason.³⁴

Prominent among those alleging harassment were IRDNC project participants and San community leaders. According to a report of the meeting released by IRDNC,

*'virtually every man who had a salaried job, was a [IRDNC] project committee member, or drove a car had been detained, or was being repeatedly arrested and harassed.'*³⁵

The report also notes that the Klwe 'are living in fear of the Namibian Security Forces, the Angolan FAP and UNITA, and in their despondency, people just sit at home waiting to die'. It also notes that community members feel that they are being 'persecuted' both because of their former association with the South African Defence Forces,³⁶ and because of their ethnicity.

Subsequent to the release of the IRDNC report, rumours emerged that the 15 Klwe men that were detained by the Namibian Defence Force in August 2000 for alleged complicity with UNITA had been executed by their captors.³⁷ The Klwe demanded that these rumours be investigated and, with help from the LAC, launched a legal inquiry into the matter. After persistently denying that they had taken the 15 captive, the police and army finally acknowledged detaining the men but claimed that the 15 detainees had escaped within a day of their arrest, after their guard had left to seek medical assistance for malaria. Due to a lack of hard evidence supporting the Klwe case, the court found in favour of the police and army. Despite the court's findings, many Klwe and some other observers remain convinced that the 15 were executed.

Options for the future

Beyond conferring valuable political rights and the chance to participate in a functioning democracy, independence has brought few immediate benefits to the San, the majority of whom still battle with the continuing legacy of *apartheid*. More than a decade after independence, the San stand out because of the extent of their dependency, extreme poverty, political alienation and a variety of

social, educational and health problems. Of course these problems are not unique to the San, however, what makes the San conspicuous among Namibia's poor is the fact that while only a proportion of the members of each of the other language groups are extremely poor, the San are almost universally extremely poor.

With such a marked gap between the San and other Namibians, there are strong practical and ethical grounds for addressing their status as a matter of some urgency. Although poverty is the most conspicuous facet of the 'San issue' in Namibia, it is clearly also about access to land and natural resources, historical marginalization, social prejudice, social identity, the trauma of radical cultural change, and more elliptically, political rights. To focus on poverty alleviation without simultaneously addressing these related matters would be of limited long-term benefit.

White Namibians

While white Namibians constitute a demographic minority,³⁸ their status is not comparable to that of other minority groups since they control the lion's share of the economy and own vast swathes of land. While they are politically vulnerable they are by no means economically marginal, and arguably influence politics in their favour through their effective control of some key economic institutions.

Unlike Zimbabwe, where universal suffrage resulted in the exodus of a large proportion of its white population, the majority of Namibia's white population opted to remain in the new republic after independence, despite their misgivings about 'black rule'. The willingness of white people to remain in Namibia reflected the extent to which they were bound into the Namibian economy and their confidence in the new dispensation. Indeed, today, white people continue to dominate Namibia's commercial sector. That they chose to remain in Namibia was also a function of the reassurances that SWAPO gave them concerning their future role in Namibia, and the decision to grant amnesty for all actions committed in the name of the independence struggle.

Afrikaans speakers, as a result of South African immigration after the First World War, comprise the bulk of Namibia's white population. Their influence in Namibia has been immense and is illustrated not least by the fact that Afrikaans remains the country's *de facto lingua franca*, particularly in southern and central regions. Despite almost 50 per cent of the pre-First World War German-speaking population being repatriated to Germany following the Kaiser Wilhelm II's defeat, they remain an influential community in Namibia.

The past five years have seen the relative marginalization of white people within party political structures. This is a reflection of the poor performance of opposition parties, in particular the DTA; and of the declining role of white people in SWAPO, such that after the 1999 elections no white people were high enough on the SWAPO party lists to gain a seat in the National Assembly. Moreover, the targeting of white people in Zimbabwe by SWAPO's ally, the Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front (ZANU-PP), has contributed to white Namibians' anxieties; they fear that they may experience a similar fate, particularly if the government fails to address the land issue. These anxieties were sharpened by a series of contradictory statements about white people uttered by senior government officials. For example, in March 2001, President Nujoma took a swipe at white farmers for their 'imperialist actions', yet in April 2001 he argued that white people should be recognized as 'African'.³⁹

The continued economic dominance of white people in Namibia is something of a double-edged sword. While it serves to maintain their place in an independent Namibia, it is also a cause for others' resentment. The fact that independence did not bring about the collapse of the informal structures of economic *apartheid*, or elapse of the vast gap in wealth between the majority of black and white people, has led to deep sensitivities about white people's continuing economic prosperity and the dominance that this affords them. This is particularly the case in the workplace, where white people tend to dominate in managerial positions that grant them effective power over, usually black, mental workers. These problems are further exacerbated by a proportion of the white population maintaining a racist outlook. A consequence of this is that all white people are sometimes judged to be racist. Additionally, the continued economic power of white people has fostered the not unrealistic perception that the policy of national reconciliation adopted by SWAPO has benefited white people more than black people. This is a potentially explosive issue when placed in a regional context. The recent seizing of white-owned land and businesses in Zimbabwe is justified by SWAPO; ZANU-PP ally on the grounds that the economic dominance of white people in that country constitutes a continuation of 'British colonial domination'. The emergence of a Zimbabwe-like scenario in Namibia, while unlikely, is by no means impossible should the government fail to address the land situation expeditiously and constructively.

Caprivi and the secession crisis

On the morning of 2 August 1999, residents of Katima Mulilo in Namibia's Eastern Caprivi awoke to the sounds of gunfire. During the night around 100 people assaulted

government buildings in Katima and the nearby military base at M'pacha airport. While the attacks caught the Namibian security forces napping, the poorly trained and armed insurgents soon had to retreat as government forces rapidly gained the upper hand. Within 24 hours, the Namibian police and army were in almost complete control. A state of emergency was declared, a curfew imposed and citizens were confined to their homes.

Under emergency powers, Namibian security forces set about rounding up suspected collaborators. It emerged that the Caprivi Liberation Front, an organization determined to secure Caprivi's secession from Namibia, was responsible for the assaults. Over the next few months, Namibian security forces arrested and charged over 100 suspected collaborators, including former opposition parliamentarian Geoffrey Mwelima. The crackdown on the self-proclaimed secessionists was unremitting. Many of those taken captive by the government complained of beatings and torture, and that their ethnicity was constantly referred to during these interrogations.⁴⁰

Although the attempted military takeover of Eastern Caprivi by secessionist guerrillas caught the government unawares, it did not come as a surprise. Intelligence sources had warned of a potential uprising the previous year following the flight of the Malwe Chief, Boniface Mamfil (a prominent *Lozi* chief); the former leader of the DTA, Mshaka Mayongo; the governor of Caprivi, John Mahabok; and 108 armed followers to Botswana in October 1998.

The Caprivi uprising of August 1999 was not a spontaneous expression of discontent. Rather it represented a dramatic turn in an ongoing political dispute whose roots stretch back to the nineteenth century.

Historical context

The Caprivi Strip of land extends awkwardly from the north-east corner of the main Namibian landmass. It was appended to the colony as a result of agreements forged by colonial powers at the Berlin Conference in 1890. Originally part of the Bechuanaland Protectorate, Caprivi was granted to the Germans in part exchange for the Zanzibar Spice Islands. The physical remoteness of eastern Caprivi from administrative centres in Namibia is mirrored by perceptions of ethnic remoteness articulated by its predominantly *SiLozi*-speaking population.

Eastern Caprivi forms part of what was once the Kingdom of Barotseland that extended through Botswana, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Caprivi's *SiLozi*-speaking population maintains strong ties with the larger *Lozi* population, most of whom live in south-east Zambia. Caprivi owes its name not to any indigenous label but to Bismarck's successor, the German Chancellor, Leo von Caprivi.

Namibia's SILozi-speaking population is comprised of several distinct traditional communities. Included among these are the Maŵe, the Masabiya and the Maroela. The Maŵe and Masabiya are the two most influential groups in Caprivi, and despite having both been part of the larger Lozi Kingdom, they have maintained an often antagonistic relationship with one another. Although the Masabiya comprise around 40 per cent of the Caprivi population, smaller groupings like the Bayei and the Maroela have traditionally offered their fealty to the Maŵe. Friction between the Masabiya and the Maŵe has been most acute on issues of tribal status and, correspondingly, in recent decades, political affiliation. Prior to independence, Masabiya and Maŵe were at loggerheads with one another over the jurisdictions of their respective chieftaincies. In the build up to and the period following independence, tensions between Maŵe and Masabiya were increasingly played out in the party political arena. The Maŵe and those they had influence over offered their political loyalties to the DTA, while the Masabiya opted to support SWAPO.

The now exiled former DTA leader, Mshakhe Mayongo, emerged as the central figure in Caprivi's struggle to secede from Namibia. Born into the Maŵe royal house, Mayongo grew up to become a staunch opponent of the South African regime. In 1964 he joined the Caprivi African National Union (CANU) to campaign for Caprivi independence. In the same year, CANU merged with SWAPO, apparently after forging an agreement with the SWAPO leadership that, once Namibia won its independence from South Africa, Caprivi would be allowed to secede – although the current SWAPO leadership deny that such an agreement was ever made. Mayongo rose rapidly through the SWAPO hierarchy, eventually achieving the rank of Deputy President prior to deserting SWAPO in 1980. According to SWAPO, he was expelled because of his secessionist ambitions.

CANU sources suggest that Mayongo left SWAPO of his own accord as a result of conflict with its Owambo-dominated leadership. After spending several years exiled in Zambia, Mayongo returned to Namibia in 1985 to join the Fimbalhe process and assumed leadership of the DTA.

With independence, Caprivi's ambitions to secede did not diminish and neither did the tensions between the Maŵe and the Masabiya. Caprivi was one of the few regions in which the DTA won greater support than SWAPO in both the 1989 and 1994 general elections. While it is difficult to assess the extent of popular support for the secessionist cause in eastern Caprivi, it is clear that many Caprivians felt neglected by the new government, which they accused of ethnic favouritism. Such feelings were particularly acute among the Maŵe who, unlike the

Masabiya, maintained a traditionally antagonistic relationship to SWAPO.

Maŵe discontent was brought to a head in 1996 by the 'defection' of the Bayei, a small yet influential traditional community in Eastern Caprivi. Throughout the colonial period, the Bayei offered their fealty to the Maŵe, but in 1996 the government granted the Bayei traditional authority formal recognition and thus equal status to the Maŵe. The recognition of the Bayei traditional authority led to the Bayei articulating support for SWAPO, hence shifting the balance of power in Eastern Caprivi away from the Maŵe and the DTA. Maŵe leaders were furious with the Bayei, fearing that the delicate political balance would be tipped in favour of SWAPO in Caprivi.

In this fractious political climate the secessionist message fell on fertile Maŵe soil. Tensions in the region continued to grow, and with public support from Lozi Caprivi's governor John Mahuku and the Maŵe Chief Boniface Manili asserted their secessionist credentials ever more robustly. In Mayongo's case this led to his expulsion from the DTA by the party's executive committee who wished to have no part in any plans to sub-divide the nation.

Government officials who suspected that rebellion was brewing in Caprivi had their suspicions confirmed in November 1998 when Mahuku, Manili, Mayongo and several hundred other Caprivians, some bearing arms, crossed into Botswana fearing that their planned insurrection had been compromised by Namibian security services. Government reaction to the news that leaders of the Caprivi Liberation Front had fled to Botswana was harsh. The President called upon the Botswana government to extradite the leaders to Namibia to face Namibian justice. Botswana, however, was bound by its UN commitments to protect refugees and asylum seekers. As a result, Mayongo and his senior associates were not forced to return to Namibia and were later offered asylum in Denmark – providing that they did not engage in political activities. Most of their followers chose to remain in the relatively safe confines of Botswana's Dukwe refugee camp. The government clearly thought that Mayongo's exodus to Botswana was the end of the matter. However, as the events of August 1999 demonstrated, the matter was far from resolved.

Perhaps the most difficult question that emerged in the wake of the Caprivi uprising was the extent to which the secessionists represented the views of most of the population. In the elections that followed two months after the insurrection, SWAPO won a majority in Caprivi for the first time. These election results suggested that, while many Caprivians felt alienated by the government, they

had little sympathy for the secessionists. The government's uncompromising response to the secessionists' concerns must have convinced some Caprivians, hitherto sympathetic to the secessionist cause of the futility of armed rebellion, but their numbers are likely to have been small.

This is further suggested by the fact that only 5 per cent of voters in Caprivi voted for the DTA. Those wishing to register their discontent with the incumbent government instead chose to support the newly-formed Congress of Democrats party.

That there appears to be little widespread support for the Caprivi secessionists does not dispose of the problems experienced by Caprivians nor the belief that they are marginalized by government. Neither does it diminish the desire of some for an independent Caprivi as illustrated by the 120 Caprivians currently remained in custody on charges of high treason, who remain unbound in their political beliefs.²⁰ Given this, it is recommended that the government seeks to constructively engage with the concerns of disaffected Caprivians.

Conclusion

Taking into account the degree to which Namibia was ethnically, racially, culturally and linguistically fragmented at the time of independence, the SWAPO government has achieved a great deal since taking power. Nevertheless, some serious problems concerning the political and economic status of certain minorities need to be addressed.

These problems have become particularly acute as SWAPO's majority has increased in successive elections. The Caprivi crisis, the Basters' one-time secessionist ambitions and the status of the San remain particular concerns. The status of minorities in Namibia is further compounded by economic problems – in particular the high rate of unemployment and the extent of rural poverty. The latter issue is potentially problematic since it fuels speculation of ethnic favouritism. As much as Namibia has made important concessions to maintain the continuity and integrity of its diverse traditional communities, there remains scope for improvement. Ethnic politics in Namibia tend to reflect economic inequality, and the government's ability to accommodate minority concerns hinges in part on its capacity to manage the Namibian economy.

Given Namibia's fractious history and the current statistical dominance of Owambo speakers, it is clear that special efforts need to be made, not only to ensure that minorities are appropriately catered for in the new Namibian state, but also that minority concerns are taken seriously by the government. While the Owambo are col-

lectively no better off than most other Namibians, as the UNDP data indicates, it is crucial for the government to take action to ensure that minority groups do not feel that they are of secondary importance. Similarly, it is important that such groups do not feel that their individual identity is being eroded at the expense of a notionally Owambo-dominated national identity.

Minorities in a number of areas consider the appointment of people from other regions into positions of local government to be discriminatory. Despite statutory provisions that are designed to ensure the depoliticization of traditional leadership issues, the fact that traditional leaders require government recognition implicitly locks their status into a political framework. The present government's failure to recognize the legitimacy of some traditional authorities, like those of the San outside of former Bushaland, and their intervention in some traditional authority disputes like that of the Mbukushu, suggest that additional measures need to be developed to ensure that communities have greater autonomy regarding the selection and ratification of their traditional leaders.

Land access remains a serious problem in Namibia and the current distribution of land in both commercial and communal areas is clearly unsustainable. As has been demonstrated in Zimbabwe, land issues can be incendiary among populations largely dependent on underpaid wage labour and subsistence agriculture, and need to be dealt with quickly and equitably.

MRG's recommendations

MRG recommends that:

1. Public participation

The government should ensure that minorities and indigenous peoples are represented in local and national government. The government should consider devising electoral laws to encourage political parties to broaden their appeal to minorities and indigenous peoples, and require or encourage parties to nominate a minimum specified proportion of candidates from such groups.

2. Traditional authorities

An autonomous non-governmental committee should be established and empowered to assess the legitimacy of registration claims by traditional communities. This committee should also ensure that such communities perform in accordance with their statutory roles. The criterion regarding habitation of a common communal area contained in the Traditional Authorities Act should be reconsidered as a matter of urgency, as it discriminates against peoples who were deprived of land under previous regimes. Communities should be free to elect the leaders of traditional authorities without interference from the authorities, and in accordance with international standards for free and fair elections.

3. Land and land rights

The government should implement measures to ensure that marginalized minorities and indigenous peoples are given strong legal rights to land under the acquisition and resettlement process, in accordance with the principle of non-discrimination. Preference should be given to the granting of such rights to land corresponding as closely as possible to the areas traditionally inhabited by those peoples. Where this is not possible, land of equal quality and size should be provided as close as possible to the original area of habitation, with parity as the key organizational principle in the granting of land rights.

4. The role of civil society

NGOs and community-based organizations that respect national laws and international human rights standards must be allowed to function in complete freedom from harassment or criticism by the state. States, international development agencies and other donors should consider supporting these organizations. The government and

NGOs should seek to engage in fruitful dialogue on key minority and indigenous rights issues.

5. Affirmative action

The government should establish a programme of affirmative action for the most marginalized indigenous and minority groups in the country, with particular attention to the San. The groups in question should be actively involved in the design, implementation and evaluation of such programmes, in both executive and operational capacities. These programmes should target, among others, the areas of education – in particular learning of and in first languages – employment and health. States, international development agencies, local NGOs and other donors should consider supporting such initiatives.

6. Development programmes

The government should ensure that indigenous and minority communities are fully and effectively involved in decision-making processes around the design, implementation and evaluation of development programmes affecting them. Such programmes should not be implemented if the communities affected express their disapproval by means of an independently monitored, fair and fully inclusive consultation process.

7. Awareness-raising measures to combat racism

To counter perceptions of ethnic favouritism, and combat discriminatory attitudes towards certain communities, the government should establish a body, possibly through the office of the Ombudsman, to investigate and monitor the relative status of ethnic groups in Namibia. This body should start awareness-raising programmes among the general population about the different minority and indigenous communities, particularly regarding their contribution to Namibian society and culture, and promote principles of peaceful coexistence and non-discrimination, particularly at primary and secondary school level. Such a body should be comprised of representatives from both the government and non-governmental sectors.

8. Caprivi

The government should undertake special efforts in Caprivi to assure local populations that their interests and concerns are being taken seriously. It should forge strong local institutions in Caprivi, with the full and effective

Relevant international instruments

rescind or nullify any laws and regulations which have the effect of creating or perpetuating racial discrimination wherever it exists;

(d) Each State Party shall prohibit and bring to an end, by all appropriate means, including legislation as required by circumstances, racial discrimination by any persons, group or organization, whether public or private;

2. States Parties shall, when the circumstances so warrant, take in the social, economic, cultural and other fields, special and concrete measures to ensure the adequate development and protection of certain racial groups or individuals belonging to them, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the full and equal enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms. These measures shall in no case entail as a consequence the maintenance of unequal or separate rights for different racial groups after the objectives for which they were taken have been achieved.

Article 28
States Parties undertake to adopt immediate and effective measures, particularly in the fields of teaching, education, culture and information, with a view to combating prejudices which lead to racial discrimination and to promoting understanding, tolerance and friendship among nations and racial or ethnical groups, as well as to propagating the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, and this Convention.

United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989

Article 28
1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:

(a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;

(b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;

(c) Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means;

Article 29
1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:

(a) The development of the child's personality, talents and abilities, to his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national and international community in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;

International Labour Organization Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958

Article 1
Each Member for which this Convention is in force undertakes to declare and pursue a national policy designed to promote, by methods appropriate to national conditions and practice, equality of opportunity and treatment in respect of employment and occupation, with a view to eliminating any discrimination in respect thereof.

United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities, 1992

Article 1
1. States shall protect the existence and the national or ethnic, cultural, religious and linguistic identity of minorities within their respective territories and shall encourage conditions for the promotion of that identity.

2. States shall adopt appropriate legislative and other measures to achieve those ends.

Article 2
Persons belonging to minorities have the right to participate effectively in cultural, religious, social, economic and public life.

3. Persons belonging to minorities have the right to participate effectively in decisions on the national and, where appropriate, regional level concerning the minority to which they belong or the regions in which they live, in a manner not incompatible with national legislation.

Article 4
1. States shall take measures to create favourable conditions to enable persons belonging to minorities to express their characteristics and to preserve their traditions, customs, languages, religious practices and other aspects of their national and cultural identity.

2. States shall not take any measures aimed at destroying or eliminating the national and cultural identity of minorities.

3. States should take appropriate measures so that, wherever possible, persons belonging to minorities may have adequate opportunities to learn their mother tongue or to have instruction in their mother tongue.

4. States should, where appropriate, take measures in the field of education, in order to encourage knowledge of the history, culture, language and culture of the minorities living within their territory. Persons belonging to minorities should have adequate opportunities to gain knowledge of the society as a whole.

5. States should consider appropriate measures so that persons belonging to minorities may participate fully in the economic progress and development in their country.

United Nations International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, 1966

Article 2
1. Each State Party to the present Covenant undertakes to respect and to ensure to all individuals within its territory and subject to its jurisdiction the rights recognized in the present Covenant, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.

Article 27
In those States in which ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities exist, persons belonging to such minorities shall not be denied the right, in community with the other members of their group, to enjoy their own culture, to profess and practise their own religion, or to use their own language.

United Nations International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination, 1965

Article 2
1 (c) Each State Party shall take effective measures to review governmental, national and local policies, and to amend,

10. International human rights instruments

Namibia should take steps to implement all provisions of the main human rights instruments, particularly the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and the Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; it should also implement the recommendations made to it by the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination at its 49th session and submit those reports that are overdue to the Treaty bodies. It should also consider ratifying ILO Convention 169 on Indigenous and Tribal Peoples.

participation of all communities in the area, to foster a sense of their local identity while also ensuring that Caprivians feel that they are an important part of the Namibian state.

9. Legislation

The government should institute a thorough review of all legislation and repeal or modify any laws that are directly or indirectly discriminatory on the grounds of race, colour, sex, sexual orientation, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.

Notes

- 1 It is important to note that the liberation movement was broad-based and included members of many of Namibia's diverse communities as was demonstrated at the Hero's Day commemoration in August 2002.
- 2 The gini coefficient is a universal measure of wealth inequality. A coefficient of 0 suggests an ideal wealth distribution whereas a coefficient of 1 suggests absolute inequality.
- 3 Namibia is a member of the World Bank's World Development Indicators (WDI) and the African Development Bank's African Development Indicators (ADI).
- 4 See Schade, K., *Overview of the Employment Situation in Namibia*, paper presented at the 'Round Table on Unemployment', Windhoek, NEPRU, 2000.
- 5 The HPI is calculated from data relating to life expectancy, literacy, children's health, access to safe water, access to healthcare and poverty (see UNDP 1999).
- 6 See Dierks, K., *Chronology of Namibian History: From Pre-historical Times to Independent Namibia*, www.kiaunderr.com/chronology/index.html
- 7 See Gordon, B. and Sholto-Douglas, S., *The Bushman Myth: The Making of a Namibian Underclass*, Oxford, Westview Press, 2nd edn, 1989.
- 8 *Ibid.*
- 9 The police zone was an effect the area set aside for white settlement. The term 'police zone' was intended to roughly indicate the kind of civil administration within the area. It implied that in areas beyond the police zone civil matters were to be dealt with through traditional means.
- 10 Townships were native islands in white areas, and reserves were areas set aside for the use of the indigenous population.
- 11 There were no women with this authority.
- 12 The Angolan War was between the MPLA, supported by Cuba and the Soviet Union, and UNITA, supported by South Africa and the United States of America. It began immediately after Portugal, the former colonial power pulled out in 1974 and ended in 2001.
- 13 See the Namibian Constitution.
- 14 See Hinz, M. and Malar, J., *Communal Land Administration: Proceedings of the Consultative Conference on Land Administration*, Windhoek, WILK, 1999.
- 15 It is highly unlikely that Namibia will satisfy this. See Suzman, J., 'Human rights and indigenous wrongs: national policy, international resolutions and the status of the San in southern Africa', in J. Kennick and A. Barnard (eds), *Africa's Indigenous Minorities: First Peoples or Marginalised Minorities*, CAS (University of Edinburgh), 2001.
- 16 See WIMSA Annual Reports.
- 17 Pateman, H., *Traditional Authorities in Process*, CASS Traditional Authorities Recognition Assistance Prospect, Windhoek, CAS, 2002; provides details of this process in the context of the traditional authorities.
- 18 The Council of Traditional Authorities rejected the Council's recommendation that the Council should be the authority that defers judgment because the Hai/om were unable to present an undisputed traditional authority. In the case of the Kwee of western Caprivi where the Council recommended the establishment of a high level Committee to arbitrate, the President unilaterally declared western Caprivi to be the traditional land of the Mbukushu.
- 19 The accommodation of traditional leaders in the process of land distribution and allocation in communal areas must be understood as a compromise, given that the initial intention

- 46 Ministry of Land, Resettlement and Rehabilitation, Annual Report 2000, Windhoek, MLRR, December 1999.
- 47 Suzman, 'An assessment of the San in Southern Africa', op. cit., 2001.
- 48 Pateman, op. cit.
- 49 Allegations made to the author.
- 50 UNHCR author's personal communication, see Suzman, 'An assessment of the San in Southern Africa', op. cit.
- 51 Author's observations on the ground.
- 52 *Ibid.*
- 53 IRDNC unpublished report, see also Suzman, *Ibid*.
- 54 *Ibid.*

- 55 Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation Report on Emergency Meeting in the Western Caprivi, 10 December 1999.
- 56 Some San were uniformed soldiers.
- 57 Author's information obtained while working at the LAC.
- 58 There are no reliable population figures available.
- 59 Author's personal communication from the LAC. Some 135 people are being the government for alleged torture during the Caprivi sector.
- 60 There were 128 but eight have since died in custody. The
- 61 Nambian, 14 October 2002.

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Chandra Roy and Mike Keye
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36

35

MINORITIES IN INDEPENDENT NAMIBIA

MINORITIES IN INDEPENDENT NAMIBIA

working to secure the rights of minorities and indigenous peoples

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Minorities in Independent Namibia

Namibia is one of the youngest African states, having gained its independence in 1990 from South Africa. Since then, the South West African People's Organization (SWAPO)-led government has attempted to heal the divisions of a 25-year liberation war, overcome inequalities, and govern to meet the needs of all of Namibia's peoples.

Despite its small population of just over 1.8 million, Namibia is home to at least 11 distinct language groups, comprised of numerous self-identifying communities. Roughly half the population are Owambo-speakers, who are closely linked to SWAPO. Herein lie some of the difficulties that are covered in this report.

Minorities in Independent Namibia by James Suzman considers the extent to which SWAPO's attempts at nation-building have favoured some communities over others. In a balanced study, the author documents the constitutional and legal safeguards for minorities in Namibia, and discusses the government's human rights record. The report covers many of Namibia's ethnic minority communities and topical concerns, including: the crackdown on secessionists in Caprivi, the potential impact on the Himba of a proposed dam on the Kunene River, the extreme marginality of the San, the role of traditional authorities and leaders, and women's equality.

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Annexe 19 : Namibia's Communal Conservancies Report

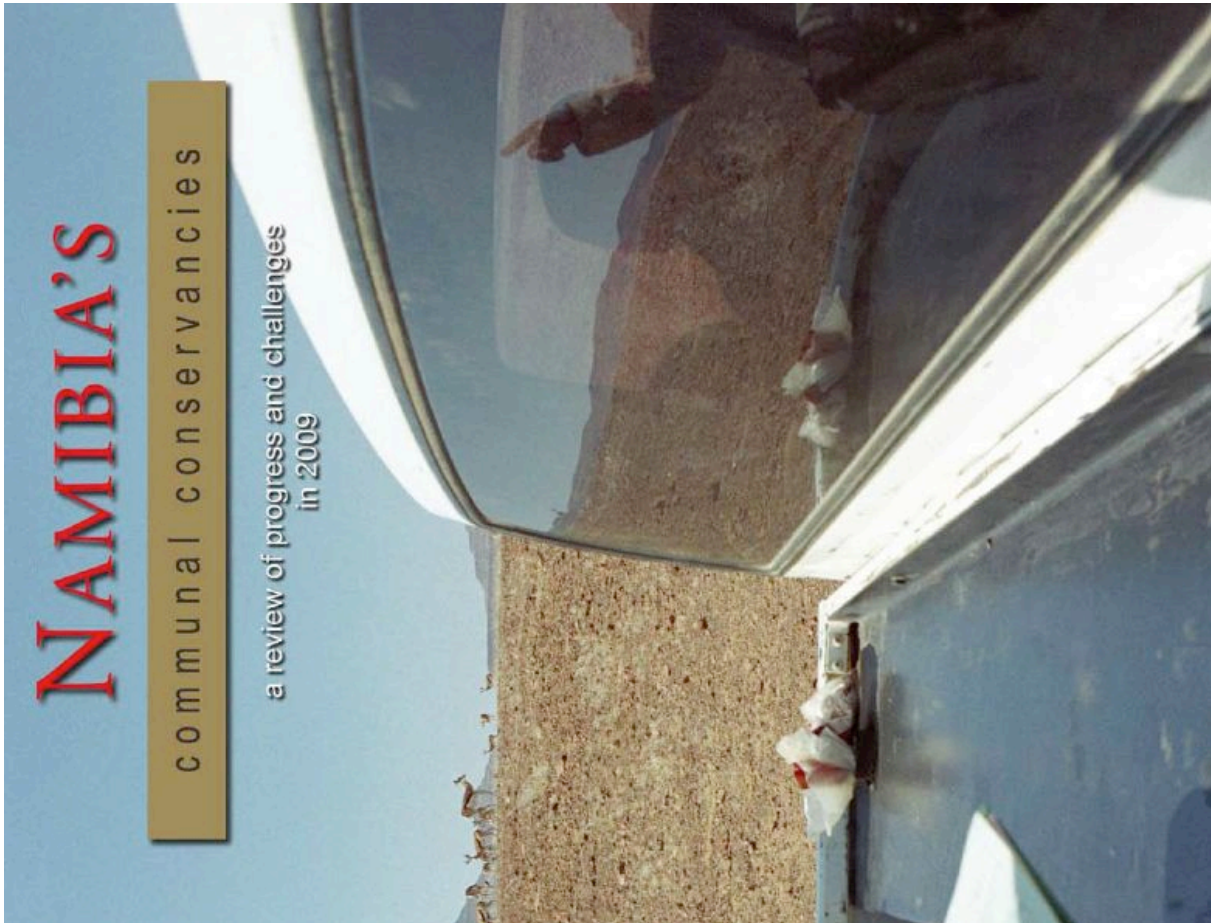


NAMIBIA'S

communal conservancies

a review of progress and challenges
in 2009





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ABBREVIATIONS

AGM	Annual General Meeting	NACOBTA	Namibia Community Based Tourism Assistance Trust
CBNRM	Community Based Natural Resource Management	NACSO	Namibia Association of Community-Based Conservation Organizations
CBTE	Community Based Tourism Enterprise	NDT	Namibia Development Trust
DED	Deutscher Entwicklungsdienst	NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
DoF	Directorate of Forestry	NKDFN	Nyate Nyate Development Foundation Namibia
DRFN	Desert Research Foundation of Namibia	NMF	Namibia Nature Foundation
DRWS	Directorate of Rural Water Supply	NNI	Net National Income
FIRM	Forum for Integrated Resource Management	RBE	Natural Resource Management
GPTF	Game Products Trust Fund	Rural	Rural Institute for Social Empowerment
HW	Human Wildlife Conflict	RWS	Rural Water Supply
ICEMA	Integrated Community-Based Ecosystems Management Project	SNT	State of the Nation Trust
IPBWC	Integrated Rural Development & Nature Conservation	UNAM	University of Namibia
KPF	Kalaba Peoples Fund	USAID	United States Agency for Development
LAC	Legal Assistance Centre	WMSA	Working Group on Indigenous Minorities in Southern Africa
MAWF	Ministry of Agriculture, Water & Forestry	WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature
MET	Ministry of Environment & Tourism		

Preface

Each year since 2003, we have been reporting on the progress and challenges of Namibia's communal area conservancies. Each year, we have been able to document increases in income, wildlife, and the number of conservancies. We have also included brief reports on the progress of community forests. In this edition, we again focus on the successes, but we have also taken more time and space to address some of the problems and challenges. Yes, we can report that overall income to conservancies in 2009 reached over NS 35 million, but we also recognise that an aggregated amount such as this hides many disparities in income between individual conservancies. We recognise that there are many disparities in performance between conservancies, with some facing critical governance problems. We further recognise that increased numbers of wildlife can create increased problems for rural farmers, particularly where predators kill livestock and elephants destroy crops or damage water installations. We recognise that, due to the rapid increase in the number of conservancies, support organisations (both government and NGO) are suffering from a lack of capacity to provide all the support that is needed. Finally, we recognise that questions of land tenure, land-use planning and zoning and improved coordination amongst all stakeholders need to be addressed to unlock the true potential of community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) as a vehicle for balanced rural development and the maintenance of functioning ecosystems.

The critical question regarding the problems and challenges facing conservancies and community forests is "What is being done to address them?" Apart from providing the usual information about income, expenditure and wildlife numbers, we provide some more in-depth case studies on what is being done to deal with some of the problems. These case studies demonstrate the extent to which CBNRM in Namibia is still evolving. It requires the testing and fine-tuning of various approaches to best achieve rural democracy, giving communities the opportunity to work out how best to make decisions about their use of income from natural resources. It requires some experimentation in the most useful approaches to local level management of wildlife and plant resources as communities debate among themselves what should be conserved and how resources can best be managed by a group. It also requires the experimentation, testing and fine-tuning of business development, as communities learn how to best manage tourism enterprises and contracts and develop new income generating opportunities. Finally, it requires careful monitoring, flexibility, responsiveness and adaptation, as all stakeholders within CBNRM are faced with a rapid growth in both scale and complexity – the number of conservancies and community forests, as well as the activities within them and the number of people involved, continue to increase. It is a balanced rural development and conservation approach that is providing great results, but has the potential for even greater achievements, and one that is receiving more and more international attention.

The successes achieved, and the way in which all stakeholders in CBNRM are trying to find innovative solutions to the problems, provide testament to the hard work and dedication of government officials, NGO personnel, the private sector and the community members themselves. The conservancy and community forest programme in Namibia is implemented through partnerships between the Ministry of Environment and Tourism, the Directorate of Forestry within the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry, regional councils, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the private sector and rural communities. These partnerships have been supported by a broad range of donors and international NGOs who are listed below. At the time of writing, a new phase of external support is about to begin through the United States Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) and the Millennium Challenge Account Namibia.

NACSO (on behalf of all its members) and the Ministry of Environment & Tourism would like to thank all its partners who have collaborated in developing and implementing the conservancy approach in Namibia. Non-government assistance is largely provided through the Namibian Association of CBNRM Support Organisations (NACSOS), a collaboration of 14 local NGOs, the University of Namibia, an international conservation NGO, regional conservancy associations and individual associate members. Investors from the tourism sector have become increasingly important partners over the last 10 years. In association with conservancies, they offer the bulk of jobs to conservancy members and facilitate significant returns of cash income to conservancies. A broad range of donors support the programme through the provision of technical expertise and funding. Since becoming a national programme, the main initial foreign contributors to CBNRM were the founding donors, namely the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and WWF (UK, International and USA). These early investments were followed by valuable funding from the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), United Kingdom Department for International Development (DFID), Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA), European Union, *Gesellschaft für Zibibator Zusammenarbeit* (GTZ), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Global Environment Facility (GEF), World Bank, *Fonds Français pour l'Environnement Mondial* (FFEM), WWF-US, Netherlands, Norway, Germany and Sweden, German Church Development Service (EED), Swiss Development Corporation, *Hilfsorganisation Institut für Ornithologie/Somerset* (HIVOS), Canada, Fund; Comic Relief, UK Lottery fund; British High Commission; Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD); Austrian Government, Royal Norwegian Embassy, Icelandic International Development Agency (ICEIDA), Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC); Voluntary Services Overseas (VSO) and World Bank (WB).

Contents

Preface	6
Chapter 1: Introduction – the growth and adaptability of community conservation	10
Chapter 2: Income, livelihoods and development – the benefits of market-based conservation	20
Chapter 3: Natural resource management – a driver of rural economic growth	42
Chapter 4: Governance and Ownership – the benefits of rural democracy	70
Chapter 5: Challenges and Vision – sustaining natural resources for the future	78
Chapter 6: Profiles of all registered conservancies	84
Support and partner organisations	144



Elephants feed on floodplains in the Kaoka Conservancy, while a hoesbeet provides tourists with a particular game viewing along the Chobe River. The town of Kasane (in the background, in Botswana), is the closest urban centre for the rural community. Its economy is largely based on the high tourism value of the area, both in Namibia and Botswana.

THE COVER

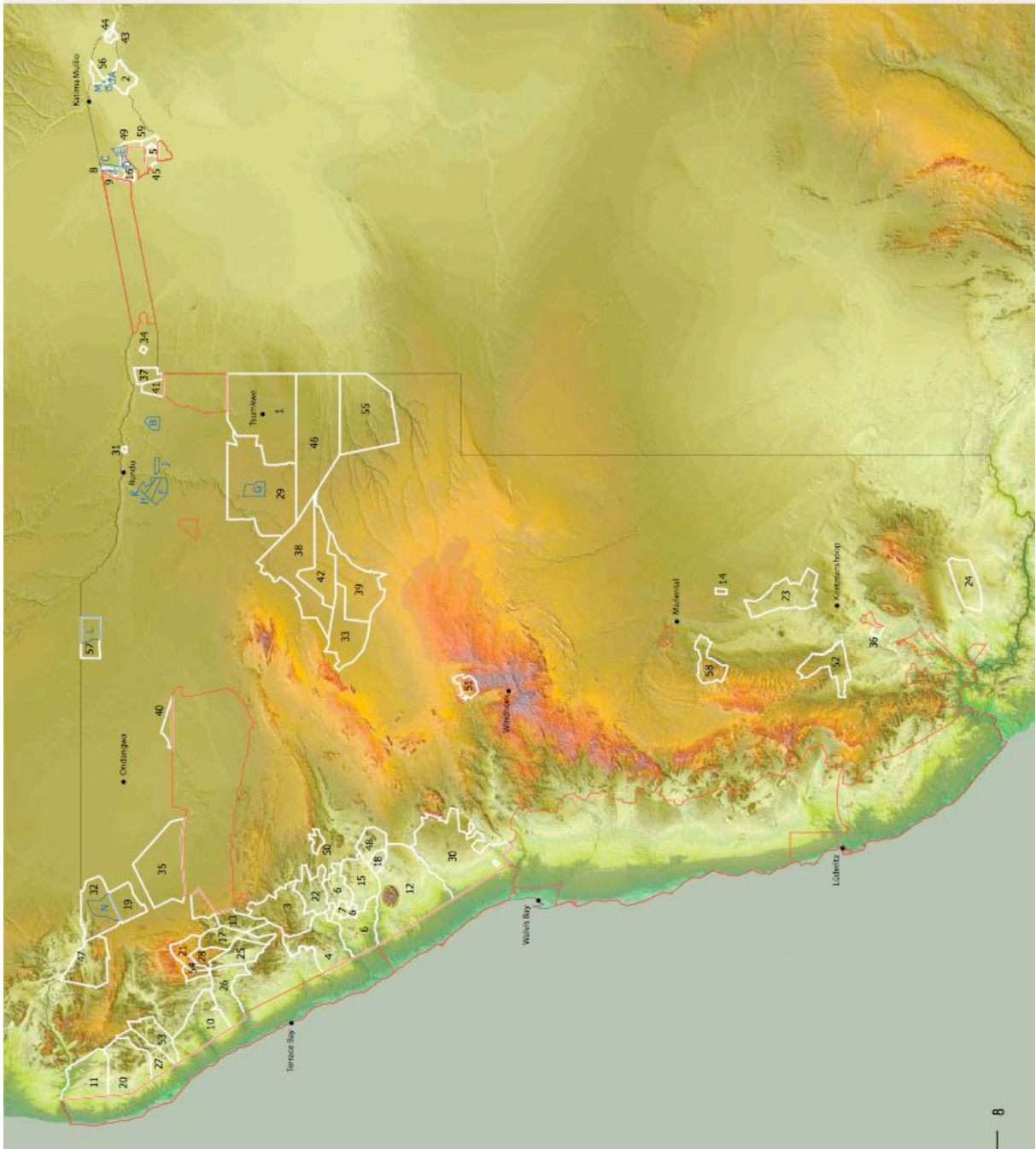
Elephants are amongst the most valuable natural resources for conservancies. Yet, the conflicts they create with other land-uses and infrastructure also present a major challenge for the CBNRM programme.

Tourism generates the largest portion of benefits for conservancies. However, these benefits can be significantly expanded through broader engagement by the private sector, especially amongst mobile operators.

The wise use and management of natural resources has the potential to drive rural development and economic growth, as well as delivering biodiversity conservation objectives.

Collaborative sustainable resource management across borders is crucial in ensuring the health of many large ecosystems. This is especially true in the Caprivi, a narrow strip of land dissected by perennial rivers that are vital biodiversity corridors.

Following page: Although many rural people in Caprivi still consider livestock, crops and fish their most important livelihood resources, wildlife and tourism are providing an increasing range of benefits



**THE 59 REGISTERED CONSERVANCIES IN 2009
ON AN ELEVATION MAP OF NAMIBIA**

- 1 Nyaa Nyaa
- 2 Salambata
- 3 #Kheud-//Hôas
- 4 Terra
- 5 Wuparo
- 6 Doro Inawas
- 7 Ubasen Twyfelfontein
- 8 Kwandu
- 9 Mayuni
- 10 Puros
- 11 Marienfluss
- 12 Tsesseb
- 13 Ehirovipuka
- 14 Oskop
- 15 Sers-Serfis
- 16 Mash
- 17 Ornatendeka
- 18 Ojimboyo
- 19 Luikwaludhi
- 20 Orupembe
- 21 Okangundumba
- 22 //Hwab
- 23 //Kxob Naub
- 24 //Gamaoseb
- 25 Anabab
- 26 Sesfontein
- 27 Santitas
- 28 Ozondundu
- 29 Nfa-Jaqra
- 30 #Gairingu
- 31 Joseph Maambangandu
- 32 Uuechobadhi-Ruacana
- 33 Ozenahi
- 34 Sharrungwa
- 35 Shoya Shuushena
- 36 Gwachab
- 37 Maduva Nyangama
- 38 Ojiluo
- 39 African Wild Dog
- 40 King Nehale
- 41 George Mukoya
- 42 Obamatapati
- 43 Kasika
- 44 Inpalla
- 45 Bahyewa
- 46 Onjoi
- 47 Kunene River
- 48 Ohungu
- 49 Sobbe
- 50 Audi
- 51 Ovibto
- 52 //HaniAweb
- 53 Okondjombo
- 54 Ojambangu
- 55 Eiseb
- 56 Skunga
- 57 Okongo
- 58 Huabas
- 59 Dzoiti

**THE 13 REGISTERED COMMUNITY FORESTS
IN 2009**

- A Bukalo
- B Hans Kanyinga
- C Kwandu
- D Lubala
- E Masida
- F Mbeyo
- G Mkata
- H Naramagoro
- J Naube
- K Naurara
- L Okongo
- M Sharrungwa
- N Uukokokadhi




Annexe 20 : MCA-Namibia Annual Report 2012

MCA NAMIBIA ANNUAL REPORT 2012

CONTENT

STATEMENT OF MCA/N CHAIRPERSON OF THE BOARD	1
STATEMENT OF MCA/N COUNTRY DIRECTOR	2
STATEMENT OF MCA/N CEO	3
GOVERNANCE OF THE MCA/N COMPACT	4
IMPLEMENTING PARTNERS	5
STAKEHOLDER CONSULTATIONS	5
FINANCE	6
PROCUREMENT	8
MONITORING & EVALUATION (M&E)	9
PROGRESS DURING 3 rd YEAR OF IMPLEMENTATION	10
EDUCATION	10
AGRICULTURE	12
TOURISM	16
ENVIRONMENTAL AND SOCIAL ASSESSMENT (ESA)	18
MCA NAMIBIA STAFF 2012	20



MCA NAMIBIA
POVERTY REDUCTION THROUGH ECONOMIC GROWTH

ANNUAL REPORT MCA NAMIBIA



STATEMENT OF MCA-N CHAIRPERSON OF THE BOARD



The Millennium Challenge Account Namibia (MCA-N) celebrated its third year on 16 September 2012. This leaves us with two more years before closure of the Compact programme.

During the period under review, achievements against Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) targets show considerable overall progress. However, progress was hampered by the slower than anticipated pace of procuring and implementing infrastructure contracts. It is satisfying to note that we were able to mitigate the potential risk.

MCA-N continues to track the results of all activities. These results will inform Government, Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) and other stakeholders on the achievements of the compact. It is evident that the programme continues to impact beneficiaries in a positive manner, e.g. learners, farmers and communal conservancy members.

The MCA-N Board continues to dispatch its oversight responsibility over the programme by ensuring that the programme achieves its objective of contributing to Government's goal of poverty reduction through economic growth.

Government and the National Planning Commission in particular, remains committed to the successful implementation of the MCA-N Compact Management. They appreciate the efforts and dedication of the MCA-N Unit as well as staff of the Millennium Challenge Corporation towards the successful implementation of the programme.

As the Compact enters its crucial fourth year, MCA-N continues to implement activities in order to improve the livelihoods of many Namibians. MCA-N and MCC staff, together with the MCA-N Board, implementing partners and other stakeholders made an undertaking to re-focus their energy towards the finishing line in September 2014.

I would like to sincerely thank my fellow Board members, staff of the MCA-N and our implementing partners for their dedication to the Compact programme.

Tom Alwendo, MCA Namibia Chairperson of the Board

STATEMENT OF MCC COUNTRY DIRECTOR



As a US Citizen living and working in Namibia, I often get the question "why is the Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) providing assistance to Namibia?" or "what does the MCC want in return for its support to Namibia?" The answer to these questions is quite simple – MCC's aim is to help Namibia achieve its development objectives, and in doing so, alleviate poverty in Namibia through sustainable economic growth. When we signed the Compact Agreement between our two nations in 2008, we hoped to establish a solid partnership with the Namibian government and the Namibian people, so that our two nations could work together to improve outcomes in the education sector and help Namibians increase their benefits from involvement in the livestock, tourism and natural products sectors.

It has now been over three years since the Compact Agreement entered into force, which leads me to the next question I receive a lot: "What have you achieved in Namibia?" Well, as this Annual Report demonstrates, the Millennium Challenge Account Namibia (MCA-N), through its partnership with MCC, has achieved quite a lot. Many Namibian learners now have proper classrooms and their own math, science and English textbooks and can focus on learning and creating opportunities for their future. As a result of MCA-N activities, thousands of Namibians in communal conservancies can now benefit from

new tourism enterprises, increasing their household incomes. Livestock farmers have better access to markets and are being supported to have healthier cattle and more productive grasslands. And community-based organizations involved in collecting natural products have increased their sales and are bringing more cash home to their families.

These are just a few examples of how this partnership is succeeding with poverty alleviation, employment creation, and revenue generation in Namibia. The results described in this report demonstrate that the Namibian government and people are fully engaged in this partnership with MCC, and I am confident that there will be many more successes in the final two years of this agreement between our two nations. After four years working closely with MCA Namibia, I will be moving to Malawi in 2013 to help the Malawians begin to implement their new Compact with MCC. While it will be very hard to leave the "land of the Brave," I am extremely encouraged by the progress I have seen so far with this programme, and I am optimistic that MCA Namibia will continue to deliver high-quality infrastructure, training, equipment and other support, so that all Namibians can benefit from this partnership.

Oliver Pierson, MCC Country Director

STATEMENT OF MCA-N CEO



It is a pleasure and a privilege for me to present this Annual Report of the Millennium Challenge Account Namibia (MCA-N) for the 2011/2012 financial year. This Annual Report serves as a platform with regard to information on the basis of transparency and accountability, including financial performance as well as compliance with the organization's funding legislation.

The third year of Compact implementation started on a solid foundation, which was laid during the preceding years, during which the challenges became clear. Due to the non-responsiveness of the market to one major project bid and the late achievement of preconditions (condition precedent) for the Etosha National Park activity, MCA-N could not achieve its targets in both cash expenditure and financial commitments.

As a result, we recorded below-par performance on our commitment and spending targets. MCA-N signed contracts worth US\$ 81 million against the target of US\$ 104 million, and paid out US\$ 53 million against the target of US\$ 74 million. Cumulatively, over the past three years, US\$ 219 million (72%) out of US\$ 304.5 million has been committed through contracts and US\$ 107 million (35%) cash has been spent. Given the fact that almost all major infrastructure projects are now committed, we expect spending to dramatically accelerate in years four and five.

The number of our dedicated and hardworking staff remained at 57. I am pleased to note that all MCA-N and MCC staff, the MCA-N Board and our implementing partners are working together towards the effective and timely implementation of the Compact. All three projects (Education, Agriculture and Tourism) achieved tangible results, which are highlighted in this report.

We are entering the fourth year on a strong footing. We have to stay on top of contracts management, as there are more than 200 contracts under implementation. All staff will put their weight into assisting our contract managers in supervising the service providers properly, as MCA-N cannot afford delays in any activity.

Penny Akwenye, MCA Namibia CEO

GOVERNANCE OF THE MCA-N COMPACT THE BOARD



MR. TOM ALWEENDO
CHAIRPERSON



HON. A. INYANGA
MINISTER
MEMBER



HON. NTJAMBO NANDORO
NATIONAL ASSEMBLY
MEMBER



HON. JOHN MUFONDAWA
MEMBER



HON. ABUBAKAR HAMBAR
MEMBER



HON. C. SCHUTTEIJN
MEMBER



MS. JACKIE AHERWE
MEMBER



MR. JUSTIN ELLIS
MEMBER



MS. INET ZAMAWANI
MEMBER



DR. MARY STEEP
MEMBER

During the Financial Year October 2011 to September 2012, the MCA-N Board approved 43 resolutions at 11 Board meetings.

The MCA-N Board (MCA-NB) serves as an active and engaged strategic organ in the effective implementation of the Compact, guiding both at strategic and political level - a role they have been fulfilling with utmost commitment.

In an effort to closely align Board composition to MCA-N's implementing partners in the Government, the Board consists of eleven members. It is chaired by Mr. Tom Alweendo, Director General of the National Planning Commission (NPC), and consists of ten voting members and one non-voting member representing the Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC). Six of the voting Board members represent Ministries with direct involvement in the implementation of the MCA-N Compact programme, whilst the remaining four are members from the private sector. This specific composition of the Board is instrumental in a more efficient working relationship with implementing partners.

The Board is supported by six sub-committees with the power to scrutinize motions before Board meetings and recommend motions for approval. The sub-committees are the HR Committee; the Finance and Procurement Committee; the Sub-Committee on Monitoring and Evaluation; on Education; on Tourism; and the Board Sub-Committee on Agriculture. The hard work and strong commitment of committee members significantly contributes to the efficiency and level of understanding of the programme at Board level.

IMPLEMENTING PARTNERS

MCA-N continues to implement the Compact in close cooperation with the main beneficiaries of the programme, the Implementing Partners (IP). These are the Ministries of Education (MoE), Environment and Tourism (MET), Agriculture, Water and Forestry (MAWF); Lands and Resettlement (MLR) as well as two State-Owned Enterprises (SOE); the Namibia Training Authority (NTA) and the Namibia Tourism Board (NTB). MCA-N funded coordinators and/or technical experts are based at MET, MAWF, MLR, NTB and NTA. A survey conducted during August 2012 with our six Implementing Partners elicited overall positive response of 87% with the partners agreeing that the Compact has already made a positive impact on their ministries/institutions.



MCA-N MANAGEMENT BRIEFING PARLIAMENTARY STANDING COMMITTEE ON HUMAN RESOURCES, EDUCATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

STAKEHOLDER CONSULTATIONS

MCA-N continues to consult and share information with all its partners and stakeholders.

In 2011/2012, the CEO of MCA-N continued interaction with both national and regional structures, focusing on sharing information with decision makers and beneficiaries. In order to cement relationships and demonstrate transparency, also important to MCA-N's leadership, it is to encourage beneficiary communities to willingly participate in MCA-N activities and to remain informed on the progress of implementation through various public outreach interventions.

Procurement outreach is an ongoing activity and briefing meetings with potential bidders to inform them of upcoming procurements and the procedures to be followed are held as and when necessary. MCA-N has reached out to construction federations and masterbuilders' associations in order to help ensure that they are aware of procurement opportunities at MCA-N. As a further outreach effort, a contractor-accessible database has been set up on MCA-N's website where the SMEs can register with the intent to create a pool.

In addition, pre-bid conferences, training sessions and seminars have been organised in the regions where activities are implemented in order to promote broad-based procurement responses.

Where activities commenced, corner stone events were held and handover events to our stakeholders marked the completion of a specific activity as a milestone achieved. Announcements about the events were broadcast over the radio (mainly in local languages) in addition to appearing in daily newspapers.

Depending on the specific procurement in question, advertisements for attendance at these outreach events were also placed in neighbouring countries.

These events were attended by representatives ranging from Regional Governors and Councilors in the Northern Communal Areas (MCA), traditional authorities and their community members, ministers, unions, MCA-NB members and, of course, the media fraternity.

FINANCE

COMMITMENTS

The commitment target for the year was US\$ 104.4 million. During the period under review US\$ 81.2 million was committed (78% of target). Under the Tourism Project significant delays and challenges were experienced in getting the Etosha National Park (ENP) works contract (7.7 US\$ 30 million) out on tender. Had this been achieved, targets for the year would have been exceeded. The ENP contract is now only expected to be finalised during the 2nd Quarter of the fourth financial year (FY4).

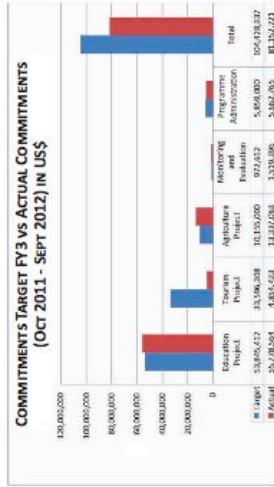


FIGURE 1: COMMITMENT TARGET PER PROJECT FOR THE PERIOD OCT 2011-SEPT 2012

Since inception, US\$ 219 million worth of contracts have been signed, this represents 72% of the Compact budget. Once the Etosha National Park works contracts are signed in 2013, the Compact budget will be more than 80% committed.

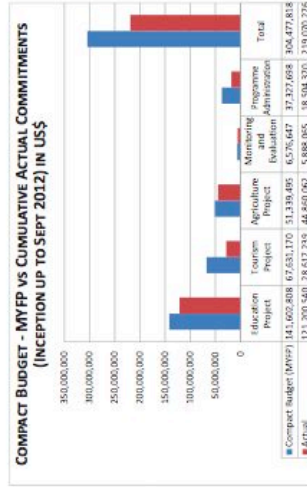


FIGURE 2: COMPACT BUDGET VERSUS CUMULATIVE ACTUAL COMMITMENTS

CASH EXPENDITURE

year were only finalised during the latter half of the year, this had a negative knock-on effect on the cash disbursements made.

Targeted Cash Expenditure for 2011/2012 was US\$ 74.2 million; by the end of September 2012 US\$ 53 million was spent, meeting 71% of the target. Some works contracts (mainly under Education) which were supposed to be signed early during the year were only finalised during the latter half of the year, this had a negative knock-on effect on the cash disbursements made.

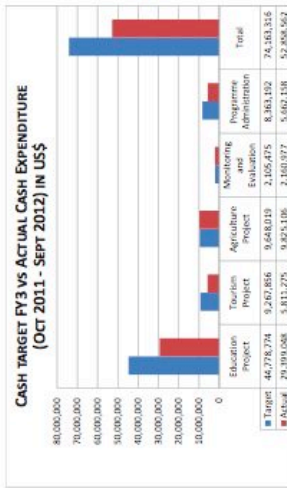


Figure 3: Cash results per projection for the period Oct 2011-Sept 2012

Since inception US\$ 107 million in cash has been paid to providers of goods and services and work contracts. Now that most of the funds are committed, the focus in years 4 and 5 will be on managing contract execution.

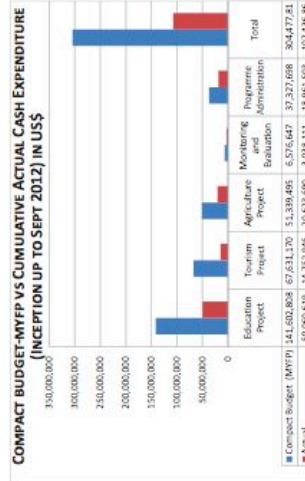


Figure 4: Cash paid to service providers in their respective projects

PROJECTIONS

As reported in previous years, commitment results, cash results and overall performance for the Namibian Compact remain above average in comparison to other countries that are at the same stage of Compact implementation.

Projected commitment for FY4 is US\$ 73 million and US\$ 12 million in FY5. The cash projection for FY 4 is US\$ 104 and US\$ 93 million in FY5.

EXTERNAL AUDITS

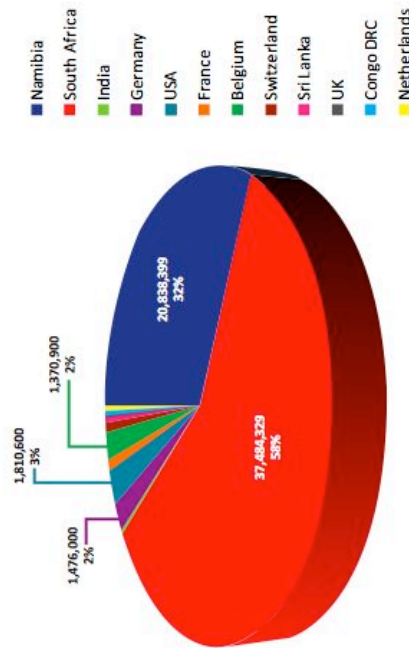
In 2012 MCA-N moved from 6-monthly to annual audit cycles. The audited financial statements are posted on the MCA-N website.

PROCUREMENT

A total number of 108 contracts valued at US\$ 65,017,597 were awarded between October 2011 and September 2012. These contracts were in respect of goods, services and works done in the Education, Tourism and Agriculture projects.

CONTRACTS AWARDED BETWEEN OCTOBER 2011 AND SEPTEMBER 2012

During the last 12 months, Namibian companies/consultants were contracted for a total amount of US\$ 20,838,399, representing 32% of the value of all contracts concluded during the period under review. With 58% the lion share of procurement contracts was awarded to service providers in neighbouring South Africa. During the previous financial year, this was the other way around. This shift mainly reflects the lack of locally available capacity in the building industry to provide for the construction of several multi million dollar infrastructure projects, such as MCA-N's Regional Study and Resource Centers. Yet, many Namibian companies were sub-contracted for specific sections by the main contractors.



CONTRACTS AWARDED OCTOBER 2011 - SEPTEMBER 2012 (IN US\$)

MONITORING & EVALUATION (M&E)

During 2011/2012, M&E completed all Data Quality Review (DQR) work with the exception of the third (and final) Ex Post Bi-Annual Review and the Ex Post Review of the final rounds of MCA-N's two major household surveys: the Community-based Rangiland and Livestock Management (CBRLM) surveys and the Conservancy Support/Indigenous Natural Products (CS/INP) survey. MCA-N has documented how it will follow up on these:

In Year 3, the M&E Directorate strengthened its relationship with the Namibia Statistics Agency (NSA), which was briefed on the findings of the Government Data Quality Review and other relevant activities. The M&E Directorate is also supporting the national statistical system by funding a consultant to document the methodology of the National Household Income and Expenditure Survey, the National Sample Frame, and to build the technical capacity of NSA staff.

The M&E Consultant for the Ministry of Education (M&E) completed his first year of work, and MCA-N opted to extend the contract. His key achievements include the creation of an M&E "toolkit" to assist the Education Ministry in applying M&E to its operations, assessment of capacity needs and building of national as well as regional M&E structures.

Data collection to inform the Vocational Education and Skills Development evaluation is successfully underway, with baseline rounds of data collection completed for all but the last intake of trainees. This will allow for the capturing of an accurate baseline against which to measure impact.

M&E support to MET in terms of goods and services made it possible for last year's arrival statistics to be compiled in record time in a promising step. MET is also starting to collect forms for this year's arrivals, which should put them in good stead to release data on a timely basis very soon after the reporting period. Findings from the MCA-N Funded Tourist Exit Survey will help the Namibian tourism sector in its future planning and development.

The Livestock Marketing Efficiency Fund (LMEF) evaluator's perceptive understandings and on-point observations as well as recommendations are helping to improve the implementation of LMEF grants. The evaluation is being expanded to include the Livestock Support activity as a whole - i.e. adding State Veterinary Offices (SVO), quarantine camps intervention and the traceability component - given the natural fit of the sub-activities and the impossibility of meaningful success in LMEF without success in the broader sector.

Higher-level indicators are coming into play as the Namibia Compact moves deeper into implementation. Data reporting issues, particularly with Etosha National Park activity-related indicators, are being addressed and will hopefully be resolved in Year four.



M&E SUPPORT: TRAVELLER FILLING IN TOURIST EXIT SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

PROGRESS DURING 3RD YEAR OF IMPLEMENTATION

EDUCATION

The Education project continues to make great strides in improving the quality of the Namibian education sector. Now that we have completed the third year of Compact implementation, MCA-N's efforts are starting to yield visible results: thousands of learners can now enjoy the facilities of 23 upgraded and expanded schools in the Oshana (5), Omusati (8) and Ohangwena (10) regions. This includes 67 fully furnished classrooms, 19 administration offices, 21 fully equipped science labs, 20 computer rooms, 39 libraries, 47 toilet blocks, and 122 teacher houses. Renovation and upgrading of seven schools in Oshana Region is progressing equally well and is expected to be completed by February 2013.

All sites for the remaining schools to be renovated and expanded were handed over to contractors and construction has commenced.

Designs for a School Hall at Uukweme Combined School are near complete. The hall was planned in response to MCC Environmental Social Assessment (ESA) concerns about the social conditions of the San children at Uukweme who have no access to after school care.

Good progress can be reported on the construction of the Oshana, Helo Helo and Gobabis Regional Study and Resources Centers (RSRC), also known as "Knowledge Centers" or "Super Libraries". Expected completion date for Oshana and Helo Helo is December 2012 and July 2013 for the Gobabis RSRC.

Equally, all sites for the Community Skills & Development Centres (COSDEC) at Opuwo, Gobabis, Windhoek, Ondangwa, Tsumeb, Ojiveringo, Huduud and Swakopmund were handed over to contractors and construction has commenced. Technical assistance to the Community Skills Development Fund (COSDEF) has yielded positive results and the COSDEF Strategic Plan is now complete in draft form.

MCA-N supported the National Training Authority (NTA) with the setting up of the National Training Fund (NTF), which is currently focusing on the implementation of a Training Levy system and has engaged 24 companies to participate in a pilot. This trial will test registration of employers, collection methods, reconciliation and recording of funds, followed by the submission of company training plans as well as the disbursement of levies.



EWEM COMBINED SCHOOL BEFORE & AFTER RENOVATION

The NTA Implementing Partner Agreement (IPA) makes provision to support the NTF pilot, which commenced in July 2012 with the procurement of training through the Vocational Training Grant Fund (VTGF). MCA-N provided scholarship funding to the NTA to allow for nine service level agreements with accredited vocational training service providers to the value of US\$ 3,254,862 to train 1,515 Namibians in subjects ranging from auto-mechanics and plumbing to tourism and hospitality. The training providers are currently recruiting trainees through public advertisements and some training has already started. A further 420 trainees were provided with training through the VTGF under directly contracted agreements with MCA-N and training providers.

The National Training Fund Council (NTFC) is now fully staffed and the NTA Board approved the key elements of the levy system. The key elements are a 1.5% levy in employers' payroll above a threshold of NS 350,000 per year, so raising approximately NS 330 million. Employers who submit and train in approved areas of training will be reimbursed with up to 50% of their levy contribution, so that in-house training is incentivised. A second funding window of 35% of the fund will address High Priority Training needs as identified by the NTA based Industrial Skills Committees (ISC%). The National Training Fund framework and Regulations will be presented to Cabinet for approval before implementation.

Technical assistance to the National Institute for Educational Development (NIED) for policy development and training

in textbook procurement are ongoing. Bidding documents and the final textbook catalogue for all subjects of the lower primary school phase (pre primary & grades 1-3) were approved by the Education Ministry in July 2012. Assistance for national examinations and assessment of grades 5 and 7 in Standardised Achievement Test (SAT) results were approved mid-2012. The results of the three SAT subjects (English, Mathematics and Science – grade 5 and 7) showed that the majority of learners tend to perform at basic and below basic levels with only very few performing above basic or reach excellent levels.

The Continuous Professional Development (CPD) Unit in collaboration with other stakeholders brought together professionals and specialists in the fields of English, mathematics and science to constitute a task working group that will analyse and interpret SAT results, identify

performance issues and develop remedial activities for educators.

Consensus was reached between the Ministry of Education, the National Council for Higher Education, University of Namibia (UNAM), Polytechnic of Namibia and the International University of Management (IUM) on the proposed Funding Framework for Higher Education Institutions (HEI) with the aim to improve their performance and achieve Government goals in terms of equity and efficiency in higher education.

Board and stakeholders of the Namibia Student Financial Assistance Fund (NSFAF) approved proposed amendments to the NSFAF Act and Regulations. Nationwide public outreach activities were conducted and comments incorporated in the draft NSFAF policy.

SUCCESS: NEWLY TRAINED TOUR OPERATORS ALREADY EMPLOYED

"A dream came true!" These were the emotional words of Tunomukwathi Angula when she received her tour guide certificate in March 2012 in Windhoek. The 26-year-old woman is one of 53 Namibians who successfully participated in a 14-month training course funded by MCA, Namibia (MCA-N). Angula is now equipped to lead tourist groups through the Southern African country's deserts and national parks.

Apart from the manual labour sector, Namibia's economy is largely characterised by a significant skills shortage. A few years after independence in 1990, the government has decided to take on the challenge, and reform its education and vocational training sectors. The government developed a 15-year strategic plan (ETSP), established the National Training Authority (NTA), compulsory training levies and introduced competency-based training.

About half of MCA-N's compact budget in Namibia - namely US\$ 145 million - is designated for the education sector. The money that is granted by the United States government through the Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC) is partly used to rewire vocational training in pre-identified high-priority areas. The development programme aims at reducing poverty through economic growth.

After mining, Namibia's tourism industry ranks second in the country's revenue statistics – yet its potential is underutilised. This has prompted MCA-N to not only support the upgrade of tourism facilities to cater for the needs of visitors from overseas but also professional skills in the field of hospitality and tour guiding.

The Namibia Academy for Tourism Hospitality (NATH) became the country's first training provider to sign an accreditation scholarship agreement with MCA-N. The organisation focuses on the training of tour guides on various levels of qualifications

performance issues and develop remedial activities for educators.

Consensus was reached between the Ministry of Education, the National Council for Higher Education, University of Namibia (UNAM), Polytechnic of Namibia and the International University of Management (IUM) on the proposed Funding Framework for Higher Education Institutions (HEI) with the aim to improve their performance and achieve Government goals in terms of equity and efficiency in higher education.

Board and stakeholders of the Namibia Student Financial Assistance Fund (NSFAF) approved proposed amendments to the NSFAF Act and Regulations. Nationwide public outreach activities were conducted and comments incorporated in the draft NSFAF policy.



TUNOMUKWATHI ANGULA AT HER GRADUATION AS TOUR GUIDE

as per the Namibian Qualifications Authority (NQA): Apprentice (Level 1), Basic Guide (Level 2), National Guide Advanced (Level 3) and Specialised Guide (Level 4).

The US\$ 281,000 grant provided an opportunity for 60 students from as far as the Northern Caprivi, Ohangwena, Omasaru, Kunene, Ojozondjupa, Karas, and Erongo regions to be thoroughly trained in subjects such as English, communication skills, flora and fauna as well as geology. Some participants came with previous experience in the tourism industry but lacked the financial resources to study for a nationally recognised guiding certificate. Forty-seven students graduated and almost half of them – including Tunomukwathi Angula – already found employment with Namibian tour operators.

During their skills and competence training, the tour guide fledglings had to prove themselves over a period of three months in their future working environment – the beautiful landscape of Namibia with her abundance in plant and animal species as well as her different cultures. The training forms part of MCA-N's intervention in Namibia's tourism sector to the amount of US\$ 67 million.

AGRICULTURE

The MCA-N Agriculture project seeks to improve the marketing opportunities for farmers who live north of the Veterinary Cordon Fence to the level of those farming south of the fence. The Directorate of Veterinary Services (DVS) launched the second phase of the livestock ear-tagging programme NAMLITS in April 2012 in support of the MCA-N effort to get all cattle in the country registered. This computerised cattle-monitoring system is regarded as crucial for the Northern Communal Areas (NCA) to track animal movement and diseases, which is a precondition for meat exports to lucrative markets, such as the European Union. MCA-N further started with the construction of four State Veterinary Offices (SVO) for the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Forestry (MAWF) during this financial year. The upgrade of the livestock quarantine camps in Caprivi Region is at an advanced stage and will soon be handed over to the benefiting implementing partner, MAWF.

Another important sub-activity within the MCA-N Agriculture project is the Communal Land Support (CLS) programme. Although the Communal Land Reform Act of 2002 attempted to address the problem of illegal fencing, the Act remains poorly understood by the general population and by land administration institutions, including chiefs, village headmen, traditional authorities and the Communal Land Boards (CLB) created under the Act. MCA-N has supported the Ministry of Lands and Resettlement by mapping 80 villages with 4,500 parcels. 1,019 certificates were issued by CLBs, while nine traditional authorities were trained to comprehend the Act better. Moreover, 200 outreach community meetings were held to inform the general public.

MCA-N's Community-Based Rangeland and Livestock Management (CBRLM) activity aims to benefit farmers in the NCA and includes the selection of ten demonstration grazing areas, where cattle owners learn techniques of combined herding in order to maintain pasture sustainably and prevent overgrazing. To date, 35 grazing areas are practicing CBRLM. In order to improve the gene pool quality of livestock and reach a desired bull-cow ratio in some areas, 51 breeding stud bulls were introduced. To cater for the now larger herds, water points were upgraded with boreholes, troughs and special pumps.

During the past financial year, MCA-N continued to support Indigenous Natural Products (INP) producers by enabling them to harvest their products in a sustainable manner. Fifty-eight Producer and Processor Organizations (PPO) received technical assistance that will allow them to link with global buyers, training on branding and packaging as well as modern processing methods. Close to 6,027 producers have been mobilised and now harvest INPs such as Marula, Kalahari Melon Seed, Ximena and Marikethi for oil processing in an environmentally friendly manner. Thirty-four PPOs were awarded Primary Production Improvement Grants (PPIG) to procure small equipment for value addition and scientific research.



COMMIPHOMA RESIN



BOROLEHLS PUMP/ST/ OHANGWENGA



COMMUNITY DECISIONS LAND PARCEL MAP

SUCCESS: NEW BULLS FOR BETTER OFFSPRING

Community Based Rangeland and Livestock Management (CBRLM) is a community based process that uses livestock and livestock management to ensure sustainable grass management. This will prevent overgrazing and overstocking and ensure adequate grass availability to improve livestock productivity.

CBRLM was implemented in communal Grazing Areas (GA) and communities have voluntarily accepted this form of intervention due to perpetual and chronic poor livestock quality.

CBRLM exposes farmers in GAs to a multitude of farming parameters, including addressing the prevalent herd structure discrepancy, that has resulted to below-standard calving and weaning rates. These farmers have agreed to modify their herd structure with the intention of optimising these figures and consequently improving their livelihoods by having more milk and marketable animals.

The actual process involves a livestock expert and the farmers gathering around a kraal with all cattle of a GA. Farmers are prompted to state their livestock production goals and address problems in achieving them.

Farmers and the livestock expert then identify non-productive animals, which are usually old oxen with reduced draught power, unproductive bulls, cows and repeat breeders. A productive bull to productive female ratio of 1:25 was

recommended and GA communities have requested CBRLM to source bulls for them in order to achieve this. MCA Namibia funded 51 bulls and delivered them to the GAs, implementing agent GOPA pre-financed an additional five bulls.

Sixteen (16) GAs have benefited from the CBRLM Bull Scheme and the farmers signed an agreement to pay for the bulls within nine months. Payment can be made in cash or in the form of livestock. Proceeds are used by CBRLM for a revolving fund to procure more bulls for upcoming GAs.

Some GAs require bull breeding assessment of their young male animals in order to have them certified as potential breeders, so they can be sold at a better price. This is a new development, because there has never been a local bull market in the communal areas before.

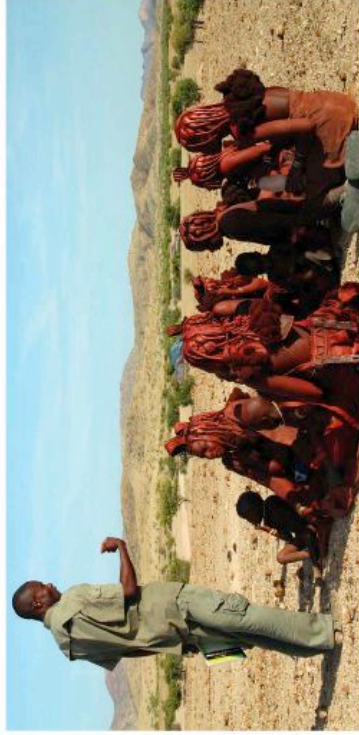
In Kavango and Kunene regions, farmers have successfully used their acquired knowledge and skills to identify non-productive animals to cull them. Bulls in Kavango that were found to be infertile or having unsatisfactory breeding potential were castrated.

Although livestock inventory has not been analysed, reports from GA communities indicate a notable rise in calving rates, especially with those that started implementing CBRLM a year ago. They also saw bulls are serving more cows than they used to before the intervention. As a result, more and more communities are requesting bulls.



DELIVERY OF A NEW BULL

SUCCESS: NEW INCOME OPPORTUNITY WITH OMUMBIRI



CONSERVANCY FIELD OFFICER WITH A GROUP OF OVAHIMBA HARVESTERS AT OUPUMBIRI CONSERVANCY

Veeriljiwinda is 17 years old and lives in the village of Otjimenje ("Place of the Springbok") in Oupumbiri Conservancy. Omumbiri harvesting runs in her family. Omumbiri is the Oupumbiri name for *Commiphora widdii*, a plant that naturally exudes large quantities of resin in response to environmental stresses, without the cutting or scarring required to stimulate resin production in some other species. It is sustainably harvested and traded mainly by the Ovahimba communities, to generate much needed cash income. Ovahimba women have used omumbiri resin for its fragrant properties since time immemorial. It is mixed with red ochre and animal fat to form a paste, which is usually stored in a cow horn and applied to the skin daily.

Conservancy communities derive most of their earnings from wildlife and tourism, and in 2004 the decision was taken to additionally investigate the commercialisation of plant resources, such as *Commiphora widdii*, to diversify income-generation. This also provided an opportunity to involve women more directly in the conservancies, because women are the traditional managers and users of plant resources in these communities.

Important groundwork was undertaken by a local Namibian service provider, Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation (IRDNC), with support from donors such as the World Wildlife Fund (WWF UK) and the Integrated Community Ecosystem Management (ICEAM) project. MCA Namibia assists producers through the Producer and Processor Organisation (PPO) as well as the Indigenous Natural Products Innovation Fund (INPIF).

Veeriljiwinda has been helping her mother with the omumbiri harvest over five years now. She says that the project is "important for buying food and other necessities such as blankets, and that is why we pay so much attention to it." Harvesters directly earn N\$ 50 per kilogram resin, and an additional N\$ 20 per kilogram is generated from sales to cover management and logistical costs.

Veeriljiwinda feels proud that people from all over the world are now using omumbiri: "The tree is important for providing resin. We are using it in our culture, and it helps maintain our culture." The 17 year-old says that it is important to develop a sustainable market for this new means of income. With a smile Veeriljiwinda says, "I will do this for the rest of my life, and just as my mother has taught me, I too want to teach others."

SUCCESS: ZAKUMUKA PRODUCER COOPERATIVE IN KUNENE NORTH UP AND RUNNING

The establishment of a farmers' cooperative in Northern Kunene was in response to the undesirable situation endured by farmers of the Region. The name Zakumuka is a Herero word meaning the cattle have left from home to their pastures and strangers will not find them in the kraal. Kunene North has about 200,000 heads of cattle and by far the highest livestock number per capita in the Northern Communal Areas. Herero and Himba farmers here are true pastoralists and depend with their livelihoods on animals.

The formation of a cooperative is a reaction to problems perceived by farmers:

- Speculators and middlemen offer unfair prices but farmers are often left with no choice but to sell to them
- Sales are often done at wrong times of the year
- Farmers are herding cattle but not managing the land
- Bull-to-Cow Ratio is insufficient and many bulls are of inferior genetic quality
- Farming methods are outdated, farmers are poor despite owning many animals
- Lack of coordination among farmers results in poor rangeland management and stock theft

The solution was the founding of a cooperative on 8 May 2012 by 107 members. A board of nine directors was elected for three years.

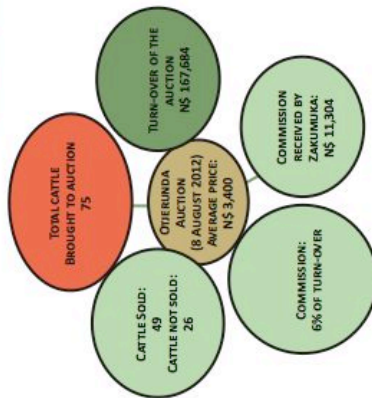
The objectives of the cooperative are:

- Coordinate marketing functions and organize auctions by buying and selling of cattle, goats and sheep
- Provision of credit facilities to members
- Provision of retail facilities
- Sales of meat and meat products

All activities aim at promoting the economic and social interests of its members by providing effective services on the basis of sound business principles. Zakumuka is a business entity established in accordance with the provision of the Cooperative Act no 23 of 1996.

A first auction with assistance from MCA Namibia's Community Based Rangeland and Livestock Management (CBRLM) activity was held on 8 August 2008 at Otjerunda, 30 kilometers east of Opuwo.

Zakumuka Cooperative is supported by both farmers' associations in Kunene North and currently has 250 members. The cooperative and the CBRLM office of MCA Namibia's consultants (Gopal) share an administrator and a secretary in Opuwo. The establishment of cooperatives in the Northern Communal Areas is in line with the project's sustainability plan, which envisages that key activities are carried over to farmers associations and cooperatives in future. For the remaining two years of MCA Namibia's Compact programme, the CBRLM project will assist Zakumuka Cooperative to strengthen their capacities, particularly in the field of marketing.



TOURISM

Namibia is the first country under the Millennium Challenge Corporation that is benefiting from a project in the tourism sector, as the government has recognised that tourism is an important employment generator, particularly in rural areas.

During this past financial year, series of meetings were held with Implementing Partners (IP), namely the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET), the Namibia Tourism Board (NTB) as well as the Namibia Association of Community-based Natural Resources Management Support Organization (NAMCSO) to keep the Etosha National Park, marketing and conservancy activities on track.

Bidding documents for the Etosha National Park Infrastructure were compiled in November 2012. A Change Management Advisor assists Etosha National Park staff with technical advice and support. Ongoing planning meetings regarding the change management process took place at Etosha National Park and priority areas for interventions were identified.

Under the Conservancy Development Support Services (CDSS), lipumbu ya Tshilongo was included as the 30th conservancy. An inaugural meeting was held with stakeholders in July 2012 at Otjeweve and Ohnani Village. Kaska was added as the 31st conservancy. Support will also be given to the Hai//om Association. Good progress was recorded in conservancy training and capacity development. Close to 600 participants, of which 28% were women, benefited from 34 training courses. Furthermore, conservancies were assisted with grant applications to the Conservancy Development Support Grants Fund (CDSGF).

The consultant contracted to implement MCA-N's North American Destination Marketing (NADM) activity achieved several milestones in marketing Namibia as a tourism destination internationally. Crucial support was provided to the successful Namibian bid to host the Adventure Travel World Summit (ATWS) in 2013, preceded by the organization of familiarization trips of the President of the Adventure Travel Trade Association (ATTA), Shannon Stowell. The team also launched a new "International Trade" page of the Namibia Tourism Board (NTB) website and successfully completed the first online campaign "Conservation Destination" in the North American market, which focused on Namibia's remarkable conservation story as a unique selling point.

In online marketing, the "Share My Namibia" campaign was launched in September 2012, driven by key Namibian personalities. This campaign focuses on the country's iconic destinations and great product offers through the voices of local Namibians. A sweepstakes/lucky draw will encourage online users to view ten of Namibia's special places.

In early August 2012, a new addition to the website called "Namibia TravelStories" was launched. This page features brand partnership with National Geographic with collections of images



BOAT RITING FROM MCA-N; GILSHOOL, LIVING MUSEUM

and captions that tell a unique "story" about Namibia and its travel opportunities, unique itineraries, in-depth observations of attractions, only-in-Namibia experiences. "Gostones" are collected from Namibian photographers, tour operators, community leaders and storytellers. Website maintenance and strengthening are ongoing in order to boost its search engine ranking and make the NTB website the unchallenged authority on tourism in Namibia.

In supporting MET with a wildlife translocation technician, MCA-N played a crucial role during the time period under review, when 1,320 heads of game were translocated to MCA-N target conservancies. Vehicles provided to MET included a 25-seater bus for Etosha National Park in support of the opening of the Galton Gate route.

Grants under the CDSGF allow conservancy members to partake in national and international conservancy-related events, such as the 2012 Tourism Expo in Windhoek. Four conservancy members in September accompanied other representatives of the Namibian tourism sector to participate in the Ecotourism and Sustainable Tourism Conference (ESTC) in the United States of America.

SUCCESS: NAMIBIA HIGH ON INTERNATIONAL TOURISM AGENDA

Namibia with the support of the NADM (North American Destination Marketing) team won the bid to host the Adventure Travel World Summit (ATWS) in 2013. The NADM team assisted the Namibia Tourism Board (NTB), the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET) and the private tourism industry to prepare this bid.

MCA Namibia has furthered its commitment to providing NADM with additional funding to provide more support for the preparatory work for the 2013 ATWS. A video showcasing the beauty of the Land of the Brave was screened at this year's ATWS in Lucerne, Switzerland in October 2012.

The Hospitality Sales & Marketing Association International presented the Namibia Tourism Board with the prestigious platinum Adrian Award for best digital marketing for the NTB's website developed with funding from MCA Namibia. The award was presented to NTB in New York on 27 February 2012.

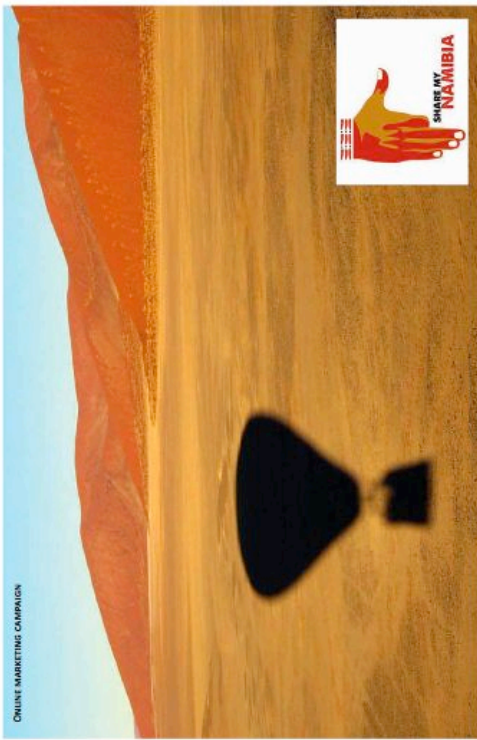
A tour being run by a Namibian tour operator, Ultimate Safaris, was listed in the National Geographic "50 tours of a lifetime 2012". Ultimate Safaris is one of the 15 tour operators who participated in the first NADM road show to the USA, which took place from the 26 February to 4 March 2012. They recorded good bookings for 2013.

The NADM's public relations component continues its efforts to build awareness of Namibia as a destination of choice for the North American traveler. Successes include editorial placement in Huffington Post, Outside magazine and other key online and print media, plus assistance to the ABC television show "Born to Explore", which resulted in the airing of Namibia episodes.

The 'Conservation Destination' campaign was launched on 22 April 2012, in partnership with four Namibian conservation organizations: Cheetah Conservation Fund, Namibian Coast Conservation and Management Project, Namib Desert Environmental Educational Trust as well as the Save the Rhino Trust.

The NTB Facebook community grew by 3,000 members during the campaign, and the number of people exposed to it reached 1.6 million, including the communities of the conservation partners, the campaign's total reach exceeded 19 million.

ONLINE MARKETING CAMPAIGN



ENVIRONMENTAL AND SOCIAL ASSESSMENT (ESA)



PRIORITY AT MCA-N CONSTRUCTION SITES: HEALTH AND SAFETY GEAR FOR THE WORKERS

MCA-N continues to enforce full compliance with our Environmental Management Plans, Public Health and Safety Awareness Plans as well as HIV/AIDS Awareness and Prevention Plans by our works contractors at all construction sites. All works contractors have attained full compliance with MCA-N's requirements and were issued certificates. There have been a few works stoppages and withholding of contractor payments at several sites during this financial year, though efforts to ensure full ESA compliance have paid off.

ESA compliance for all activities other than works/construction such as Community-Based Range, Land and Livestock Management (CBLRM), Communal Land Support (CLS), Indigenous Natural Products (INP) and Conservancy Development Support Services (CDSS) has been very good during the period under review. MCA-N efforts to ensure adherence have been supported by the implementation support mission from the MCC Social & Gender Assessment (SGA) team in mid-2012. Subsequently, two service contractors requested MCA-N to avail a Social & Gender consultant to build SGA capacity for their field staff who are responsible for gender training.

Together with the Ministry of Education (MOE), MCA-N's ESA directorate is spearheading hygiene and sanitation programmes for lower and junior primary schools. The so-called WASH initiative is expected to start early next year and will benefit all primary schools in Namibia. WASH is expected to positively impact on the overall health and, consequently, performance of learners by educating them in sanitation and hygiene practices.

SUCCESS: HIV/AIDS AWARENESS FOR CONSTRUCTION WORKERS

Hundreds of workers are building and upgrading schools, libraries, quarantine camps and vocational centers countrywide for MCA-N. Among others, construction companies are obliged to educate their staff on issues related to HIV/AIDS and the prevention of sexually transmitted diseases (STD).

MCA-N requires that contractors provide information, communication and education material at construction sites - a commitment to implementing the Public Health and Public Safety as well as HIV/AIDS Awareness Prevention Plan in compliance with Namibia's social and labour legislation.

On 20 July 2012, MCA-N's Environmental & Social Assessment (ESA) inspected one of its construction sites regarding the compulsory HIV/AIDS Awareness and Prevention Plan. The contractor based in Otjave is renovating and upgrading Khorab Junior Secondary School for several months and the labour force was recruited from all over the country.


Forty-five year-old Max //Goeb is working as chief bricklayer and was very happy to receive firsthand knowledge on HIV and AIDS. During his 20-year career as bricklayer he has never received such training although he considers himself vulnerable to the epidemic.



FOR A HEALTHY WORKFORCE, CONSTRUCTION WORKERS GETTING TO REGISTERED, NATURE KAZEMBA ANGOLA DURING HIV & AIDS AWARENESS PREVENTION PLAN (PAPAP) TRAINING

MCA NAMIBIA 20

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NAMIBIA STAFF 2012

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 VINCENT GULLIFMIN WILDLIFE TECHNICIAN	 JAMES LUMBAGO INP COORDINATOR	 APOLLOS HAVELUNDU INP ASSISTANT COORDINATOR	 HERBERT NSHIRIRO INP COORDINATOR	 HELENA DAVAO INP COORDINATOR	 MAFAHELI SARAMBERA COORDINATOR EDUCATION	 NDUAS SARAMBERA DRIVER / MESSENGER	 ELIZABETH KAMONDOR ASSISTANT MANAGER FISCAL SERVICES	 MELANI DE KLERK MANAGER VTEG PROCUREMENT ASSISTANT
 MOSES SARAMBERA COORDINATOR LIVESTOCK	 SAM PILLUS CLS COORDINATOR	 HANKA NAITULUA GENERAL OFFICE ASSISTANT	 SANA RUELUS CLS COORDINATOR	 FREDA KAPFENE MANAGER ESA	 NOTULULA AMULUNDU MANAGER M&E	 NDUAS SARAMBERA DRIVER / MESSENGER	 NICHOLAS INYANTI DIRECTOR INFRASTRUCTURE	

ANNUAL REPORT 21 MCA NAMIBIA

MCA-N: 3 Years In and Making Good on Its Promises

September 30

2012



Millennium Challenge Account Namibia (MCA-N) is committed to delivering on the promises made to the nation in the 5-year Compact signed between the governments of Namibia and the United States. As such, measuring and tracking accomplishments and the impact that the Program is having is of great importance. This document summarizes the achievements made up to the end of Year 3 and lays out the targets for the remaining 2 years.

Results At Year 3

Basic Facts About MCA-N

Program Goal: Poverty Reduction Through Economic Growth

Program Start Date: September 15, 2009

Program End Date: September 14, 2014

Available Funding: US\$304.5 million (approx. N\$2.5 billion)

Funding Source: The American taxpayer as represented by the U.S. government's Millennium Challenge Corporation (MCC)

Number of Projects: 3

Project Sectors: Education, Tourism, Agriculture

Number of Staff: 57

CEO: Penny Akwenye

Deputy CEOs: Eline van der Linden, Sikongo Haihambo

Directors and Legal Advisor: G. Tuli-Mevava Nghiyoonanye, Fanuel Demas, Helmke Sartorius von Bach, Nicolas Hibbert, Kandi Shejavali, Timo Mufeti, Johann Botha, Temba Tshuma, Patrick Chinkhunta, Leezhel van Wyk



Penny Akwenye, CEO, MCA Namibia

NB: Amongst other things, MCA-N has undertaken data quality reviews to ensure that the numbers reported in this document are up to standard. For further information and clarification on results to date, please contact MCA-N's Monitoring and Evaluation directorate at +264 61 410 400.


Education Project Achievements

[Budget: US\$142.6 million]

Education Project Objectives: To alleviate workforce quality constraints to private sector-led growth by enhancing the equity and effectiveness of basic, vocational, and tertiary education.

Activity #1: Improving the Quality of General Education

A major part of this activity is devoted to the construction, rehabilitation and equipping of facilities at 47 schools around the country, with the goal of improving the learning and teaching environment and maximizing the ability of learners to develop academically and thus perform at a higher level – ultimately enhancing their chances in life as they pursue further education/training and become contributing citizens of the nation.



Value disbursed against design/supervisory contracts for 47 schools: **US\$7,950,242** [Compact target: US\$7,930,000]

Value disbursed against construction, rehabilitation and equipment contracts for 47 schools: **US\$26,394,043** [Compact target: US\$58,675,768]

Number of schools where facilities have been constructed/rehabilitated: **23** (target: 47)

Number of learners benefiting from the 47 schools sub-activity: **24,900** [Compact target: 30,561]

Throughout design and construction, MCA-N ensures that high environmental and social standards are applied and adhered to. Care is taken to ensure that the social and physical environment remains safe for school-goers and other local residents. For example, the innovative, environmentally-friendly Enviro Loo toilets have been installed at sites at risk for flooding and related maintenance training has been delivered.

In addition to school infrastructure and equipment, the **Improving the Quality of General Education** activity includes the Continuous Professional Development (CPD) Management Unit Grant (worth **N\$14,420,000**), which is aimed at supporting the ongoing upgrading of teachers' skills and competencies that will help improve teaching effectiveness and learner performance.

Funds in the amount of **US\$70,073** have also been spent on science equipment for UNAM's Colleges of Education, with a further US\$200,000 to be expended for the same purpose before the end of the Compact. This action is aimed at facilitating higher student achievement in the related subjects, leading to improved outcomes not only in learning but also in later teaching.

Activity #2: Vocational Education and Skills Training

MCA-N is assisting the Namibia Training Authority (NTA) in the creation and operationalization of a levy collection system to support vocational education and skills training. Until the levy is functional, MCA-N is funding such training directly, and **US\$7,272,735** has been committed to date to support a targeted **1,638** trainees in *high-demand* skill areas (thus helping to ensure that trainees actually find jobs upon graduation).

Vocational trainees assisted through the grant facility: **356**, with 1,735 covered under existing agreements [Compact target: 1,638]
 Graduates from MCA-supported training: **77** [Compact target: 1,392]

In addition, MCA-N is assisting in the construction of 4 new and upgrading of 5 existing Community Skills Development Centres (COSDECs), budgeted to the tune of US\$14,206,962. To date, construction contracts to the value of **US\$10,875,455** have been signed. All 8 COSDECs are scheduled to be completed by the end of Year 4 of the Compact. An Arts and Crafts Centre will also be constructed by the end of Year 5.



Vocational training graduates with MCC and MCA-N staff

These actions are aimed at expanding the availability of high-priority skills training and related opportunities and increasing the number of people benefiting from vocational training in terms of better employment prospects and increased income.

MCA-N is also supporting the training of COSDEC staff in management. By the end of the Compact, 15 individual staff members will have been trained in strategic planning, budgeting, finance, and community skills assessment. This action will help ensure that COSDECs and the training that they offer are more responsive to the needs of their communities and of the local and national economy.

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Vocational training graduates with MCC and MCA-N staff

Activity #3: Improving Access to and Management of Textbooks



669,751 textbooks delivered!

This activity is aimed at reducing gaps in the current provision of books, and increasing efficiency in textbook delivery by refining the curriculum and improving the procurement process. The first tranche of textbooks was delivered in MCA-N's first year of implementation; additional tranches will be delivered in Years 4 and 5, according to the needs identified by the Ministry of Education. Ensuring that enough of the right books reach learners on time is critical to enhancing their prospects to learn.

Activity #4: Investment in Regional Study Resource Centres (RSRCs)



RSRC construction in progress

of RSRCs to be constructed: **3** (all underway, with completion of the Oshakati and Helao Nafidi RSRCs expected by Dec 2012 and the Gobabis RSRC due to be delivered in July 2013)



RSRC construction near-complete. Soon local residents will have access to the library's learning materials to advance their knowledge.

Value disbursed for RSRC construction so far: **US\$4,192,368** [budget: US\$17,500,000]

Activity #5: Improving Access to Tertiary Finance

In a highly consultative process, MCA-N is helping to change the way financing works for Namibian students who wish to pursue higher education. The reforms will help make the scholarship and loan system financially sustainable and equitable through:

- the development of a Tertiary Education Financing Policy;
- implementation of a funding formula for higher education; and
- designing a robust and comprehensive loan application, monitoring, and recovery system.

In simple terms, this means more students will have a chance to receive support for a degree and thus improve their chances to fulfill their potential in life and be productive citizens.

Activity #6: Cross-Project Support

The HIV/AIDS Management Unit of the MoE and related regional committees are being strengthened to help ensure an effective response to HIV/AIDS in the education sector.

Tourism Project Achievements

[Budget: US\$47.6 million]

Tourism Project Objectives: To grow the Namibian tourism industry by improving tourism management and increasing awareness of Namibia as a tourist destination.

Activity #1: Improving Management and Infrastructure in Etosha National Park

With the goal of improving the management efficiency of Etosha National Park and its ability to be responsive to challenges in the tourism sector and, ultimately, improve the tourist experience, MCA-N's investment supports ENP management reform, the construction of management centres and staff housing, and the provision of maintenance and game translocation equipment.

Galton Gate Plan (providing general access to the Park from the west) completed 21 September 2010. All Tourism Project Conditions Precedent met by September 2012, allowing for construction of staff housing unit and management centres to get underway.

Value of signed contracts for design/supervisory contracts for ENP housing units and management centres: **US\$3,057,093** [Compact target achieved!], with construction contractors yet to be procured and construction due to begin after MET meets final Condition Precedent.

Value of maintenance and game translocation equipment delivered: **US\$2,900,000**



Maintenance equipment for Etosha

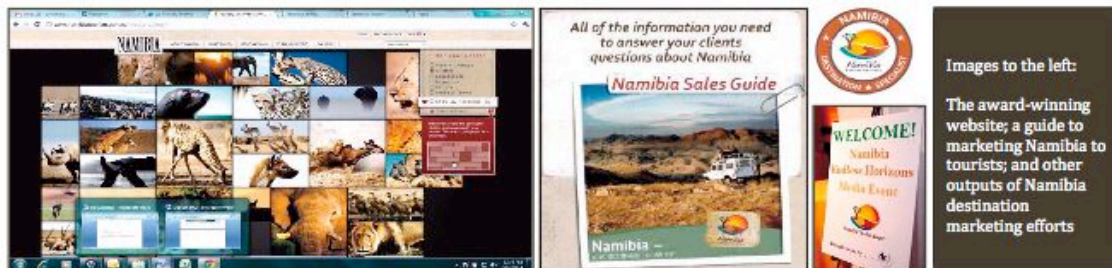
It is anticipated that ENP reforms will also provide for increased participation by the adjacent conservancies to benefit from the Park.

Activity #2: Marketing Namibia in Tourism

The goal of this activity is to increase international awareness of Namibia as a premier destination for tourists, translating to increased tourist numbers and growth of the Namibian tourism sector with all its accompanying benefits such as increased employment. With all the beautiful diversity that the country offers, its appeal is being marketed to four main categories of tourists: Experience Seekers, Curious Conservationists, Self-Challengers, and Outdoor Enthusiasts. Special focus is being given to attracting tourists from North America.

Throughout implementation, the capacity of the Namibia Tourism Board (NTB) and the Namibian tourism sector at large is being built in order to ensure that marketing expertise will be retained in the country long after MCA-N closes its doors in 2 years.

Major successes are plentiful, including helping Namibia win the bid to host the 2013 Adventure Travel World Summit, the revamped NTB website winning accolades, partnership with National Geographic, editorial placements, and other ground-breaking achievements.



Images to the left:

The award-winning website; a guide to marketing Namibia to tourists; and other outputs of Namibia destination marketing efforts

Registered users of the website stand at a highest-ever level of **928**, already exceeding the end-Compact target of 670.

Also under marketing of Namibia, MCA-N is supporting the development of regional routes in order to help bring the economic benefits of tourism to rural communities.

Activity #3: Ecotourism Development for Communal Conservancies



The goal of the **Ecotourism Development for Communal Conservancies** activity is to enhance the capacities of conservancies to manage the resources entrusted to them while competing to attract tourists, thus increasing their incomes and that of conservancy members.

This is being done through the translocation of game (**2,162** to date), delivery of management training, and support for conservancies to enter into joint ventures with private partners (over **NS9.3 million** in new investment to date) to further unlock the economic benefits of tourism flowing to residents of rural parts of Namibia, all of which tie in closely with the other Tourism Project activities.



Conservancy members welcoming visitors with a traditional dance

Agriculture Project Achievements (budget: US\$1.2 million)

Agriculture Project Objectives: To improve rural livelihoods by enhancing the sustainable use of resources (the rangeland, livestock, and indigenous natural products) and increasing land tenure security.

Though the interventions are broken out into individual activities, the idea is to *overall* enhance the performance of the agriculture sector.

Activity #1: Land Access and Management

The goal of the **Land Access and Management** activity is to improve land tenure security and increase community adoption of sustainable rangeland management, animal husbandry, and livestock marketing practices, allowing farmers to increase their performance in the livestock sector. Under the Communal Land Support (CLS) sub-activity, great strides have been made. The activity is transforming the way in which land is administered and boosts residents' confidence to invest in making their allotted individual and collective parcels more productive, leading to improved livelihoods. Women, especially, are being empowered.

Number of outreach events held: **97** [Year 3 target: 87; Compact target: 132]
 Stakeholders (i.e., relevant MLR, Traditional Authority, and Communal Land Board staff) trained: **906** [Year 3 target: 600; Compact target: 1,200]

Under the Community-Based Livestock and Rangeland Management (CBRLM) sub-activity, farmers are guided – most convincingly by each other – in how to organize to jointly improve the productivity of their livestock and rangeland resources. To date, **365** households participate.



Success stories under the CBRLM sub-activity abound, with some of the most notable being the

From left to right: Farmers learning animal husbandry (i.e., animal care) and marketing skills; rangeland assessment training in progress; and handling bulls under the bull scheme.

establishment of a bull scheme, the setting up of marketing and water infrastructure, and the establishment of farmer-run entities like Grazing Area committees and cooperatives that work for the economic and social interest of their members and are formed in response to a desire to collectively tackle undesirable situations like degrading rangeland, incomplete market information, wrong timing of off-take, insufficient bull-to-cow ratio, lack of adequate marketing infrastructure, and prevalence of stock theft.

Activity #2: Livestock Support

In partnership with the Ministry of Agriculture, Water, and Forestry (MAWF), this activity aims to support the establishment of a traceability system for livestock management and to improve cattle marketability, thus placing Namibia's Northern Communal Areas (NCAs) firmly on the path towards recognition as "disease-free" by the World Organization for Animal Health. To this end, MCA-N is supporting the universal tagging of cattle in the NCAs, the construction of 5 State Veterinary Offices, and the rehabilitation of 2 Quarantine Camps in the Caprivi Region, which are likely to be completed ahead of the scheduled January 2013 completion date.



Value of grant agreements signed under the Livestock Market Efficiency Fund (LMEF) **US\$4,177,066** exceeding the endCompact target of US\$1,000,000.

1,289,118 cattle tagged to date, exceeding the Y3 target by 184%...

Activity #3: Indigenous Natural Products

The goal of the **Indigenous Natural Products** activity is to increase incomes to harvesters and producers of indigenous natural products (INPs) by capacitating Producer and Processor Organizations (PPOs) to improve INP production and processing and by training harvesters in sustainable INP gathering. Maintenance of existing and creation of new supply chains is key.



PPOs with signed service contracts: **58** [exceeding the Year 3 target of 40 and approaching the end-Compact target of 60]

Value of Primary Production Improvement Grants signed: **US\$126,686**
[Compact target: US\$200,000]

PPOs trained in organizational management: **39** [Compact target: 60]

PPOs trained in business and marketing principles: **8** [Compact target: 60]

PPOs that have developed and are using a business plan: **10** [target: 60]

PPOs with resources management/monitoring plans for environmentally fragile INPs: **13** [Compact target: 30]

INP producers trained: **6,027** [Year 3 target: 5,000; Compact target: 7,000]

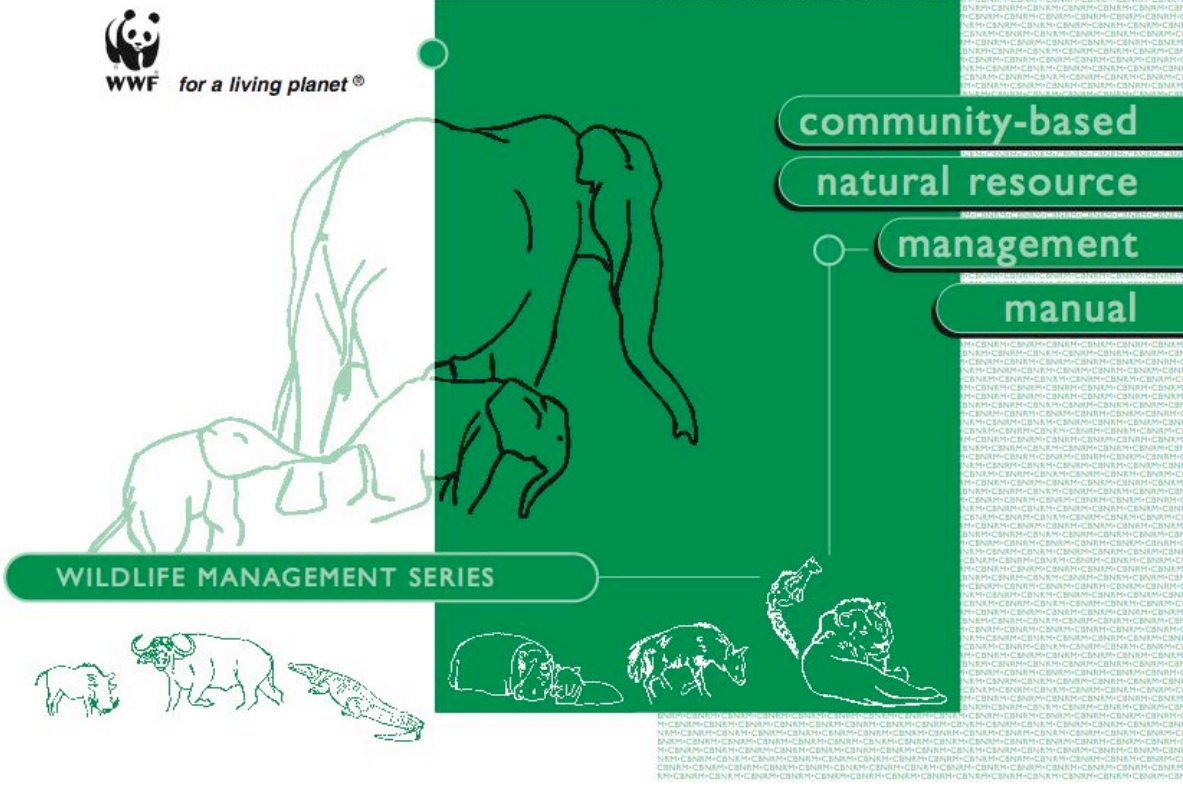
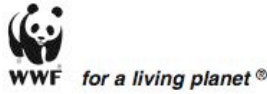
Success stories are plentiful, e.g., making manufacturing skills fully operational, commercializing *Commiphora wildii* for its fragrant properties, and bringing families valuable cash...all while strengthening the position of women in INP and conservancy management.

The images to the right depict harvesters sorting Commiphora resin and a handful of the INP itself



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**community-based
natural resource
management
manual**

WILDLIFE MANAGEMENT SERIES

CBNRM

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community-based natural resource management

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2

CONTENTS

community-based natural resource management

GENERAL INTRODUCTION	4
CHAPTER 1 An Introduction to Community-Based Natural Resource Management	5
CHAPTER 2 An Overview of CBNRM Policy and Legislation	9
CHAPTER 3 Approaches to CBNRM Implementation	14
CHAPTER 4 Institutional and Organisational Development for CBNRM	20
CHAPTER 5 Natural Resource Management by Communities	29
CHAPTER 6 Economic Development and Financial Management	44
CHAPTER 7 Monitoring and Evaluation (M & E)	56

3

This Manual has been written to provide an introduction to community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) in Southern Africa. Countries in Southern Africa are: Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe. CBNRM is based on the principle that land and natural resources should be managed by those people who live with and depend on them. CBNRM does not involve wildlife only but other natural resources and community development as well. Hence aspects covered in this manual can be used by any community.

This Manual is divided into seven chapters, each addressing a different aspect of CBNRM. The aim of the manual is to provide a good understanding of the social, economic, and ecological factors that affect the management of natural resources by communities in the Southern African region.

Examples are taken from across the region, of descriptions of national situations or specific instances of CBNRM projects and programmes.

What are the objectives of a CBNRM MANUAL

For communities and those working with them it is important that they be able to:

- Understand the principles involved in CBNRM;
- Understand and use the tools available for resource management in CBNRM;
- Understand what is involved in the development and functioning of community-based organisations (CBOs);
- Understand the linkages between local level decisions and the wider environment within CBNRM;
- Understand and use the tools for adaptive management within CBNRM.
- Compare the differences in policy and legislation between various SADC countries;



Introduction

All the countries in Southern Africa are currently facing many challenges. These include: low rates of economic growth; severe reduction of natural resources in areas of high population density; increased frequency of extreme weather events (both droughts and floods); and HIV/AIDS.

CBNRM is an approach to the management of land and natural resources which is relevant to, and has the potential to provide solutions to some of the problems found within the communal lands of Southern Africa, where the majority of people live with, and depend on, natural resources.

This first chapter provides an introduction to CBNRM and the principles that guide its use. There are differences in interpretation and definition from country to country and even within countries. To overcome these differences, a consistent use of words and terminology is maintained in this manual wherever possible.

How did community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) evolve in the region?

In Southern Africa colonial governments generally created three categories of land: private land, state land and communal land. In addition, the management of land and natural resources was the responsibility of the state. For the residents of communal lands, where the majority of indigenous people lived, this situation meant that they:

- Did not have any role to play in major decisions regarding the use and allocation of natural resources and land.
- Were restricted to using natural resources for subsistence purposes only and were prevented by law from any form of commercial use of natural resources.

CBNRM evolved over the last 20 years with the realisation that for sustainable use of natural resources, people living with the resources should be responsible for their management and benefit from using the natural resources.

This is different from the state-centred approach described previously. CBNRM has been developed and promoted by dedicated professionals on pilot basis. Most SADC countries are now developing CBNRM policies and legislation as a result.

- CBNRM consists of a mixture of new management arrangements. Importantly, CBNRM is an approach that can be applied not only to wildlife but to all renewable natural resources, as well as to land.
- CBNRM deals not only with the management of natural resources but with the benefits that are earned from their use.
- CBNRM approaches are particularly applicable where land is communally owned, natural resources are being used and managed by communities rather than private landowners. In Southern Africa this refers primarily to the communal areas or lands.
- There ought to be an improvement in the status of the resources as a result of CBNRM. There should also be an improvement in the livelihoods of those who live with, and are managing, the natural resources. This last point is important because it stresses the sustainable use of natural resources for the benefit of people.
- CBNRM also includes a range of more specific approaches that have been developed over the last two decades.

What are the principles of successful CBNRM?

Over time, a set of principles has emerged from the analysis of the performance of CBNRM programmes in Botswana, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Briefly, these are:

- To determine whether the benefits of managing a resource exceed the costs, the resource must have a measurable value to the community.
- Those communities living with the resource should receive higher benefits than those who do not.
- Smaller groups are more likely to better manage their resources than larger groups.
- The community or group that lives with the resource should also be the same as the group that makes the decisions over the resource and the same as the group that benefits.



Those communities living with the resource should receive higher benefits.

- Communities should benefit from practising good management. Similarly when communities do not invest in management, then the benefits should fall.

Some difficulties facing CBNRM

CBNRM programmes are, in many ways, a new and different approach to the management of land and natural resources. A number of common problems have emerged from CBNRM programmes and projects in the Southern African region.

These are:

1. **Scale:** in the case of wildlife, the home range of some species might extend beyond the boundaries of the community that is the unit of management. This means that the community must collaborate on important issues with its neighbours: either other communities, private landowners or the state (managing protected areas).
2. **Time:** some natural resources, for example commercially important timber species or elephants, take a long time to mature. This means that decisions which are made now will have an impact on the resource only in several years' time.
3. **Complexity/difficulty:** The laws and policies controlling the use of natural resources in many countries overlaps and is outdated. Communities themselves are also very complex and diverse. As with any change, some groups might gain from CBNRM whilst others stand to lose.
4. **Implementation:** successful CBNRM requires dedicated and skilled implementation to change policy and legislation into action. A broad range of NGOs, in partnership with governments, have been primarily responsible for implementation.
5. **Land tenure:** Basically, CBNRM programmes change the ownership and control over natural resources. Some control and some benefits are handed over from the state to communities. In some cases this is supported by legislation whereas in other cases implementation has come before legislation. Although land management is as important as the management of specific resources, very few CBNRM programmes have dealt with the issue of the land tenure systems in Southern Africa.
6. **Partnerships:** CBNRM has led to the development of a range of new partnerships. These include:
 - Private sector – community partnerships, for example hunting and tourism enterprises in Namibia, Botswana and Zimbabwe.
 - Government – community partnerships, for example on the boundaries of state protected areas.
 - Government – NGO partnerships, for example between the agencies responsible for wildlife management and NGOs representing producer communities. The most important partnership is probably that between the

private sector and communities. The partnership is (and will continue to remain) important because communities lack the necessary skills and capital (money) to develop wildlife-based business. But there is real concern that many community-private sector partnerships are unequal, with the private entrepreneurs being the dominant partners. Methods and skills to allow communities to mature into full and equal partners have to be developed.

7. **Traditional leadership:** many newly independent governments marginalised the roles of Traditional Authorities in favour of "modern" political structures such as elected village councils. CBNRM programmes, with their aim of re-establishing community ownership over natural resources, are often faced with the dilemma of how best to structure the new local institutions.
8. **Ecological status of the resources:** CBNRM is not a solution that can be applied with success in every situation. There are many areas in the communal lands in Southern Africa where the ecological problems are so great that CBNRM approaches might not be viable. To date, CBNRM approaches have tended to work best in those environments that are relatively intact and provide opportunities for generating substantial financial incentives to change the way people perceive and manage their land and natural resources. In areas where natural resources are severely degraded and people are poor, there might not be sufficient incentives to change the way resources are managed.

What is important about CBNRM as an approach?

- **State management is no longer politically or economically viable:** newly independent Southern African governments did not consider the management of natural resources to be a priority. Financial resources were diverted to other sectors, (health, education, and infrastructural development). Military-style methods of enforcing natural resource legislation are also no longer considered appropriate.

- **Livelihoods and the importance of natural resources:** across Southern Africa most of the population live in the communal lands. In all communal lands, the harvesting of natural resources play a significant role in people's livelihoods. This means that strategies and policies to ensure the sustainable management of land and natural resources are important to national economic development.

Because of the direct link between people's welfare and the environment, it is important that new approaches and ideas are developed and implemented in natural resource management. The alternative is that people will get poorer and the environmental resources upon which they depend will become scarcer, thereby worsening the already serious poverty trap.

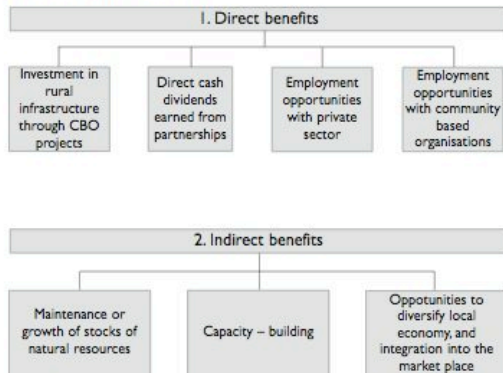


There is a direct link between people's welfare and their environment.

How does CBNRM link economic development and natural resource management?

In CBNRM there are both direct and indirect links between development and natural resource management.

Figure 1: Benefits from CBNRM



However one of the greatest benefits from CBNRM is the transfer of both the control of, and responsibility for, natural resources from the state to community levels.

An overview of property rights

People use and allocate land and natural resources through systems of property rights. Property rights are the rules that define an owner's rights and duties in the use of a particular resource. The types of property rights, and the strength of those rights, are key factors in determining the status of land and the environment.

Property rights to man-made goods and services are usually well-defined and well-enforced. However, many environmental problems are the result of weak or poorly defined property rights over land and natural resources. This leads to the problem of over-exploitation and degradation of natural resources because there is no incentive on behalf of the user to manage or protect those resources. Although property rights are an important factor in the resolution of environmental problems, it is important to remember certain other factors:

- Within each property rights system there can be a great deal of differences. In some countries in the region, governments enforce the concept of state property through a ministry or a department of national parks effectively (e.g. South Africa) while in others enforcement is weak (e.g. Zambia).
- Without the clear definition of property rights it is not possible to assign responsibilities, and the system will drift into open access as a consequence. However, the resolution of property rights is only one necessary condition for resolving natural resource management problems.

There is no single set of property rights that can be applied as a common solution to natural resource problems. It is important to remember this fact because originally the favoured approach was to recommend private ownership of resources; there is now sufficient evidence to show that there are alternatives to privatisation. Important examples of these are the CBNRM programmes and projects that are being implemented in Southern Africa and elsewhere in the world.

Introduction

The major assumption in CBNRM is that natural resource management should be the responsibility of those living with, and using, the resources because they have a direct interest in the sustainability of the resources upon which they depend. Management of natural resources under private ownership has tended to be more effective than under state ownership in situations of open access where no one was accountable for the resource. Ideally CBNRM should be a more efficient management system than open access since communities become responsible for the resource. The challenge to be addressed for communities to be effective managers of natural resources is: "how do communities, (or how should communities), manage their resources?" This question forms the basis of Chapter 5 of this Manual. It is important for a natural resource manager to understand the bio-physical environment, i.e. a region's climate, geology, water resources, vegetation as well as the socio-economic environment in which resources are being managed.

The two agricultural sectors in southern Africa

Countries of the SADC region are described as 'developing' nations. This means that agriculture is of critical importance to their economies. The region has a dual agricultural sector from its colonial history. There are two types of agricultural sectors in the region. These are:

- 1.) The communal farming areas; where the greater percentage of the population stays. Most households are involved in cultivation of crops and livestock rearing. Households decide to engage in agriculture for food security and as a source of cash income. In many parts of southern Africa, wildlands are being cleared for cash crops such as cotton which rural people find to yield higher benefits than wildlife in the short term. Products harvested from the veld (food, medicines and building materials) make an important contribution to household income. In times of hardships due to biophysical factors (e.g. drought) or economic ones (e.g. unemployment) the importance of veld and non-timber forest products increases. Because of high population densities in many of the communal lands, there are instances of severe environmental degradation.
- 2.) The commercial farming sector has enjoyed a long history of heavy subsidies (grants) from previous governments across the region. In some cases this has led to serious overgrazing, bush encroachment, and decreasing productivity. Farmers have been able to diversify away from single-species livestock production systems to multi-species wildlife systems. This was as a realisation that the returns per unit of land were more for wildlife production compared to single livestock production

system. The advantage of multi-species wildlife-based systems is that they tend to be more viable at lower stocking rates. Therefore there is less impact on the rangeland than with single species production systems.

Why Land redistribution?

The disparity between these two systems has been a source of tension and a challenge to governments in the region on how to address the issue of land redistribution without severe economic implications and simply transferring the ecological and economic problems of the communal areas to the newly settled areas.

Land redistribution requires a substantial investment in human resources, research, and financial support for the new settlers. Importantly, the policy issues of land and natural resource tenure need to be addressed to allow new settlers to develop a high level of proprietorship over their land. Many of the ideas and land use systems currently being developed for the communal land conservancies can be appropriate to resettlement programmes.

Conservancies and nature-based tourism

In Namibia and Zimbabwe the creation of conservancies has resulted in a significant expansion of the area of wildlife habitat as this is a more viable land use option. Adopting wildlife as a land use, results in improved habitats and the maintenance of diverse healthy wildlife populations. In addition, the tourism and hospitality sector has created a significant number of new jobs and entrepreneurial opportunities.



Challenges associated with tourism and wildlife production

Tourism and wildlife as primary land uses have their own set of challenges. All forms of tourism are basically luxury products. In periods of economic hardship, expensive overseas holidays are the first expense to be cut. In addition, tourists are very sensitive to international issues such as terrorism and health warnings. As a consequence, land managers are potentially swapping the risks based on climatic variability for those relating to market variability. The evidence is, however, that in the long-term there is growing demand for wildlife- and nature-based tourism, which the region as a whole is well placed to exploit.

Principles of adaptive management

Adaptive management is a critical principle for natural resource management. Adaptive management provides a framework that allows the resource manager to deal with complex ecological systems for which there are constant changes hence making available information incomplete. The strength of adaptive management is that it establishes an experimental or scientific approach to resource management.

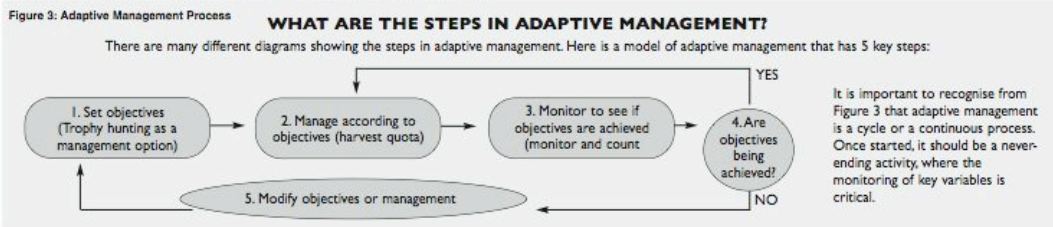
The key characteristics of adaptive management are:

1. **Testing assumptions:** adaptive management involves systematically trying different actions to achieve a desired outcome. This does not mean that it is simply a system of trial and error. It means methodically developing an objective and then implementing actions to achieve this objective. A crucial part of testing the assumptions is developing a monitoring system that collects the information

that is needed. For example a conservancy might agree that its objective is to increase the number and trophy quality of kudu. The action might be to reduce the quota for kudu for 5 years. The assumption that is being made is that by shooting fewer kudu, the number and trophy quality of male kudu will increase. A monitoring system to measure trophy quality and number of kudu is also required.

2. **Adaptation:** adaptive management is about taking action to improve subsequent actions. If an action does not have the expected results, then there are several explanations. These are that: the assumptions were wrong; the action was poorly implemented; the conditions have changed; or the information collected through the monitoring was incorrect. Generally, the natural resource manager would have some control over the last three and so would need to examine carefully the assumptions that the action was based upon. For example: if the conservancy found that after 5 years the number and size of the kudu had not increased, then there might be a problem with the assumption. The assumption underlying the action was that the low number of kudu and poor trophy quality was due to excessive hunting. A second assumption might then be made that a key nutrient shortage is the cause. The action to test this assumption would be then to provide the key nutrient (in the form of a food supplement) to the kudu population.
3. **Learning:** the whole process of adaptive management is about learning. An important part of learning is that the assumptions, the actions taken, and the results of the monitoring are documented. This is important so that future resource managers know what has been tried and tested. It will also allow other resource managers elsewhere to learn from another's experience without having to go through an entire process themselves. For example: in the conservancy, there might have been several changes of committee and game guards over an extended period. If the first committee did not leave some notes about its kudu management, then a new committee its technical advisors might be tempted to cut the quotas again in order to improve trophy quality and numbers, not knowing that it had already been tried and had failed.

Figure 3: Adaptive Management Process



Why is adaptive management an important principle for resource managers?

- **Complex systems:** natural resource management takes place in highly complex systems. These systems are influenced by geophysical, ecological, social, cultural, political and economic factors. Adaptive management is a systematic approach to solving problems, and can help the resource manager deal with the complexity that he/she faces.
- **Changing and complex systems:** natural resource management is taking place in highly complex systems. The process becomes even more complicated when these systems themselves are changing. The more complex changes that resource managers must deal with are those that are a result of social, political and economic change. These changes are not very predictable, can be very rapid, and might have an enormous influence on the way that natural resources are managed. In Southern Africa, very good examples are the massive changes that have resulted from Namibia becoming independent, and South Africa ending the system of apartheid.
- **Incomplete information:** Natural resource management takes place in a complex and often changing environment. Under these conditions, it is impossible to collect and analyse all the information that might influence a given situation. Adaptive management is a process that helps to overcome this lack of knowledge by making assumptions, taking action, and then monitoring the results.
- **Technological change:** technological change is a major factor affecting the way natural resources are used. Improved technology can assist the resource manager in their process of adaptive management.



Improved technology helps the resource manager in various important tasks

Key steps in the adaptive management cycle

Step 1: setting objectives

Setting the objectives depends on many factors including the tenure system and the circumstances of the adaptive management process. In state and private land there might be some consultations with limited stakeholders. For a community-based organisation (CBO), setting the objectives will be a process that needs to consider the views of all the stakeholders who are involved.

When dealing with NRM issues, it is often necessary to collect information about an area. The starting point of data collection is usually ecological, and refers to the status (species, abundance etc.) of natural resources in the area. Where it is appropriate, information on social (leadership, organisation, culture etc.) and economic (household income, major economic activities) variables should also be collected. There are two approaches to collecting the information. The detailed, scientific approach can be time-consuming and requires substantial skills and resources. An alternative method is to collate all the available information and then add local knowledge to it. This second approach can use participatory techniques and is highly appropriate for community-based work.

The context or the scale of the objectives is also important. Some objectives might have a very significant impact on the whole community, for example deciding upon land use zones. In other circumstances the objectives may be set by a much smaller group of persons who have the community's mandate (permission) to undertake such a decision. For example, the community game guards and their technical advisors could set the objectives of a patrol system.

Step 2: managing according to the objectives

The second step of the adaptive management cycle concerns the choice of management activities about it involves deciding how the objectives (step 1) are going to be achieved. There are many ways to achieve the selected objectives in a complex ecological, economic and social systems. This raises aspect of what degree of management is required:

- There are three options with respect to the degree of management. These are:
 - a) to do nothing or
 - b) to stop those activities that have a negative impact on the environment (passive management) or
 - c) to engage in activities that enhance the quality of the environment (active management)

Active management implies that the land and resource managers are investing skilled time and money in improving the resource base. A second set of issues then arises from the concept of active management. These are:

- **Natural resource harvesting:** some of the most important choices that natural resource managers need to make involve the kinds of natural resources that they are trying to manage, and the levels of their use. Many of the CBNRM programmes in Southern Africa are focussed on trophy hunting of large mammals. Others involve the harvest of fish and non-timber forest products. There are many mechanisms for limiting the harvest of natural resources, these include: quotas, limits on technology, limits on when and where resources can be harvested etc.
- One management option that does sometimes have to be considered is the **rehabilitation of the resource base**. Rehabilitation covers activities such as the re-introduction of wildlife or fish, vegetation management, and infrastructural work to control soil erosion etc. Rehabilitation activities are by nature very expensive, and the manager must ensure that they are cost-effective. With adaptive management any kind of rehabilitation carried out, has to be monitored to allow the results to be evaluated, compared with the objective, and if justified repeated or terminated as appropriate.
- **Vegetation management:** natural vegetation provides the food and habitat for wildlife and domestic production systems. It also protects the soil from erosion by preventing excessive run-off. Vegetation management through the manipulation of stocking rates, the careful selection of species stocked, and the strategic use of fire, are all appropriate management tools. The crucial issue is to address the problem in the context of an adaptive management cycle and rigorously monitor the results of the intervention.

Step 5: modifying the objectives if necessary

In natural resource management, returning to the objectives should only happen very infrequently. This is because the objectives comprise a 'collective vision' that has been created by multiple stakeholders. The collective vision should therefore be robust and be appropriate in the long-term. What can be changed in the short- to medium-term are the management activities that are designed to achieve the objectives. If results of the monitoring and evaluation of progress show that the objectives are not being achieved, then the management options that are being used must be changed? otherwise the process of adaptive management breaks down.

Some simple principles of adaptive management

- Adaptive management should not be imposed on organisations by 'outsiders'. If it is, it will probably fail to be adopted.
- Adaptive management needs an environment in which people are willing to experiment. This means that new ideas should be encouraged and discussed.
- When new ideas are being tried and tested, failures should not be considered a disaster.
- If organisations are to manage natural resources using the principle of adaptive management then they need to have skilled and confident personnel in key positions.
- Adaptive management has been discussed with a strong emphasis on natural resource management. However, the principles are easily transferred to other management process, e.g. financial management by a community.

Practical tools for planning and monitoring natural resource management in CBOs

The active management of resources by communities requires that CBOs/conservancies have the tools to manage their natural resources and the tools to monitor their progress towards their objectives. A number of tools and activities have been developed across the region that assist CBOs with their planning process.

These are:

Step 3: monitoring

Monitoring is an essential step of the adaptive management cycle. If omitted or poorly implemented, the cycle will break down and there will be no way of assessing progress towards the objectives that have been set. Natural resource monitoring has tended to be done by scientists but to be effective, monitoring should be an integral part of management, and must be done by resource managers. There are a number of criteria that should guide monitoring, these are:

- 1) For each data collection activity there should be a direct link with a management decision; how the data will be collected, analysed and used can then be identified clearly.
- 2) Monitoring can be time-consuming and expensive. Selection of variables (aspects to be monitored) must be made with respect to the current and future revenue that can be earned from the resource.
- 3) In many situations the information that is needed does not involve precise estimates of numbers. For effective adaptive management, information on trends is normally sufficient.
- 4) The collection of information should not depend on external support. This support could be financial, logistical (transport, computers) or in the form of skills. Wherever possible data should be collected by the community management unit, instead.
- 5) It is essential that the information be accurate and robust enough to ensure that the management unit can determine whether progress is being made towards the objectives. There should be complete openness about the system, its advantages and its disadvantages.

Step 4: evaluation of progress

The evaluation of progress should be undertaken regularly. It is common for large quantities of biological information to be collected that are never analysed and evaluated. This will break the link in the adaptive management cycle. During evaluation it is important that causality between the variables is established. Causality simply means that the changes in one variable factor are a product of changes in another variable factor. Finally, it is critical that the results are recorded in an accessible manner and safely stored for future reference.

1. Maps and mapping: initially, all existing maps of the area are collected and, where necessary, digitised so that they can be used in a Geographical Information System (GIS). Facilitators then assist the community in collecting information that is missing. Community drawn maps can also be used to incorporate indigenous knowledge. The printed maps are distributed to the CBO to assist with the boundary negotiations and land-use planning.

2. Resource inventories: a resource inventory is an important part of the baseline information that the CBO compiles. This contains information on: birds, mammals, vegetation, water, forestry, fresh water fisheries and veld products within the community area.

3. Management plans: the maps, together with the resource inventories, are the basis for the management plan. A number of different types of management plan have been developed regionally for use by CBOs/conservancies.

How are communities monitoring their natural resources?

If communities adopt adaptive management as their guiding principle, then the development of the management plan fulfils Steps 1 and 2 'Setting the objectives' and 'Managing according to the objectives'. Steps 3 and 4 of the process are 'Monitoring' and 'Evaluation of progress'. Communities therefore need to:

- a) assess what needs to be monitored;
- b) develop monitoring systems;
- c) receive the necessary training for conservancy staff and representatives;
- d) conduct an annual review or audit.

Because of the special needs of communities, many conventional monitoring techniques developed for wildlife and natural resource management have to be adapted for their use. Tools have been designed regionally to monitor:

- rainfall, fire and floods;
- problem animals, including predators;
- rangeland and livestock condition;
- poaching and stock theft;
- animal abundance and distribution;

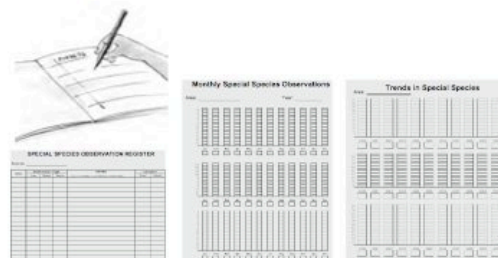
- trophy hunting;
- fish harvest and fish harvesting effort;
- specially protected species (such as elephant and rhino).

The monitoring system is largely based upon recording events that occur in the above categories. For example, a storm can be considered an event, therefore it is important that the conservancy knows and records how much rain has fallen. Similarly if an animal has been killed in a snare this is a 'poaching event'. In Namibia, community personnel are trained to record a standardised set of data about agreed events. In general, for each event the quantity (e.g. how many carcasses found), the quality (e.g. what species was poached), the time (e.g. date of sighting), and the location (e.g. where the carcasses were found) is recorded. The information on each event is recorded on a standard template in the community game guards' 'event books'.

For adaptive management to succeed, it is not enough just to monitor incidents and record the information. Management needs a fourth step, which is 'Evaluation of progress' towards the objectives. In the event book system, the first stage of the evaluation is done by the supervisor of the game guards. Every month, the supervisor takes all the event books and collates the information on the various events recorded. The monthly summaries of information are transferred into a second book, known as the 'blue book'. At the end of every year, the monthly information is summarised into third book, known as the 'red book'. The red book will therefore contain annual summaries of all important events in the conservancy. It provides the Conservancy Committee with information on the progress that it is making towards its long-term management goals. This approach to monitoring and evaluation works because:

- Community game guards are capturing standardised information on agreed events.
- The information is recorded in a simple standard format that is easy to understand and use.
- A simple process is agreed upon regarding how information is compiled. The first stage is when daily information is collated into monthly information. The second stage is when that monthly information is compiled as an annual summary.

- The data capture and analysis methods are highly visualised so that they are easily understood by people who are partially literate and numerate.
- The information is very clearly linked to maps of the conservancy. This helps the Conservancy Committee, its employees and members to develop a sense of proprietorship over their conservancy.
- There is a clear link between the objectives that the conservancy has set and the variables that are being monitored.
- The Natural Resource (NR) Working Group in Namibia has provided innovative and appropriate storage facilities for the management plans and the event book system, (wooden boxes).
- The standard system means that training and support of monitoring and evaluation is cost-effective and within the means of the NR Working Group and NACSO.
- The system also helps conservancies define the roles and responsibilities of their employees and representatives; this helps to make people accountable to the management and membership of the conservancy.



Event Book information is recorded in a simple standardised format.

Off-take quotas for maintaining sustainability

Quotas are a control mechanism for ensuring limited harvests and protecting the sustainable use of natural resources. Other mechanisms for ensuring that harvests are sustainable include: restrictions on technology (e.g. net sizes or net length); limits on the period (certain days in a month, or months in a year) when harvesting can take place; or limits on where harvesting can take place (e.g. not within core areas or national parks).

Quotas are often used because they are convenient and easy for bureaucrats to set and monitor. Quotas are most frequently used in the wildlife and timber sectors. (For more information on this topic and the following one, please see the Quota Setting Manual in this WWF Wildlife Management Series.)

Estimating the abundance of natural resources

The commercial uses of natural resources are largely the driving force behind CBNRM as they generate the financial benefits that serve as the incentives for management. An essential principle of CBNRM is that the use of natural resources, especially the commercial use, is sustainable. Using the principles of adaptive management, methods are needed that estimate the impact of the any off-takes on the resource(s). The following section is biased towards estimating wildlife populations because wildlife is the basis of many regional CBNRM programmes, and is also the most difficult resource to estimate

It is difficult to estimate wildlife numbers because:

- the animals are wild and cannot be herded and counted as if they were domestic animals;
- the animals are generally well camouflaged and are not easy to see ;
- some species are dangerous – it is not advisable to get close to them;
- some species occur in large herds, which makes it very difficult to estimate numbers.

It is difficult to estimate the abundance of forest products (timber), non-timber forest (NTF) products and veld products because:

- the areas over which these species occur are sometimes very large;
- these areas are not only large but they are also diverse which makes estimates from sample surveys difficult to calculate;
- the abundance of NTF and veld products is dependent on complex ecological relationships between factors such as rainfall, temperature, etc.

There are three approaches to estimating the abundance of wildlife. These are:

- Total counts.** A total count aims to count all the animals of a particular species in a specific area. Because of the problems associated with counting animals, total counts should only be used when:
 - The wildlife area is relatively small (less than 10km²) and is completely fenced so that no animals can enter or leave.
 - A single, high value species is being counted in a very restricted and defined area. For example, it might be possible to conduct a total count of black rhino because it is a highly visible animal in a defined area. The accuracy of the total count will be improved further if individual animals are easily identified.

In general, and especially in most CBNRM situations, total counts are not appropriate.

- Sample counts.** A sample count aims to estimate the abundance of animals in the census unit from the number counted in smaller units, the 'sample units'. Sample counts make two important assumptions:
 - All the animals in the sample unit have been seen and have been counted.
 - That the animals are spread evenly throughout the census unit for which the population is being estimated.

It is highly unlikely that all the animals in the sample area will be seen and counted. Secondly, wild animals are never evenly distributed throughout a large wildlife area. They will tend to congregate in areas of favourable habitat and where there is water. The difference between these assumptions and the realities of the census area need to be taken into account when sample surveys are being planned.

3. Index methods: An index method aims to produce an indirect estimate of the status of a population in a given area. An index of abundance will only be valid if the method used is consistent over time. There are several different types of indices that are commonly used in wildlife management, these are:

- An index of abundance: gives an indication of the status of the animal population based on the number of animals seen per unit of time or per unit of distance. To begin to provide information that is useful for management, the index must be measured over several seasons so that a trend, if it exists, can be detected.
- An index of trophy quality: gives an indication of the status of the animal population based on the average trophy size. To begin to provide information that is useful for management, the index must be measured over several hunting seasons so that a trend, if it exists, can be identified.
- Other methods: other specialised index methods can be used to provide indices of population abundance. These include: spoor abundance, dung densities, and 'mark, release and capture'. These should be considered as specialised methods that are used under specific circumstances.

The advantage of index methods is that they are relatively cheap and simple to implement in a CBNRM context.

It is important that natural resource managers are aware of the options that exist for estimating the abundance of wildlife populations. The choice of what category of method to use (i.e. total, sample or index) will depend on many factors. It will include the financial and human resources that are available, and the reason for needing to know the species abundance. In natural resource management the best strategy is to collect information on a species from different sources. Decisions can then be made based on the evidence from all the sources (this is a process known as triangulation).

Human-wildlife conflict

Wildlife is the focus of regional CBNRM programmes for many reasons. One of these is that wildlife is often a more appropriate form of land use in semi-arid and arid African environments. However, wildlife is also unique because it is a resource that moves about, and certain species are dangerous for people to live with. As a result, there is often conflict between people and wildlife. Managing human-wildlife conflicts has become an important aspect of nearly all wildlife-based CBNRM programmes in Southern Africa. It is important to remember that human-wildlife conflict is not

restricted to large mammals such as elephant, hippo and the carnivores. Birds, insects and small mammals are all capable of causing large-scale destruction of crops and therefore threatening people's livelihoods, even where there are no large mammals. (For more information on problem animals, please see the WWF Problem Animal Reporting Manual in this Wildlife Management Series.)

Human-wildlife conflict (HWC) is a two-way process concerned with the interaction of wildlife with people. HWC is most commonly associated with crop damage and the loss of livestock to predators. There are other social and cultural problems created by the interaction of people and wildlife, as well. There can be negative effects from people on the environment as a result of the problems caused by HWC. This might range from the elimination of certain species to the deliberate destruction of habitat in order to remove the conflict.



Smaller animals are capable of causing substantial damage to crops.

The costs of human-wildlife conflict

The direct costs of HWC:

- the damage to food crops being grown for own consumption rather than sale (e.g. maize, millet, fruit and vegetables);
- the damage to cash crops resulting in a reduction of household income (e.g. cotton, tobacco, fruits and vegetables);
- the damage to water storage, water reticulation, and pumping equipment (reservoirs, pipes and pumps);

- the loss and damage to food stores (grain and other dried products);
- the loss of livestock, or their injury;
- the investments in tools/equipment/infrastructure to reduce the impact of HWC;
- human injuries and death.

The indirect costs of HWC:

- the restrictions on people's movements, especially at night;
- the restrictions on people's access to water and non-timber forest products;
- the opportunity costs (too tired to work in the fields by day) incurred through guarding crops at night and the increased risks of contracting diseases such as malaria;
- living with the constant fear of the potential harm that can be caused by wild animals;
- the transmission of disease from wildlife to livestock;
- the competition between livestock and wildlife for grazing and water.

Institutional change and the costs of living with wildlife

We have already looked at the potential for institutional change in terms of the costs and benefits of the old and the new management systems. One of the disadvantages of new management could be an increase in the direct and indirect costs of human-wildlife conflict. This would certainly be expected if one of the objectives of the new management system was an increase in wildlife numbers, especially those that cause the most problems, e.g. elephant. To create favourable conditions for institutional change, (i.e. where the benefits substantially outweigh the costs), HWC has to be dealt with. The other side of the equation is also important: the people living with wildlife must receive direct benefits. People expect that the formation of a conservancy or other CBO will address their human-wildlife conflicts. This can put financial pressure on new organisations to invest in people and equipment to manage HWC as a priority issue.

There are often serious differences in opinion on the importance of HWC. One reason for this is the different ways of measuring the impact of wildlife on people, their crops and livestock. One way to assess levels of HWC is through crop and livestock losses. Another way is to determine which species are the greatest threat to humans and their livestock.

- Greatest damage to crops: smaller animals that are not dangerous to humans are the greatest agricultural pests. In Africa these include: rodents, birds (especially seed-eating birds like quela, and fruit-eating birds); pigs, primates, small carnivores (eg. genets, serval cats, mongooses); and some antelope (eg. duiker, bushbuck, kudu).
- Greatest threat to people: what understandably concerns people most about HWC are the larger species of African wildlife that are potentially dangerous to people and livestock. The most common of these can be either herbivores (elephant, buffalo and hippopotamus) or carnivores (lion, hyaena and crocodile), as well as venomous snakes. See HWC Manual in this series for more information.

Why is information so important in reducing HWC?

In the absence of good information, the threat of problem animals can only be judged by personal opinion and anecdotes. One important reason to collect data on nuisance animals systematically is to put the problems and threats they cause into perspective with the many other problems of survival faced by rural people in Africa. In order to make informed and cost-effective management decisions, data on problem animals needs to be:

- current
- reliable
- sufficient

Initial information can come from several sources: from affected people themselves; local leaders or community representatives; from other wildlife managers, researchers or technical experts; or even from a written report or via the media. Information that can be used to make decisions on how to reduce human-wildlife conflicts needs to be rigorous (accurate and thorough), it should include: who suffered the damage; what

was damaged; where the incident occurred; when the incident occurred; what animals were responsible and how bad the damage was. Because of the volume of data involved in many widely-spread incidents and the need to measure how serious they are, it is best to have a trained person (an 'enumerator') to record the facts each time and verify what actually happened. If all incidents are treated in this same fair and objective manner, the information gained is reliable.

To collect information that can be used to take the necessary action to reduce human-wildlife conflict, experience has shown that the following are necessary:

- All the stakeholders involved must agree on the information that needs to be collected, how it is going to be collected, by whom, and how frequently.
- Information on problem animals (PAR) is usually improved if a local supervisor administers it. The supervisor should standardise the quality of the information that is being collected.
- Enumerators: need to be recruited and trained to collect the information.
- One feature of HWC is that it can be highly localised. It is important that the area over which the problems exist is adequately covered.
- Feedback: the collection of detailed information from affected farmers raises their expectations that measures will be taken to reduce the conflict. It is essential that there is open and regular interaction between the affected farmers and those who are collecting, analysing and using the information.

In CBNRM programmes regionally, most of the HWC complaints relate to large herbivores. Although overall these species might do less damage than smaller animals, they do have the potential to damage a high proportion of a crop in a short time. For communal land farmers in semi-arid regions facing poor yields, the damage that a herd of elephants can cause might make an enormous difference to the total harvestable crop.

4. Compensation schemes, in which farmers receive cash payments for the losses caused by large herbivores, have been tried extensively. They have generally been unsuccessful because:

- the cause of the problem is not being dealt with; compensation only addresses the problem symptoms (crop damage);
- they are expensive to administer – to avoid false and inaccurate claims, assessors need to be trained and have to travel to the affected sites;
- they can, in some instances, reduce the incentives for farmers to defend their crops;
- they do not deal with the indirect costs of living with wildlife;

Compensation schemes for livestock loss through carnivores can, however, be effective. This is because

- The overall financial costs of livestock compensation are generally lower than with crop compensation, which means that it is possible for the scheme to be viable within a conservancy.
- Greater conditions can be attached to the payment of compensation, for example compensation is only paid if the animals were kraaled at night and the incident is reported within a given period.
- The definition of payments is easier than with crop damage. For example it is possible to agree a schedule of payments by species, age and sex of the domestic animal lost to a predator.

What simple options exist for addressing HWC?

The options that have been discussed above are largely dependent on external support to reduce the HWC. There is growing evidence that one of the most appropriate solutions to HWC, especially that caused by large herbivores, is to empower farmers to deal with the problem themselves. This approach is based on two assumptions:

Problem animal management

Considerable experience has been gained with different problem animal management schemes (PAMs) in Southern Africa over the last 15 years. These options, and the lessons learned, include:

- 1. Disturbance methods:** methods that are aimed at scaring away problem animals. A common method is to shoot in the air with a firearm. Other methods involve using thunder-flashes, drums, whips etc. to make a noise. However, some animals learn there is no real threat to them and return. Consequently, disturbance methods can be used most effectively when the incidences of problem animals are not too numerous.
- 2. Problem animal control (PAC)** differs from the disturbance method because it usually refers to killing one or more of the animals that are causing the problem. It can be an effective method when there is one identified carnivore that is acting abnormally – it might be an old, wounded lion, for example. In these cases killing the right animal is an appropriate solution. If trained people carry out PAC, it is done quickly and kills the correct individual, then it can then be a cost-effective method. This is because the number and density of carnivores tends to be lower than for herbivores such as elephant. An alternative to killing the offending animal is for it to be captured and moved. This is, however, an expensive option.

Although communities are often satisfied with PAC, especially if there is meat available as a consequence of the killing, it is not a long-term deterrent when it comes to problem herbivores and therefore it does not solve the problem in this instance. It is also often very difficult to identify the individual animals concerned. Finally, killing animals by PAC does not maximise the value of the animal.

- 3. Electric fencing projects:** improvements in technology (e.g. solar panels) allow electric fences to be built relatively cheaply in remote locations. The benefit of electric fencing was supposed to be that it would be cheaper to build and maintain than conventional fencing (as it was assumed that the fence itself would not have to be as robust as non-electric ones, where the fence itself provided the physical barrier). In practice, electric fences have not been as effective as promised. In Zimbabwe a study of 21 community-managed electric fences showed that 20 were not working as planned (Hoare and Booth, 1999).

- With the implementation of CBNRM programmes, some control has been returned to the farmer. This is an opportunity to create a situation in which farmers take the initiative and deal with as much of the problem as possible themselves.
- Many communal land farmers have experience in dealing with HWC. The assumption is that these methods should be expanded to allow farmers to deal effectively with the problem themselves.

The methods that have been developed to allow farmers to deal more effectively with HWC are:

- 1. Farm-level crop planning:** it has been shown that if farmers plan the layout of their crops in a certain way, then this can reduce the damage caused by HWC. This approach suggests that farmers should plant crops that are unpalatable (not tasty) at the edge of their fields (e.g. cotton or chilli peppers, for which there is a growing world market).



Elephant find capsicum (chilli) plants highly unpalatable!

2. **Homemade fencing:** homemade fences have never been an effective physical barrier against the larger herbivores. Now, developments suggest that a mixture of capscum oil (an extremely hot spice) and grease on a rope can provide a very good deterrent mechanism. Similarly, if traditional cow bells are hung on a fence then their noise will alert the farmer (or groups of farmers) that animals are entering the field. This allows the farmer to employ other deterrent mechanisms before too much damage is inflicted.
3. **Homemade deterrents:** communal farmers already have a range of non-lethal deterrents that they can use. Research suggests that these can be useful in chasing animals out of a field. One example is traditional livestock whips that can be used to simulate the noise of gunshots.
4. **Co-operation between farmers:** if communities develop methods of communication it allows for much greater co-operation between individual farmers. This means that crop-raiding animals meet the co-ordinated efforts of a community, including all the measures mentioned above. It also means that they cannot move out of one field to find sanctuary in the next. This will both reduce the damage inflicted to crops and livestock and also deter animals from crop raiding.
5. **Institutional change and HWC:** dealing with HWC is a very important component of institutional change. Empowerment to deal with wildlife means that farmers must have the tools and the legal authority to deal with animals that cause them problems. Farmers often resist simple low-cost methods for dealing with HWC such as those listed above because they still consider HWC to be a government responsibility. This means that regional governments should not continue to carry out HWC activities when they are implementing CBNRM programmes. If they do, it will send conflicting messages to the farmers and it is unlikely that the broader resource management objectives will be fulfilled. Farmers should also have the option of receiving direct benefits. This means that they will be able to compare the losses that they have suffered from HWC with some tangible, cash benefits from wildlife. The goal over time would be to ensure that the benefits received substantially exceed all the costs of living with wildlife.

Is managing human-wildlife conflict adaptive management

A HWC situation does not have to be managed using the principles of adaptive management. However it is likely that if adaptive management is used to find a solution to a human-wildlife conflict it will generally be more successful and more cost-effective than other strategies.

Table 3: Applying adaptive management principles to a HWC situation.

Steps in adaptive management	Action
1. Setting objectives	Collect reliable information to establish a baseline on the HWC in a defined area. Using the information, together with existing technical information, to develop a 'model' of the HWC. Using the model, develop management option(s) that will reduce the HWC to an acceptable level (remember it is not possible to eliminate HWC completely).
2. Managing according to the objectives	Implement the chosen management options.
3. Monitoring	Set up a data collection system that will produce reliable information on the effectiveness of the chosen management option.
4. Evaluation	Evaluate the results of the monitoring and compare them with the objectives set out in step 1. If the HWC has not been reduced, then go to step 5. If the HWC has been reduced to the levels agreed in step 1 then continue with management option.
5. Iteration	Return to step 1 and re-consider objectives to reduce HWC. Before changing the management option the following questions must be asked: - were the assumptions about HWC incorrect? - was the model that was developed inappropriate? - was the management option correctly implemented? - have the conditions changed and therefore the model that was developed is now wrong? - was the monitoring producing accurate and reliable information for use in the evaluation?

Law enforcement and the illegal use of wildlife

The origins of the 'illegal' use of wildlife in the region are in the original policies and legislation introduced in the early 1900s in South Africa. Subsequent legislation adopted throughout Southern Africa alienated farmers (commercial and communal) from their natural resources, i.e. farmers' access to, and use of, wildlife was restricted. In general, farmers had user rights over all other natural resources, although commercial forms of utilisation were illegal. Generally, four types of illegal use of wildlife are recognised. These are:

1. **Subsistence gathering:** the collection of animals for consumption/use in the home. There is seldom any surplus.
2. **Subsistence hunting** defines activities that are carried out with simple technology/weapons (dogs, snares, traditional weapons). The meat is used in the home or distributed between several households. The impact on wildlife is generally very low, while the contribution to the household economy can be quite high.
3. **Commercial hunting** for meat: targets large herbivores such as buffalo. In some situations, generally associated with a complete breakdown in law enforcement, commercial meat hunting can develop into a major economic activity. Commercial hunting for meat can have a substantial negative impact on wildlife populations.
4. **Commercial hunting for animal products** (specific parts such as horn or ivory) is the most common image of the illegal use of wildlife. For the target species, it can cause a significant reduction in population numbers and in some cases has led to localised extinction. This form of illegal use of wildlife is characterised by: a relatively high level of organisation in its implementation, for example the use of carriers to remove products, and links with organised markets not only locally but also internationally.

Animal products, unlike perishable meat, are durable and can be stored in quite basic conditions until it is 'safe' for them to be moved. The products are also high value and low bulk. This means that they can be moved cost-effectively even in small amounts a single rhino horn for example.

An important factor that affects the level of illegal use of wildlife is the current economic situation. It is important to consider this at the local, national and even regional level. The illegal use of wildlife, either for meat or for products, is affected by the availability of alternative sources of income. People will not take unnecessary risks

and break laws if they have viable alternative sources of income. At the local level, this will be affected by the availability of land for farming, the success of past seasons, and the opportunities for formal and informal work. Similarly, at the national and regional levels people will prefer other economic opportunities to taking the risks associated with the illegal killing of wildlife.

What are the elements of effective law enforcement?

- Any person engaging in an illegal activity will first assess the risk or the probability of being detected and then apprehended (caught).
- As well as assessing the risk of apprehension, a person about to engage in an illegal activity will also consider the nature of the punishment. The nature of the punishment will modify the initial assessment of the risk of apprehension; if there is likely to be a severe punishment, for example a high fine and/or a jail sentence, then it is more likely that this will act as a deterrent.

Apprehension is normally the function of the wildlife agency staff. All the subsequent processes through to final prosecution/conviction/sentencing are normally the responsibility of the judiciary (police, government prosecutors and the courts). An effective law enforcement system therefore requires co-operation between those who are responsible for detecting/catching wrong-doers and the judiciary.

An effective system also requires a sense of shared values. Stock theft is traditionally viewed as a very serious crime and in some countries carries a mandatory jail sentence. Poaching on the other hand, especially of smaller ungulates, generally warrants only a fine. Since wildlife is a legitimate, and in some areas much more profitable, land use system than livestock farming, this should be reflected in comparable punishments for similar crimes.

Do CBNRM programmes need law enforcement?

There is very little basic research, monitoring, and evaluation on the impact of CBNRM on the illegal use of wildlife. However, 'law enforcement' relating to the use of all natural resources, (and collective compliance with its rules and regulations), is fundamental to the establishment of common property management. Several the 'design principles' we have already looked at deal directly with systems of establishing, monitoring and enforcing local rules. These are:

1. Clear and defined boundaries: without defining the boundaries and the users of the resource, it is very difficult to prevent 'outsiders' from exploiting the resource and maintaining a system of open access.
2. Development of local rules: ecological sustainability will only be achieved if the various rules governing how the resource is harvested are well developed. If these rules are locally developed, they are usually much more effective as they will take into account local variations in the natural resource base.
3. Monitors and the monitoring system: the monitors who keep a check on the resource (and the behaviour of the users) must be accountable to the users, (the monitors are often in fact the users of the resource themselves).. Monitoring systems that are too complex or too costly will not be viable.
4. Graduated penalties: users who break the rules will receive a graduated penalty. The penalty will depend on the seriousness of the offence and how many previous offences have been committed. Importantly, the penalties should be locally administered. Experience from functioning common property systems shows that the use of formal penalties (fines, imprisonment) is generally quite limited and that compliance with the local rules and regulations is largely as a result of social pressure. This is an important concept, as it will influence the design of the monitoring system.

Community monitoring of natural resources

CBNRM in Southern Africa contains an unwritten assumption that through the receipt of collective benefits, activities that will be detrimental to natural resources (including the illegal harvesting of wildlife) will be reduced through social pressure within a community (see above). It is however a common feature of most CBNRM programmes that communities employ 'game scouts', 'game guards', or 'resource monitors'. The term 'game scouts' implies functions and roles very similar to those of state wildlife agencies, while 'resource monitors' implies a more passive role. The tasks assigned to these employees of the community include:

- patrolling to report and/or apprehend those breaking national and local community rules;
- monitoring resource abundance;
- recording problem animal damage and implementing measures to reduce the damage by such animals.

42

In some regional programmes, considerable confusion remains over the exact role and responsibilities of the communities' monitors. In Namibia, community game guards have been prevented from accompanying hunters for example, whilst in Zambia, community-based scouts can only patrol when accompanied by scouts from ZAWA. In Zimbabwe, the state management agency has withdrawn its staff completely from the communal lands. This effectively handed all responsibility for wildlife monitoring and protection to CAMPFIRE without any assessment of the risks or threats this would involve. While community employees might be able to deal with local subsistence hunting issues, it is only under exceptional circumstances that they can address highly organised illegal hunting for commercial meat and wildlife products without government support. Despite this uncertainty, there has been considerable investment by donors in training community scouts.

Market-based solutions to illegal wildlife trade

International trade and globalisation have had both positive and negative effects for CBNRM. The positive side is that international tourism has developed in parallel with globalisation. This has created a demand for nature-based tourism in Southern Africa and is a source of income for many CBNRM programmes. The negative aspect is that demand for natural resources in one region of the world can now have a rapid and direct impact on natural resources in another:

Trade in natural resources is controlled through CITES. CITES evolved in response to the negative effects of international trade on natural resources (see Chapter 3). In Southern Africa, the two species that are at particular risk are black rhino and African elephant. For black rhino in particular, the CITES listing has been particularly ineffective in practical terms and there have been strong calls for other mechanisms to be tried. The one obvious solution to the illegal trade in both rhino horn and ivory is to consider market-based solutions. There are two assumptions that underpin the concept of market-based solutions to the illegal killing of rhino and elephants. These are:

- the poachers are rational people who can understand the relationship between risk and return;
- there will always be a demand for rhino horn and ivory, particularly amongst Arab and Far East nations.

The price of horn or ivory at each stage of the marketing chain is the incentive for a person or group of persons to engage in illegal activity. Simple economics shows that if the supply of a product is increased then the price will fall, and that if the overall demand for a product is decreased, then the price will also fall. (Note the reverse of both is also true.) The alternative long-term strategy for law enforcement is therefore to address the price of the product, with the aim of reducing the market price to such a point that there are no longer incentives to poach. The implementation of this approach would differ for rhino and elephant.

- Currently black rhino are generally classified as a specially protected species in all countries except South Africa. In the CBNRM context, farming rhino in order to remove their horn (which is matted hair and will therefore re-grow) would give communities an added source of income as they could harvest their black rhino horn. This would raise the net incentive to actively manage wildlife and maintain wildlife as a primary land use. An interim measure, between granting rights to harvest rhino horn and full production, would be the controlled release of rhino horn stocks onto the world market.
- The CITES ban on the international trade in elephant ivory has resulted in a reduced demand for ivory worldwide. This has been due to the effectiveness of campaigns against the use of ivory in western economies. There is still a high (and

rising) demand for ivory in the Far East, however. Intensive and semi-intensive production of ivory is not an option since an animal must be killed to remove its tusks. However, there are huge stockpiles of ivory that could be released onto the markets in the medium-term. There are also currently populations of elephant in the region that are in need of reduction. These two operations would provide sufficient ivory to increase supply and therefore decrease the market price. As with rhino, the objective would be to reduce to the price to a point where poaching is no longer a viable option.

In the short-term, there would be a critical period in which law enforcement would be extremely important to ensure that there was no opportunistic exploitation of the change in legislation. In the long-term however, it would be envisaged that the price would have dropped and could be maintained at a level that would make the illegal harvest of these species unattractive.

Another assumption of the market-based solution to the illegal use of wildlife is that the countries in which this is implemented are functional and not corrupt. Where the law enforcement agencies, the judiciary and even the wildlife management agencies have been tainted with corruption then this would be a highly risky strategy.



Farming black rhino and periodically removing the horns from sedated adults would provide an income-generating opportunity whilst reducing incentives to poach by lowering the price of the wildlife product.

43

Introduction

We have already seen that the economic condition necessary for institutional change to occur is that the net benefits of the new system must significantly outweigh the net benefits of the old system. If this condition is not satisfied then institutional change is most unlikely to take place. Conservancies and CBOs will not be sustainable if they fail to improve the quality of life for the majority of people within the community compared with their situation previously. They also have responsibilities with respect to natural resource management and to the social and economic development of their members. Fulfilling these responsibilities requires financial resources, i.e. money. This chapter considers some of the important financial and economic issues involved in CBNRM.

What role can tourism play in the region's economic development

Southern Africa is a destination for regional and international tourists because of:

- its unique and diverse ecological systems, its size and generally low population density, which give tourists a sense of wilderness;
- its ethnic diversity, not only amongst its indigenous people but also as a result of its colonial history.

The development of tourism presents the regional governments with some very interesting possibilities in terms of the problems faced by their economies. These are:

1. **Employment:** tourism is a labour intensive sector that offers some solutions to the unemployment problem that countries in the region are facing. Unlike agricultural work and self-employment in the rural areas, tourism jobs require skilled persons and pay higher wages. Tourism also generates opportunities for entrepreneurs and communities to become directly involved in the tourism sector as owners and operators of camps, lodges and hotels.
2. **Wealth distribution:** some of the most desirable tourism locations in Southern Africa are in the least developed and poorest areas of the region (for example the Caprivi region in Namibia). Tourism in these regions offers options for economic diversification, employment, partnerships, and possibly ownership, to the poorest sectors of society.

44

- To become operational, a CBT enterprise needs management systems. The most important systems are those that cover financial management and administration of the enterprise and staff. CBT enterprises also need a booking system. In their early stages many CBT enterprises have been supported by local NGOs. For long-term viability, CBT enterprises generally need to be linked to a larger booking network.
- **Marketing strategy:** options that are being used are web-site links, brochures, and participation at trade fairs. One of the most effective marketing tools in tourism is to provide a quality product and experience to visitors (who will then visit again in the future themselves, as well as recommend the destination to others).
- A monitoring and evaluation (M & E) system for a CBT must be simple and effective, and must provide information that is useful to management. This information might include: the gross revenue per month, the number of visitors per month, monthly costs of running the enterprise, the length of time people stay etc. In an emerging sector like CBT, it is also useful if this information can be fed into a national system that can help monitor and evaluate the sector as a whole.

Joint venture trophy hunting

Trophy hunting (or safari hunting) is a leisure activity undertaken by a person? often whilst on holiday? in order to kill animals for recreational purposes. Generally, the hunter wishes to shoot and kill only trophy animals. These are animals that carry good-sized horns (for antelope), large tusks (for elephant and hippo), or are large-bodied (for carnivores). Although trophy hunting is a global activity, Southern Africa has a unique diversity of large dangerous animals, which makes it a very attractive destination for all trophy hunters. Regional CBNRM programmes often advise CBOs to enter into a joint venture with a professional hunter.

Some important lessons have been learned about joint ventures for trophy hunting. These include:

- **Competition increases the value of the contract:** there is a demand from professional hunters and trophy-hunting companies for good quality hunting areas. This means that communities can maximise their revenue by creating competition between the people wanting to hunt in their conservancy. This can be achieved by tendering or auctioning the rights to hunt.

Sources of income for conservancies and other community-based organisations

The following section will consider some of the options that conservancies and other community-based organisations (CBOs) can use to generate revenue. This revenue is needed to:

- pay for management costs;
- provide either collective or individual benefits for their members.

Within the CBNRM programmes of Southern Africa, international trophy hunting usually accounts for most of the revenue that has been earned. Nevertheless, in 2002, 28% of the revenue attributable to CBNRM and conservancies in Namibia was earned by other community-based tourism (CBT) enterprises including: campsites run and managed by conservancies, campsites run and managed by other community-based organisations (CBOs), craft enterprises, and cultural villages and guided tours run by communities.

Because of Namibia's extensive experience with a broader range of CBT enterprises, some important general lessons have been learned. These are:

- The development of a CBT enterprise needs to be planned at several levels.
 - Firstly, it should fit in with the overall tourism plan for the area.
 - Secondly, the viability of the enterprise must be considered before any development takes place (see Chapter 4).
 - Finally, it is important that the infrastructure is carefully planned and developed.
- As part of the business development process, it is important that the appropriate management structures are put in place.
 - It is important that the management structure is developed to give the CBT enterprise an entrepreneurial (business-like) approach.
 - Where possible, there should be formal agreements between the management and the community.
 - Finally, it is important that the management team are given the appropriate skills to run the enterprise as planned.



The hunter's aim is to bag a good-sized trophy

- **Contracts should be simple:** when communities sign a contract with a professional hunter they are entering into a legal agreement. The agreement generally specifies the obligations of each party and like all contracts these need to be closely monitored so that, in this case, the professional hunter abides by the rules and makes his/her payment correctly and on time. One simple option is for the professional hunter to pay for animals as and when they are shot. If this method is combined with a minimum or guaranteed payment, it can be a very efficient and effective way for communities to earn money from their wildlife resources. One alternative that has been used very successfully in Zimbabwe is for the community to be paid a set proportion of the total revenue earned by a trophy-hunting company in its area.
- **Joint ventures can bring immediate and substantial benefits:** unlike tourism, trophy-hunting ventures do not require a substantial investment in physical infrastructure. This means that communities that have hunting rights can earn immediate and substantial revenue. The proportion of the gross revenue earned by communities from trophy hunting (32% to 51%) is substantially higher than from tourism joint ventures (5% to 10%).

45

- The currency of the contract: communities who are in joint ventures need to think about how their payments should be made: as local currency depreciates, communities that negotiated their contracts in, for example, US dollars can benefit from the exchange rate gains. This situation is reversed if and when the local currency appreciates, and then the advantage lies with the hunting operator.
- The quota is the most important management tool: the previous chapter dealt briefly with the biological aspect of setting quotas. Quotas were defined as a control mechanism for limiting harvests and ensuring the sustainable use of natural resources. When communities are engaged in joint ventures for trophy hunting it is important that they closely monitor the number of animals hunted against the quota that has been set. Animals that are only wounded should be considered as killed and should come off the quota and be paid for by the professional hunter. If the contract is structured using trophy fees, monitoring the quota is also a way of monitoring the contract.

Joint venture tourism

Joint ventures in tourism are very similar to arrangements that are used for trophy hunting, i.e. an entrepreneur enters into a contract with a community and brings capital and a set of skills to the partnership that are generally unavailable within the community. Communities are generally advised to consider joint ventures for tourism when they have sites of very high tourism potential. While CBT enterprises can generate small amounts of net cash revenue, successful tourism joint ventures can create substantial benefits for communities.

- Tourism joint ventures require negotiation: various methods for finding the "best private sector partner" have been tried in the tourism sector. Unless destinations and/or tourism sites are very well known, enterprises are normally the product of an entrepreneur's "vision". For this reason, it is now felt that the best option is a process of negotiation with potential investors.
- Contracts should be simple: because tourism is a more complex business than trophy hunting, involving many more clients and fixed investments over a longer period, tourism contracts tend to be more complex than those for trophy hunting. There are a number of important points about these contracts:

- a) Tourists visiting a lodge might make several different payments, i.e. for accommodation, food, guided activities etc. It is very important for both partners in the joint venture to clearly define what is meant by gross revenue.
- b) Once there is agreement on how gross revenue is defined, it is very important that both parties know how this is going to be checked. Compared with a hunting joint venture, it is much more difficult for the community to assess the numbers of clients and to know what each one paid. The most common means of verification is to use the audited accounts produced by an independent company.
- c) Some of the contracts that have been negotiated have a minimum guaranteed payment included in them. This means that if the enterprise does not perform as profitably as expected, the operator still has to make a minimum payment to the community. This reduces the risk to the community and allows them to budget with some degree of certainty.

In addition to the clauses dealing with payment, tourism joint venture contracts often deal with a range of other issues: recruiting local people to work in a lodge, providing training, and (where possible) using local materials for construction. The issue of ownership of the infrastructure must also be built into the contract. This means that communities who enter into these contracts often need considerable skills and training so that they can monitor the contracts.

- The benefits from tourism joint ventures: as we have seen, tourism is a very different business from trophy hunting this means that the revenue to the community is generally lower initially than the substantial and immediate returns from a trophy-hunting joint venture. It is important to stress however that for many communities there is seldom an opportunity to make a straightforward choice between a tourism joint venture and a hunting joint venture. In general, communities will develop those opportunities that already exist and will not be in a position to choose between them.

What other sources of income/benefit are available to a CBO?

There are five additional sources of income and benefits to conservancies/CBOs:

- 1) the interest earned on savings;
- 2) the income earned from the live sale of wildlife;
- 3) the income from sales of thatching grass and crafts, which goes directly to the individual;
- 4) the value of the wildlife that has been donated to a conservancy;
- 5) estimates of the value of meat that has been consumed locally.

The interest earned on earnings, and the profit from the sale of live animals, provide direct cash income to the conservancy. (This is different from the sales of thatching grass and crafts, which are under the control of the individual, albeit that they are based upon communal resources.) Donated wildlife and the estimate of the value of meat consumed locally are attributed values rather than cash income.

Some guidelines for the distribution of CBO benefits

The theory behind CBNRM emphasises the importance of the benefits that are needed for institutional change. The theory proposes that institutional change will only be sustainable if the net benefits from the change are substantial. The key principles outlined below are extremely useful in developing a benefit distribution plan for community-based organisations and conservancies.

- Within the CBO/conservancy, those who bear the greatest costs of wildlife production should receive the greatest benefits.
- The benefits generated must be greater than the costs. This means that CBOs/conservancies have to balance the investment in wildlife and natural resource management against generating direct benefits for their members.

- Wildlife, land, and other resources are community assets. There may be instances, especially with respect to the use and allocation of benefits, when collective or community interests have to take priority over individual interests.
- Appropriate, preferably quick and low cost, community-based ways of resolving conflicts should be used. It is inevitable that there will be disagreements within a community, especially over the distribution of benefits. For the long-term sustainability of CBOs, it is essential that these are resolved locally and without great cost to the community.
- Mechanisms should be put in place to allow for the participation of, and consultation between, different types of community members. Within any community there will be separate but overlapping categories of people. As CBOs develop over time it is important that the group representatives are in touch with other groups and understand their needs and possible requests for resources.
- It is possible for a single conservancy to benefit from several different sources of revenue (see above). It is important that the benefit distribution plans recognise the different forms of revenue and allocate them appropriately.
- Finances must be accounted for in a transparent and responsible way. Transparency is achieved by setting up a financial management system and then following its procedures. Deviation from the set procedures, for whatever reason, will reduce the transparency of the system. As well as being transparent, it is important that the system is accountable to its members.

The direct financial costs and benefits of CBNRM

There is a common misconception at all levels of society in Southern Africa that CBNRM is meant to completely replace traditional agricultural activities eventually. It has been shown that only in very exceptional circumstances, (very low human populations and very high wildlife populations), does the income from wildlife begin to approach that derived by households from agricultural activities (Bond, 2001).

Consequently, CBNRM should be considered a complement to existing sources of income instead through both the direct and the indirect benefits that can be earned. CBNRM is more concerned with adding new land use options to existing strategies, than replacing existing strategies altogether.

CBOs must allocate the appropriate financial resources to the management of natural resource activities. Common management costs that a CBO/conservancy committee will need to consider include, but are not restricted to:

- The wages for the community game guards, community resource monitors, and other employees (such as a wildlife manager or book-keeper).
- The costs of management activities such as fuel, allowances, transport, the costs of running and maintaining an office etc.
- The costs of meetings and administration, such as the payment of allowances to committee members.
- The maintenance of, and investment in, infrastructure such as community campsites and water points.

CBOs are therefore engaged in a complex balancing act. They need to invest adequate financial resources in management activities whilst retaining sufficient balances to provide tangible and direct benefits for their members.



Maintaining CBO infrastructure costs time and money

48

What early lessons were learned from direct cash payments in Zimbabwe?

The first regional example of direct household payments emerged from the Beitbridge District in Zimbabwe. Early on in the development of CAMPFIRE (December 1992), the community at Chikwarawara Village decided to allocate a substantial proportion of the village's revenue directly to households. The following concepts underpinned the use of direct payments in this instance, and subsequently elsewhere in Zimbabwe:

- Extension tool: direct payments at household level are an important means of demonstrating to members of a CBO that their natural resources, and especially wildlife production systems, are capable of creating cash benefits.
- Equity: cash benefits are a mechanism for ensuring that the collective benefit is spread throughout the entire community. This is in contrast to capital development projects that might only benefit a certain sector of the community.
- Proprietorship: households within a producer CBO should be able to derive their benefits in a way chosen by them. Should this chosen payment method result in the direct payment of a dividend, then this decision must be respected. Failure to do so reduces the level of proprietorship over the production system and the benefits derived.

Following the experience of Chikwarawara Village, a number of other communities in Zimbabwe experimented with direct payments from wildlife revenue. Through these experiences a number of important lessons have been learned including:

- Making household-level payments requires thorough preparation. This means that not only must there be general agreement that direct payments represent the best use of funds, but it is also important that the community defines the criteria that make households eligible. In addition, there must be a defined list of households that meet the criteria, and the organisers (including the CBO, support agencies and local administrators) must know how many households there are on the list in order that they can correctly calculate the dividend per household. These preparations can involve substantial costs. Therefore when the individual payments are relatively small, there might be a very good argument for keeping the revenue at the community-level and investing in projects or activities which do not require as much administration.

- Household payments do not exclude the option for communal projects. Firstly, it is possible that a community may choose to use only some of its revenue to pay dividends. An alternative is that beneficiaries receive their household dividend but then make a contribution towards a project, immediately or at some later date. This option gives the member or the household a high level of proprietorship over the benefits. It also establishes very strong links between the source of the revenue (generally wildlife) and the cash benefit.

The payment of cash dividends from wildlife in Zimbabwe did have its critics: the main opposition to the payment of wildlife dividends came from local government administrators. This group of stakeholders argued that payments to households did not result in the tangible "development of the community". (The weakness of this argument is that it clearly fails to recognise that people and households are the fundamental building blocks of the community.)

What general lessons have been learned to date from the region regarding the distribution of direct benefits?

The use and allocation of benefits derived from wildlife revenue is still its infancy in countries such as Namibia. Nevertheless, there has been time to learn some important lessons from across the region regarding those payments that have been made. These include:

- If conservancies are to be fully empowered to manage their wildlife and natural resources, then they should have full control over the benefits that accrue from them. In this regard, it is important that support agencies and other stakeholders do not attempt to influence conservancy committees over how they spend their natural resource-based revenue.
- The timing of even modest payments can improve their impact on communities, especially if they are made at a time when cash income is either low or there are substantial demands for cash (such as the payment of school fees).
- Planning direct payments can become a major entry point for communities to raise and discuss other important issues in the conservancy. These issues have included: the form in which benefits should be distributed, the criteria for membership of a conservancy, and evaluations of priorities within the conservancy.

Across the Southern African region, there has been a general reluctance to use revenue that has been earned at the community level. There are several explanations for this trait.

- The first is that communities are given substantially less advice with respect to the use and allocation of revenue than with other aspects of CBNRM management, and so they often lack the skills to carry out these activities satisfactorily.
- Alternatively there is a fear that in using their revenue, they will make "mistakes" and therefore be held accountable by local bureaucrats.
- Thirdly, there may be a perception within some communities that the accumulation of revenue is an achievement in itself.

Whatever the reason for the reluctance to use and allocate their revenue, the result is the same, i.e. that ordinary members of the conservancy do not directly benefit.

CEPT in Botswana has been very successful in converting the area's wildlife into a substantial cash income on an annual basis. It is interesting to note that the 2003 gross income of the CECT works out at approximately US\$200 per household. At the individual level however, there is very little benefit from wildlife, either directly or through VTC projects implemented with wildlife revenue. It appears that the current failure of the VTC projects would be a very good argument for the payment of annual cash dividends from wildlife to all households in the Enclave. As in other CBNRM programmes, it would provide a direct linkage between people and wildlife, it would ensure that all households benefited, and would remove the economic inefficiencies caused by investment in non-viable projects.

What are the indirect or non-financial benefits of CBNRM

- Prior to independence, many Southern African communities had little or no control over their natural resources, especially wildlife. In addition, many communities became dependent on outside interventions and agents; therefore it would be hard to overstate why growing control and self-determination is one of the greatest intangible benefits now created by CBNRM in Southern Africa.

49

- Improved natural resource management. Communal land households throughout Southern Africa depend on natural resources. (The nature and extent of this relationship will depend on the country and the location.) It is well known that poorer households generally derive a greater proportion of their household income from natural resources than better-off households. The intangible incentives for CBNRM can be generated by:
 - Land use planning (Through CBOs, communities can plan their land use and allocate different activities to different zones. This can lead to more appropriate and better managed use of the community's resources.)
 - Reduced costs of living with wildlife. Communities that are investing in measures to reduce human-wildlife conflict are reducing these costs to their members and therefore providing intangible benefits for the establishment and maintenance of CBNRM systems.
 - There are very important intangible incentives created when conservancies are able to conduct their own hunting. This directly empowers them to manage, and make responsible decisions over, their own wildlife resources.
 - The region generally suffers from a very high rate of unemployment. This is most acute in the remote rural areas where there are fewer job opportunities and only limited access to education. What is emerging from conservancies now is the intangible value of jobs that are created within the area and that allow people to remain within their communities and not to seek work as migrants elsewhere in the economy. The other great advantage of employment created through the management of natural resources and tourism is that the quality of the jobs created is much higher than those in agricultural sectors generally.
 - CBNRM is also creating opportunities for commercial activities that can directly benefit individual households. The most common examples are the manufacture and sale of craft products. There are also outsourcing opportunities generated from tourism joint ventures: the outsourcing of laundry, the collection of firewood, and the cultivation of vegetables for lodge kitchens.

By way of an example from the region, currently it is estimated that 170 people are employed in Madikwe, South Africa. This exceeds the best estimates for employment under the 'cattle model' by 90 persons. The average salaries of the

people employed are much higher than those that could be expected under cattle production, while there are also important opportunities for both skills development and promotion.

What are the costs of living with wildlife?

At the level of the individual or the household, there are essentially two kinds of costs that may arise out of living with wildlife. These are:

- **The costs of the loss of access.** In establishing hunting and tourism ventures, communities generally need to undertake some land use planning and develop zones that are attractive to their joint venture partners. Through this process, some households and community members might lose access to important natural resources. This is an issue that has to be dealt with at the conservancy level. In practice, and where it is necessary, the community might need to compensate individuals for the losses or the costs that they have incurred.
- **Human wildlife conflict:** The costs of living with wildlife (or human-wildlife conflict) have been referred to already in this Manual. As wildlife numbers improve so the costs of living with wildlife can escalate. Communal area conservancies have little control over the species that occur on their land and frequently need the large and more dangerous species to be present in order to make their hunting or tourism leases viable. The success of wildlife-based CBNRM activities will often depend on the extent to which the costs of living with wildlife can be reduced.

In addition to the costs of living with wildlife that fall to the individual or the household, there are other costs that will fall to the conservancy or CBO. These will include:

- **The transaction costs.** These are the costs that are generally associated with the process of institutional change. (See Chapter 1 for a list of some of these.)
- **The management costs.** It is important that the management systems that are designed are extremely efficient so that effective management is achieved at the lowest cost. For valuable natural resources such as wildlife, it is important that any law enforcement system is designed after an evaluation of the real threats (both internal and external) to the resource.

- **The opportunity costs.** When a producer community makes a choice about institutional change, it is giving up another option that it could have followed. While it is technically correct to include the notion of opportunity costs as a category of costs associated with institutional change, they are rarely calculated or included because they are so difficult to determine.

In general, there is a tendency for those organisations that support CBNRM activities to focus their efforts on the income-generation aspect of CBOs. It is equally important that CBOs and their supporting organisations consider their costs. This means critically analysing their organisational structure, institutions and activities in relation to their costs, and the gross income of the conservancy. CBOs and conservancies must be developed in a cost-effective manner with a focus on efficiency. In this regard supporting organisations must be very careful not to develop systems and activities that are overly dependent upon capital.

What are the four key principles of financial management by CBOs/conservancies?

Financial management of CBOs/conservancies must be seen to be:

- (a) accountable (b) transparent (c) accurate (d) rational

Conservancies and CBOs should have the financial management skills to manage their income and their expenses. This is important because inefficient or poor financial management will diminish the net incentives for institutional change at the household level. Poor financial management by a CBO/conservancy will also reduce the credibility of the management committee in the eyes of the members, the government and the supporting agencies.

Financial management by community-based organisations can be difficult because CBOs for the management of wildlife and natural resources are often found at great distances from financial institutions such as banks. This means that banking has very high transaction costs. In addition, there is generally a scarcity of those people with the appropriate skills and expertise to manage the financial affairs of CBOs. Lastly, there is often substantial social and economic pressure on those who have been elected or recruited to manage the CBOs affairs.

- In addition to being efficient, the financial management systems that are used by CBOs/conservancies must be accountable to their membership (the first principle, above). Accountability is an interesting concept. It does not mean that the CBO/conservancy committee needs to involve every member in every single decision. It does however mean that interested members should be given the opportunity to ensure that the money is spent according to their wishes. One way that this can and is being done is by the CBO/conservancy holding annual general meetings (AGMs) at which its financial affairs are presented to the community and they are allowed to comment.
- The transparency of a financial management system (the second principle) will depend on the management systems that have been put in place. The systems that are required by CBOs/conservancies will need to be able to track the income that is earned. In general, these will be relatively large single payments made by commercial sector partners. Tracking expenditure will be another chief task of the system, as CBOs/conservancies tend to make many small payments on a continuous basis throughout the year. Those persons who are in charge of the financial affairs should ensure that the systems that are in place are used consistently. If it is necessary to make large unbudgeted payments, there should be a process for soliciting the approval of the members of the CBO/conservancy.
- CBOs/conservancies are largely concerned with fairly simple cash management. There are three parts to a simple cash management system which can facilitate financial accuracy (the third principle). These are:
 - Budgeting.** The process of developing and formulating a budget has two separate functions: These are: (a) planning income and expenditure, and (b) controlling income and expenditure. During the financial year, actual income and expenditure need to be compared against the budget on a regular basis. This will allow adjustments to the budget to be made (these will be necessary due to the differences in the planned and the actual income and expenditure).

- 2) **Accounting.** The accounting system will record the income received and the payments made by the CBO/conservancy. Individual accounting systems will be developed by CBOs/conservancies in order to meet their own particular needs. It is important that the system is simple and appropriate, given the skills of the people who are responsible for financial management. It is also important that the personnel who are responsible for financial management are consistent in the way that they conduct the financial affairs of the CBO/conservancy and that they do it on a regular basis.
- 3) **Banking.** All CBOs/conservancies will need to set up a system whereby they will keep most of their money in a secure bank account. They will, however, also need to have a safe system for keeping some 'petty cash' on hand to make small incidental payments.
- One principle that is common to both financial management systems and business plans is that of financial rationality (the final, fourth principle). This simply means that the CBOs/conservancies should make financial decisions based upon the understanding that the benefits of any decision ought to be greater than the costs. This principle can apply at different scales. For example, an enterprise might have run out of printed receipts. The cost of a new receipt book is very small, whilst the benefit of having a receipt book is that the financial management system continues to record the sales made. It is therefore a rational decision to purchase a new receipt book. However other decisions are more difficult. A conservancy may wish to think about purchasing a vehicle. The initial cost of a vehicle represents a significant capital outlay for a conservancy. In addition, it will incur running costs through the purchases of fuel, oil and frequent maintenance. The conservancy should only purchase the vehicle if the benefits of doing so clearly exceed its costs. It is not always that easy to make such decisions.



CBOs have to balance the benefits and costs when a large capital outlay is involved. Is the decision financially rational?

Business plans for CBOs and conservancies

CBOs/conservancies and their various enterprises are, in effect, small businesses. Consequently, as we have begun to see in the last section, it is very important that they are managed as businesses. This means that they should have a business plan both at the level of the conservancy/CBO and for each of their enterprises.

A business plan is simply a tool that can be used to ensure that a business activity is both financially viable and is then maximising net benefits to the community. The plan does this by predicting costs and income, setting up the management structure, and planning for the future. A business plan needs to be developed to meet the specific requirements of any enterprise be it a CBO/conservancy or an individual community-based endeavour, such as a campsite. There is, however, a model format that can be used by a facilitating agent/NGO to assist CBOs/conservancies in drawing up their business plan. This common format will include:

- 1. **An introduction to the enterprise.** It is important that the business plan provides some background information on the enterprise. This will include: where it is situated; a description of the area (ecosystem, wildlife species and abundance, other attractions); and some of the history of the enterprise to date. The introduction can also provide a written statement of the goals or objectives of the enterprise.
- 2. **The business plan** should next briefly describe the enterprise's facilities or infrastructure. For example, a business plan for a community campsite will list the facilities available to visitors, how many units there are, and what supporting infrastructure there is. This will include units for staff accommodation, offices, water and heating systems, ablutions etc. The description of the facilities can also include future plans for expansion, if there are any.
- 3. **The enterprise's current and future services.** Some of the enterprises that are now being developed by conservancies are different forms of tourism. The services that the enterprise offers are its sources of income. The business plan should include a brief description of these services and, most importantly, their current per unit charges.
- 4. **Capital investment.** Many of the current enterprises being developed by conservancies have been built with grants from donors. It is important that the business plan should outline the cost of the facilities that have been constructed, or that will be constructed. It is also very important for the enterprise to consider the implications of the repairs and maintenance to the infrastructure. All infrastructures, no matter how simple, will need constant maintenance. The costs of the maintenance must be built into the enterprises business plan. Failure to consider the costs of repairs and maintenance will severely harm the medium to long-term viability of the enterprise. If it is possible, a sub-section of the business plan capital investment section should deal specifically with a proposed maintenance schedule. Where the enterprise is being constructed in phases, the business plan section on capital investment should also present what the future plans are, how much they will cost, the sources of funding and when the development is likely to take place.
- 5. **The management structure of the enterprise.** The management structure deals with relationships between different personnel and identifies their roles. This means that the management and the staff structure of the enterprise needs to be formally defined. So for example, the management structure of a community campsite will identify the manager and his/her relationship to all the other staff within the camp.

- The management structure will also determine the relationship between a business enterprise and the CBO/conservancy. Management by committee is not the best option for community income-generation enterprises: entrepreneurial success often requires that those involved with the enterprise make quick, market-related decisions. This response cannot normally happen when committees are involved. The other reason to separate the management of an enterprise from the management of the CBO/conservancy as a whole is so that the financial viability of the enterprise is easy to determine.
- 6. **Staffing.** Once the management structure of the enterprise has been defined it will be possible to start considering the staff needed to run the enterprise. Depending on the size and the complexity of the enterprise, the staff and their positions can either be defined when the structure is considered (i.e. previous step) or at the point at which the staff positions are filled. For community enterprises it is very important to restrict staffing to essential personnel only.



CBOs must take care not to become a kind of local employment agency. If too many personnel are employed, the venture will not be financially viable in the long run.

The management structure and the identification of the posts will also help the enterprise, the conservancy, and the supporting organisations to determine what kind of training or capacity-building will be required by the enterprise. There will always be some gaps between existing staff skills and the skills required. The analysis of this difference is known as the training needs analysis.

Determining the staff required for an enterprise will also help those responsible to work out salaries, conditions of employment, working hours, leave etc. It is always better to start an enterprise with too few members of staff than too many. It is much easier to increase the number of staff because the enterprise is doing well than to retrench staff because the enterprise is not performing financially.

7. Marketing. Included in the marketing section of the business plan is information on:

- a) Goals and objectives. The goal of the enterprise is its long-term vision. The objectives of the enterprise are often formulated as the means to achieving that vision.
- b) Product. In tourism enterprises it is important to differentiate between the facilities that exist and the services that the camp might offer. For a tourism enterprise, it is important to determine its "unique selling point" or USP. The unique selling point is the specific reason why people will come to the enterprise, e.g. to visit nearby rock paintings, to view game in a mokoro etc.

Every viable enterprise needs to understand the market that it is aiming for. Markets can be extremely complex and difficult to assess. One key process for learning about the market is called the market survey. These can be undertaken in several different ways and can range from simply visiting other enterprises with similar products, and visiting markets or trade fairs, to conducting market research through questionnaires. For a tourism enterprise, it is extremely important to identify the market that the product is aiming at capturing.

- c) Price. While identifying and researching markets, it is important to simultaneously conduct an investigation into the prices at which the

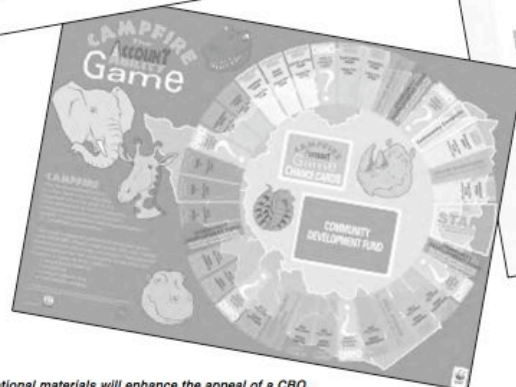
enterprise should be selling its goods and services. The pricing structure will be one of the most important decisions that the enterprise will make. If the price is set too low then the enterprise might sell lots of product but it will not make any money. If the price is set too high, then the enterprise might sell only a few units. Therefore when the price is being set, it is important to think about the gross revenue that will be earned. Gross revenue is the unit price multiplied by the number of units sold.

- d) Promotion and awareness. All enterprises have to advertise their product. For a community enterprise, it is important to decide upon a promotion strategy for the goods and services that are being produced. A small community campsite might have a very limited promotional campaign. It might decide that the only advertising that it will do will be in the form of a brochure, and from then on it will rely on 'word of mouth'. For an enterprise with an exceptional product this might work. Other enterprises will have to use multiple strategies to achieve their objectives.

8. Financial. A key component of every business plan is its financial information. This is usually presented in the form of a financial model. The model will project the costs and the benefits of the enterprise for a given number of years (usually five). The model should demonstrate how much money the enterprise will make. (To do this, it might be necessary to adjust the information in the model on several occasions over time. Each adjustment is known as iteration.) Once the model has been agreed upon, it then provides targets for the management of the enterprise. Obviously, the objective is to exceed the projected income and to save on the expected costs of the enterprise. This will maximise the revenue to the enterprise.

Who should be involved in the preparation of the business plan?

The preparation of the business plan is an activity that will need to be supported by an outside agency. The ideal situation would be to prepare a business plan for an enterprise over a series of planning workshops. The principle that it is done at the planning stage is an important one; at the moment, too many community enterprises are being implemented without proper business plans or planning. The CBO/conservancy committee and other primary stakeholders should attend these planning workshops. The enterprise should only be implemented if the business plan demonstrates that it is a viable and a robust project.

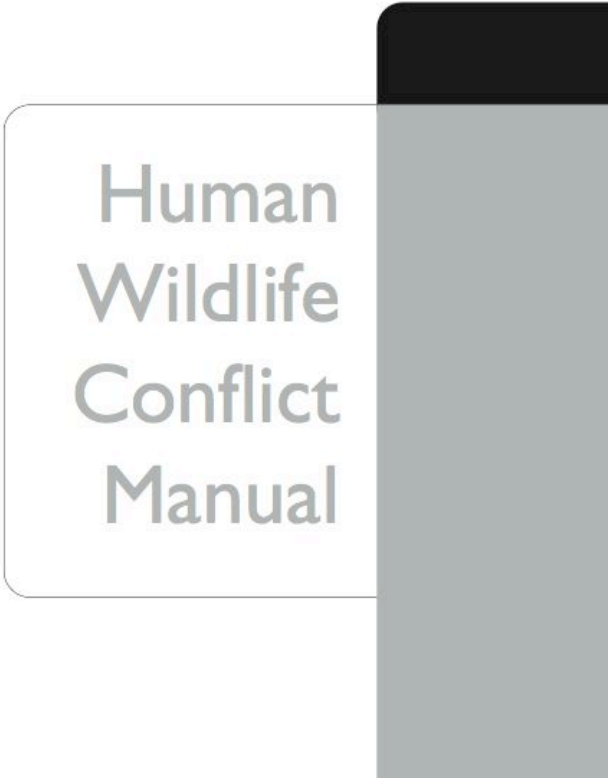
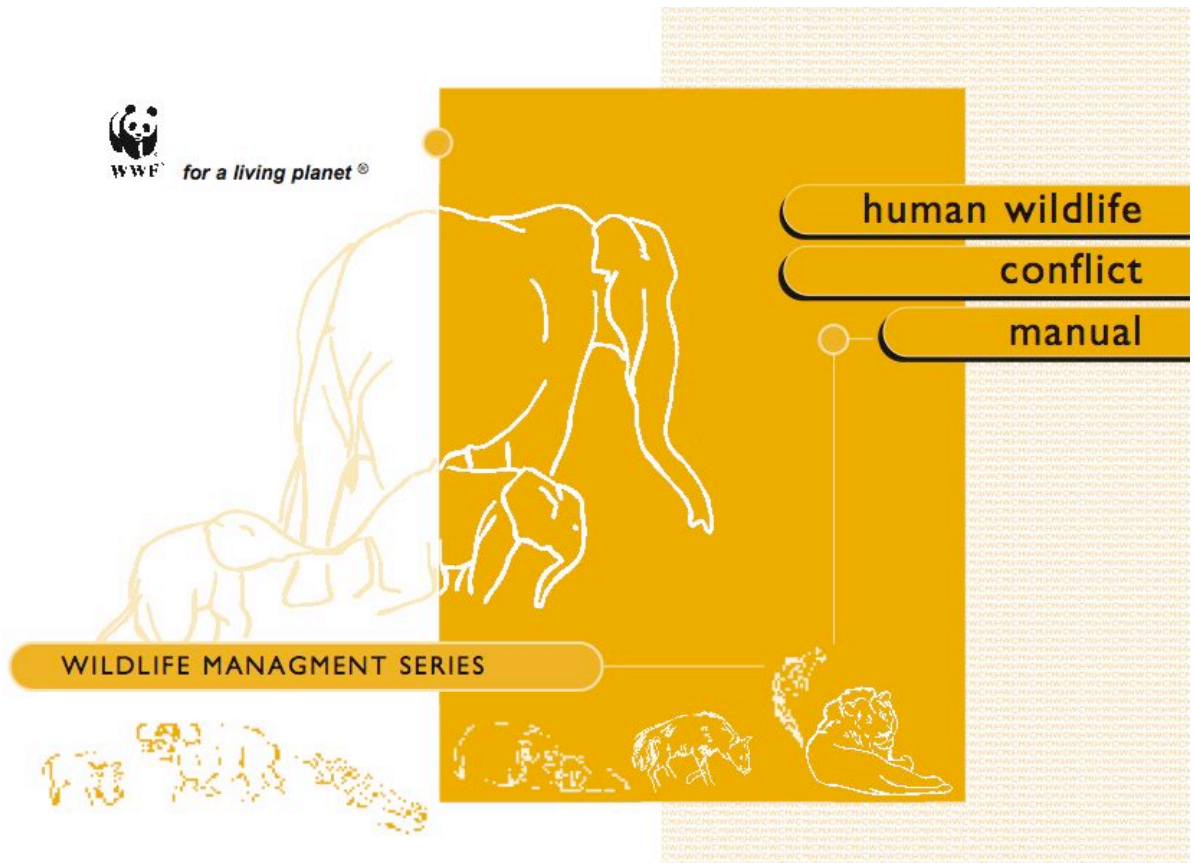


Well-designed promotional materials will enhance the appeal of a CBO.

Some projects may need a revision of the business plan at some stage. These will often be restructuring exercises, necessary because the project is not developing as anticipated. These 'revision workshops' will involve a different set of stakeholders and very often will require a slightly different approach in order to discover what went wrong with the original project and why the costs and the incomes projected in the original model were inaccurate.



Annexe 23 : WWF Human Wildlife Conflict Manual



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

human wildlife conflict manual

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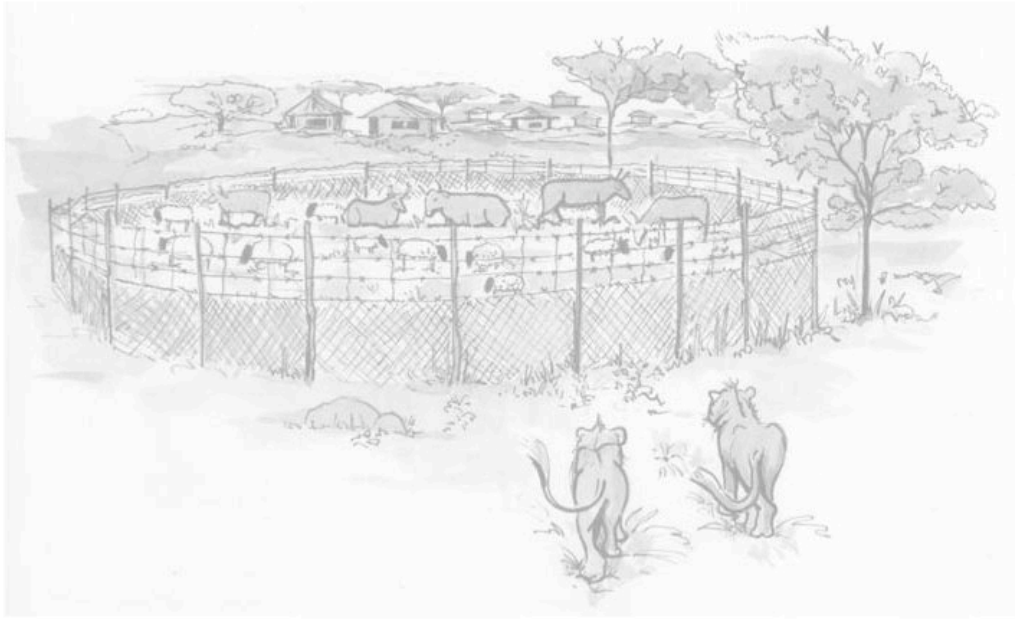
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CONTENTS

human wildlife conflict manual

PREFACE	4
INTRODUCTION	
To the HWC Guideline Manual	5
CHAPTER 1	
Background to Human-Wildlife Conflict	6
CHAPTER 2	
Institutional Arrangements in Human-Wildlife Conflict	9
CHAPTER 3	
Information on the Problem of Human-Wildlife Conflict	11
CHAPTER 4	
Lessons on Reducing Human-Wildlife Conflict	15
CHAPTER 5	
Country-specific and Local Level Problem Animal Control Options	20
CHAPTER 6	
Taking Action and Evaluating Effectiveness	24
APPENDIX I	
Glossary of Terms	27
APPENDIX 2	
Contact Details of Relevant Organisations	28

3



Lions are one of the key predators in human wildlife conflict

INTRODUCTION TO THE MANUAL

What is the objective of this manual?

In community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) programmes, local communities are co-managers of wildlife and earn direct benefits from wildlife. In such programmes conflict between people and wildlife is a frequent and ongoing problem. The expansion of human settlements into wildlife areas means that human-wildlife conflict is growing in many parts of Africa. In order to be successful and sustainable, wildlife-based CBNRM programmes have to address this conflict.

This manual is designed to guide local communities, wildlife managers, policy makers, and other people involved in community conservation, in ways to reduce human-wildlife conflict. It provides some background on the problem and gives specific examples of methods used to reduce human-wildlife conflict in Southern Africa. Examples from Botswana, Mozambique, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe are supplied, where available, to demonstrate some of these options.

How is this manual organised?

In addition to the Introduction, this manual comprises the following chapters:

- Chapter One: Background to Human-Wildlife Conflict
- Chapter Two: Institutional Arrangements in Human-Wildlife Conflict
- Chapter Three: Information on the Problem of Human-Wildlife Conflict
- Chapter Four: Lessons on Reducing Human-Wildlife Conflict
- Chapter Five: Country-specific and Local Level Problem Animal Control Options
- Chapter Six: Taking Action and Evaluating Effectiveness
- Appendix One: Glossary of Terms
- Appendix Two: Contact Details of Relevant Organisations

In Appendix 1 there is a Glossary of Terms which explains the technical words used in the text. Appendix 2 lists the contact details of organisations that can assist in the development of guidelines for managing human-wildlife conflict.

BACKGROUND TO HUMAN-WILDLIFE CONFLICT

What is human-wildlife conflict?

Human-wildlife conflict is defined as "any interaction between humans and wildlife that results in negative impacts on human social, economic or cultural life, on the conservation of wildlife populations, or on the environment."

What is a "problem animal"?

Care is needed when defining the term "problem animal". Potentially, all wildlife species will compete with humans for access to habitat, food and water. For example, elephants will feed on maize crops because they are grazers/browsers, and lions will kill and eat livestock because they are predators. However, some individual animals may develop habits which select or target crops and livestock. An elephant bull may repeatedly return to a cultivated field or a lion may regularly visit a boma, despite the protective measures in place. Such individual animals can be classified as "problem animals" since they have become specialised in habitually targeting the property of people.



6

Who suffers directly from human-wildlife conflict?

Both people and wildlife can suffer from human-wildlife conflict. Farmers suffer economically from the loss of crops and livestock. In other more serious cases, people are killed. However, the overall impact of human-wildlife conflict tends to be low when the losses are spread over a whole community. The people who suffer most tend to be those living on the edges of settlements and those living close to community or state-managed wildlife areas. On the other hand, for animals, some wildlife populations may decline or become locally extinct as a result of extensive human-wildlife conflict.

Elephant attacking a storage hut



What are the direct costs of human-wildlife conflict? Direct costs to humans are the financial, social and cultural losses suffered as a result of human-wildlife conflict. Examples include:

- Raiding and destruction of food crops;
- Loss of income from sales of produce from cash crops;
- Damage to water sources and installations;
- Damage to stored produce;
- Loss of livestock;

- Human injury or death;
- Damage to property (buildings, etc).

The costs to wildlife include the loss of habitat, persecution and possible population decline.

Who suffers indirectly as a result of human-wildlife conflict? Members of local communities that live with high levels of human-wildlife conflict often suffer from a sense of insecurity. This might be due to the anxiety of potential losses that they can suffer or from the worry of physical threat to their lives and property.

What are the indirect costs of human-wildlife conflict? The indirect costs of human-wildlife conflict are generally associated with the physical threat of

living with large mammals. This has the effect of restricting people's freedom of movement, for fear of running into such animals, or restrict their access to resources such as water, firewood and grass for thatching.

There are also indirect costs of guarding property against wildlife. Preventing damage to crops results in the reduction of sleep and often a higher exposure to malaria. This can cause a loss in productivity and opportunities to pursue other economic activities.

The indirect costs to wildlife itself generally occur because people do not adopt a systematic approach to the conflict. They possess negative attitudes towards wildlife which can lead to the indiscriminate killing of animals or to increased and unsustainable hunting. Growth of communities means a loss of habitat for wildlife, restriction of their movements and blocking of access to traditional watering points.

Lookout hut/tower in middle of field



7

Which wildlife species are generally responsible for human-wildlife conflict?

Surprisingly, small animals, that pose no obvious threat to humans, can be responsible for devastating damage to crops. These animals include insects, such as locusts and caterpillars, birds, such as seed-eaters and fruit-eaters, and rodents, rats, springhares and porcupine, for example. Small animals, like primates (baboons, vervet monkeys), some antelope species, bushpigs and even the smaller carnivores (genets, servals,

Troop of baboons raiding a maize field



mongooses), can also cause major losses to crops and livestock.

However, it is the larger herbivores (elephant, buffalo and hippopotamus), large carnivores (lion, leopard, cheetah, spotted hyaena, wild dog), and the crocodile that are traditionally defined as problem animals and are responsible for most of the human-wildlife conflict. This is because farmers often feel that the large animals are the property of the government, as was the case under previous colonial legislation, and, therefore, that they are not allowed to deal with the problem themselves. For insects and small animals, however, farmers use local solutions where possible.

Why is it important to address human-wildlife conflict in CBNRM programmes?

CBNRM assumes that local communities will be willing to conserve, manage and live with wildlife only when the benefits they derive from the wildlife outweigh the costs. It is important to remember that individuals generally have to bear the direct costs of human-wildlife conflict, whilst the community, as a whole, receives the benefits. The needs and expectations of the entire community, including the individuals that bear the brunt of the costs, must be taken into account when developing solutions to human-wildlife conflict. This is vital to the success and sustainability of CBNRM programmes. It is important to remember that there will always be some degree of human-wildlife conflict. Insects, birds and small mammals are found in even the most densely settled areas in Southern Africa. **Where the challenge lies is in balancing the costs and the benefits when it comes to dealing with large mammals so that people will live, manage and directly benefit from this form of land use.**

INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS IN HUMAN-WILDLIFE CONFLICT

Human-wildlife conflict is highly variable and there is no single management option or solution that can successfully deal with the problem. In all cases a combination of options is needed. **To be sustainable, such options should match the financial and technical capabilities of local communities and the individuals responsible for its implementation.** The options available will partly be determined by the institutional arrangements or policies found at national, regional and local level.

Why is it important to have a policy on human-wildlife conflict? Wildlife can be a valuable natural resource for rural communities. To yield the maximum benefits it needs to be managed, part of which includes reducing human-wildlife conflict. Clear policies on dealing with human-wildlife conflict help set the options that can be implemented by farmers and communities.

In order to be effective, policies need to include:

- A clear definition of the roles of the community and the authorities responsible for wildlife;
- Guidelines on human-wildlife conflict and the means to measure the extent and nature of such conflict; and
- A distinct definition of a "problem animal".

Transparent and workable policies on managing human-wildlife conflict lead the way to sound legislation and contribute to the success of CBNRM programmes.

Who determines policy at national and local levels?

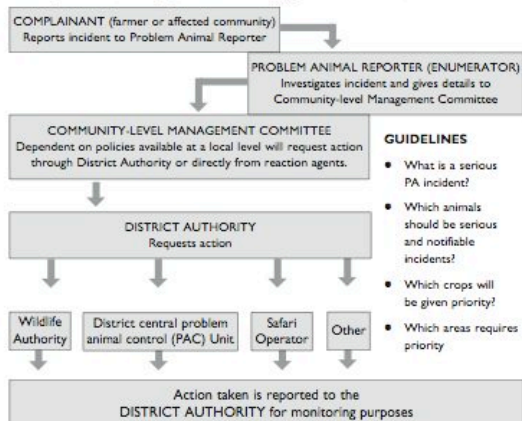
Historically, the government department responsible for wildlife and the environment, developed and implemented policies. With the CBNRM approach, local communities became involved in developing and implementing policies on human-wildlife conflict and managing "problem animals" with the help of the appropriate government departments.

Defining "problem animals" and the appropriate "problem animal management actions" should be determined at local community level, by the community-based organisation in partnership with the relevant government representatives. Discussions should also include any private sector hunting or tourism operators within the area. Questions relating to the costs of any actions agreed upon should be raised. It is important that the affected farmers have a sense of ownership and that they have some power to address the problems.

What guidelines should be followed in the event of human-wildlife conflict?

In the event of an incident with a wild animal, there must be a policy that people can refer to for direction on the most appropriate action to take. If there are no guidelines then communities are in danger of taking action independently, which could result in greater losses in the long term. Any system for the reporting of incidences and the development of appropriate action, should, ideally, have been agreed upon by all stakeholders.

The diagram below is an example of a framework that can be used as a guideline to develop a decision-making process for managing human-wildlife conflict.



- GUIDELINES**
- What is a serious PA incident?
 - Which animals should be serious and notifiable incidents?
 - Which crops will be given priority?
 - Which areas requires priority

What is the relationship between central wildlife authorities in the region and local communities?

The table below shows the roles and responsibilities of the different stakeholders in the field of human-wildlife conflict (HWC), in the region.

Country	Wildlife Authority	Private sector	NGOs	Communities
Botswana	DWNP	Safari operators may interact with communities on an advisory level or as reaction agents to reduce HWC.	Can influence policy through provision of information and research for use in policy development. May interact with communities on an advisory level and skills development	Feed information on "problem animals" to local authorities (Rural District Councils in Zimbabwe, Communal Conservancies in Namibia have authority to take action on conflict reduction). May make use of bylaws to deal with smaller "problem animals".
Mozambique	DNAC DNFFB			
Namibia	MET			
Zambia	ZAWA			
Zimbabwe	PWMA			

Reliable information on human-wildlife conflict and "problem animals" is vital for the development of sound policies and relies on accurate reporting of temporal and spatial data by all parties concerned.

What are the potential areas of disagreement between stakeholders?

Government wildlife departments or authorities and community representatives might find it difficult to agree on policies and actions to deal with human-wildlife conflict. Setting up an effective system for problem animal management needs understanding from all sides. Differences may arise because of a lack of:

- **Information:** Wildlife authorities are used to managing wildlife in protected areas, they do not always appreciate the problems that farmers face in communal lands. This is why it is so important that farmers and communities collect information that shows the scale of the problem.

- **Capacity:** Communities are relatively new wildlife managers. Frequently wildlife authorities do not believe that communities of farmers have the skills to assist with problem animal management. Communities and the organisations that assist them can overcome this by designing appropriate and relevant training courses. It is important that these courses build on the skills of the farmers and are not seen to be irrelevant.
- **Investment in problem animal management:** Communities are often very eager to get the financial benefits from wildlife, but are reluctant to invest their own money in the activities and infrastructure that will reduce the problem. Communities can build goodwill with the authorities and reduce their own problems by investing in activities that will help reduce human-wildlife conflict, e.g. Communities in Guruve, Gokwe in Zimbabwe have invested in PAM by employing community Problem Animal Reporters and Game Guards.

10

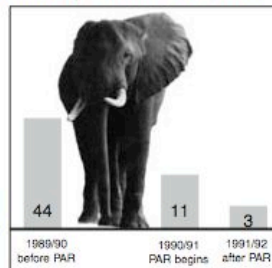
INFORMATION ON THE PROBLEM OF HUMAN-WILDLIFE CONFLICT

The previous chapter stressed the importance of the availability of working policies and the development of good relationships between the key stakeholders in any human-wildlife conflict situations. Both the design and implementation of such policies are dependent on the availability of current and accurate information on the problem. Furthermore, good quality information will greatly assist in making correct decisions on the best action to take in reducing human-wildlife conflict.

Why is information important?

In the absence of good information, the scale and nature of human-wildlife conflict becomes a matter of personal opinion. Conflict between people and wildlife is an emotional issue and, as a result, reports and opinions can be biased, creating a false impression of the size of the problem. The systematic and objective gathering of information allows stakeholders to put the problems and threats caused by human-wildlife conflict into context and perspective with other problems faced by local communities. It also ensures that resources are correctly directed, that is, at solving the real issues rather than the perceived problems. In order to make informed and cost-effective management decisions, information on problem animals needs to be:

Number of elephants killed in Gokwe



Gokwe, a CAMPFIRE RDC in Zimbabwe, reduced number of elephants killed in PAL by collecting PA information hence making informed decisions.

- **Current:** good policies can only be developed when the information is up-to-date. There is little point in basing policy on information that is several seasons or years old. However, it is also important to collect information from a number of years in order to take into account changes that may have occurred.
- **Accurate:** when information is collected it must be correct. Where information is collected over several years then the method for gathering information should remain the same so that an accurate assessment of the trends over time can be made.
- **Long-term:** even when a policy has been developed and measures implemented to reduce the conflict, it is important that the information continues to be collected. This will show the stakeholders how effective their intervention has been. Too often people stop collecting data on human-wildlife conflict before the effectiveness of the measures introduced can be assessed.

What are the sources of information on human-wildlife conflict?

All the stakeholders in a human-wildlife conflict situation need to provide information. Each has an important role to play:

- **Farmers:** also known as the "complainant", farmers provide information on any human-wildlife conflict incidences, the nature and frequency of occurrence and the estimated cost of any damage. This information may be channelled through trained enumerators or problem animal reporters.
- **Community-based organisations (CBOs):** CBOs collect, analyse and store information on problem animal incidents. Too often CBOs start collecting the information, but it is seldom analysed and often lost. Data collected by CBOs should be passed on to the relevant local authority or national wildlife authority.
- **Private sector:** Depending on the nature of their contract, they may undertake action to reduce human-wildlife conflict.
- **Non-governmental organisations (NGOs):** They collect and analyse information as well as conduct research and report findings on human-wildlife conflict. Any information collected should be passed on to the relevant local authority or the national wildlife department.
- **Wildlife departments:** are responsible for the development of national wildlife policies and legislation. Based on the information supplied to them by stakeholders, wildlife authorities should be in a position to compile national statistics on human-wildlife conflict, which show trends of human-wildlife conflict, the important areas of conflict, the major species involved and the success of different measures that have been used to try to reduce the conflict.

11

What information needs to be collected?

It is always tempting to collect too much information. Information systems for human-wildlife conflict must try and gather the key information that will be useful for resolving the problem. It is important that the data is collected consistently and can be analysed over a period of time. The following basic facts need to be gathered about incidents of human-wildlife conflict:

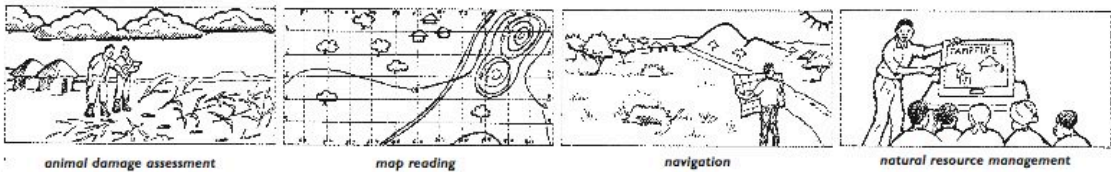
1. Who suffered the damage;
2. What was damaged;
3. Where the incident occurred;
4. When the incident occurred;
5. The wildlife species and, where possible, the age, sex and group size of the animals responsible;
6. What was the extent of the damage.

(For further details on this please refer to the WWF-SARPO manual on Problem Animal Reporting).

Points 1 to 5 are factual and can, therefore, be collected with relative ease. Point 6, however, relies on value judgement and can be subject to bias. Accurate and consistent information on human-wildlife conflict can really only be collected by using trained reporters or enumerators. This will ensure that the information is collected using the same approach for each incident. The disadvantages of using reporters are the costs and possible delays that can be involved.

What should be considered when setting up a system to gather information on human-wildlife conflict? There are some important decisions to make when setting up a system to collect, analyse and report on human-wildlife conflict. The most important areas to consider are:

- **Purpose:** It is crucial that the purpose of the system is very clear as this will affect its design. Most systems should be planned to allow CBOs and local farmers to reduce human-wildlife conflict. Other systems may, however, be developed to investigate the conflict with a long-term objective of designing appropriate technology and policy interventions in the future.
- **Ownership:** It is vital to establish who controls the system. If the system is to be locally owned, then it cannot be imposed. The facilitators of the system, those responsible for initiating the information gathering and getting information into the system, must work with the affected farmers and community-based organisations to ensure that their interests are fully represented.
- **Analysis of information:** Collection of information alone will achieve very little. It is essential that any system allows for the storage and analysis of information as well as the reporting back of any findings. The methodology of analysis must take into account the skills and technology available at a local level. It is very important that any analysis shows the trends in human-wildlife conflict within a defined area. One of the best methods of collection, analysis and storage of information on wildlife is the Event Book system developed in Namibia. The details of this system are provided in Chapter 6.
- **Enumerators:** The long-term, systematic collection of information on human-wildlife conflict needs a team of trained enumerators (also known as "problem animal reporters"). A system that is based on voluntary reporting by farmers will not come up with the necessary information. Using enumerators means that the following questions need to be considered:
- **Training:** In the short-term the enumerators need to be trained in the information collection methodology, such as animal damage assessments, map reading, navigation and importance/value of NRS. This immediately raises the



question of who to select. Experience has shown that facilitators should work with the CBO concerned to establish the skills that are needed and then jointly select the enumerators. Ideally, the training should be supported by close monitoring and follow-up. While this may seem expensive it is the only way of ensuring that the enumerators have the right skills and understand what is required of them. The facilitators of the system must be aware that there will be a high turnover of enumerators and that they must put in place a strategy for ongoing enumerator training, with the community. In nenyunga, Gokwe PAR train each other using the WWF PAR Manual.

- **Employment:** The long-term success of an information system will depend

on who employs the enumerators. Ideally, the enumerators should be employees of the CBO. However, the recording of human-wildlife conflict incidences is generally seasonal. The CBO must then decide how long to employ the enumerators for. Alternatively, the enumerators may be employed in other roles when the level of conflict is lower.

- **Coverage and transport:** The area to be covered singly and collectively by enumerators must be realistic. This will depend on the mobility of the enumerators, the intensity of the conflict and the settlement patterns (Fig 1-3). Facilitators should aim to set up a decentralised recording system. This has the advantage that it will be equally accessible to all farmers. (e.g. have a resident enumerator for each ward/village)

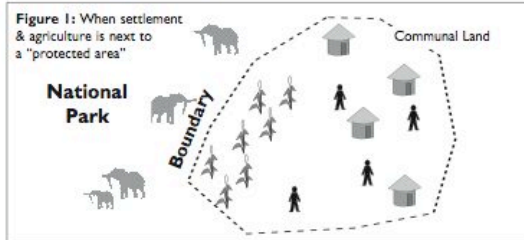


Figure 1: When settlement & agriculture is next to a "protected area"

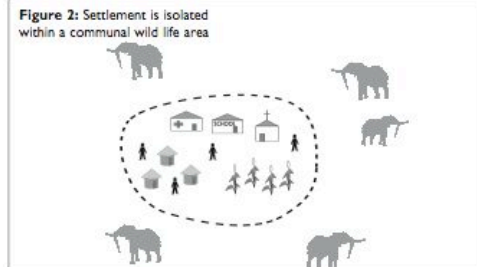


Figure 2: Settlement is isolated within a communal wildlife area

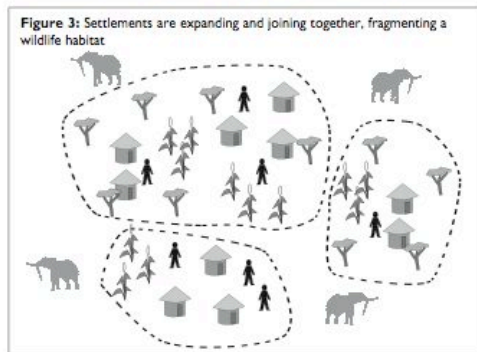


Figure 3: Settlements are expanding and joining together, fragmenting a wildlife habitat

What other important decisions need to be made when setting up an information gathering system? Discussions should be held with the local community in order to agree answers on the following important issues:

- Who will pay the enumerators;
- Who will pay for transport and equipment
- Agree on the definition of a "problem animal" and have consensus on the present policy on managing human-wildlife conflict;
- Which areas will be covered by the enumerators (part or all); and
- Trainers and enumerators
- Whether enumerators should be employed throughout the year or only seasonally.

What are the major steps in setting up a system to gather information on human-wildlife conflict?

It is necessary to implement mechanisms that will "filter" incoming data and ensure that the information is:

- (i) accurate
- (ii) complete, and
- (iii) reasonably free of bias.

(Please see the manual on Problem Animal Reporting for full details.)

The following steps can be taken:

1. All parties agree on information collecting methodology.
2. Appoint supervisor to administer the reporting scheme;
3. Recruit enumerators - agree conditions of employment, assign to different areas to achieve as full as possible coverage of the "conflict zone";
4. Train enumerators;
5. Supervisor to monitor and evaluate work of the enumerators;
6. Supervisor to submit regular summaries of "problem animal" information to CBO and /or wildlife authority;
7. Wildlife authority to analyse data and make informed decisions on managing human-wildlife conflict;
8. Wildlife authority to give feedback to affected community/communities.

Issues to consider in PA definition and local level policy on HWC for enumerators

- What is a serious PA incident
- Which animals will be considered as serious and notifiable incidents
- Which crops or livestock should be given priority when requesting reaction
- Which channel/ reporting command will be used

LESSONS ON REDUCING HUMAN-WILDLIFE CONFLICT

Introduction

Over the last twenty years many important lessons have been learned about managing human-wildlife conflict. Importantly, there is no single solution and a variety of options need to be developed and tested at a local level. This chapter reviews some of the most common methods used to reduce human-wildlife conflict and looks at the advantages and disadvantages of each. The information presented should be considered as a guide to how human-wildlife conflict might be addressed. Implementation of a selected option or options will require information and guidance beyond what can be offered in this manual.

What are some of the main methods for reducing human-wildlife conflict?

A list of the most common methods used for reducing human-wildlife conflict is outlined in the table overleaf. One of the most successful methods, however, has been introduced under the CBNRM programmes in the form of land use planning and land use change.

What are land use planning and land use change?

Land use planning and land use change are larger scale methods aimed at creating space for people and wildlife to live together. Land use change refers specifically to the management options that change farmers' attitudes to wildlife. The most successful way to do this is by giving farmers a high degree of control over the wildlife as well as allowing them to derive the potentially significant benefits that can be earned from wildlife management. Land use planning and changes in land use are key elements of community-based natural resource management programmes.

How can land use planning be used to help reduce human-wildlife conflict?

Land use planning is a long-term method for helping to reduce human-wildlife conflict. It is fundamental for the good management of wildlife, but land use planning and any changes in land use that are agreed can take several years to negotiate and implement. Part of the changes might also require the development of some of the other approaches outlined in this chapter for reducing human-wildlife conflict. Land use planning might achieve some or all of the following:

- Limiting the encroachment of human settlements in wildlife areas;
- Relocation of agricultural activities out of wildlife areas;
- Consolidation of human settlement patterns that are near wildlife areas;
- Creation of secure key areas of habitat, such as routes or corridors, that will permit wildlife to move freely; e.g. Gokwe North, Zimbabwe.
- Securing separate water points for wildlife. The distribution of wildlife populations can be manipulated by changing the location of water points and providing salt licks at strategic sites;

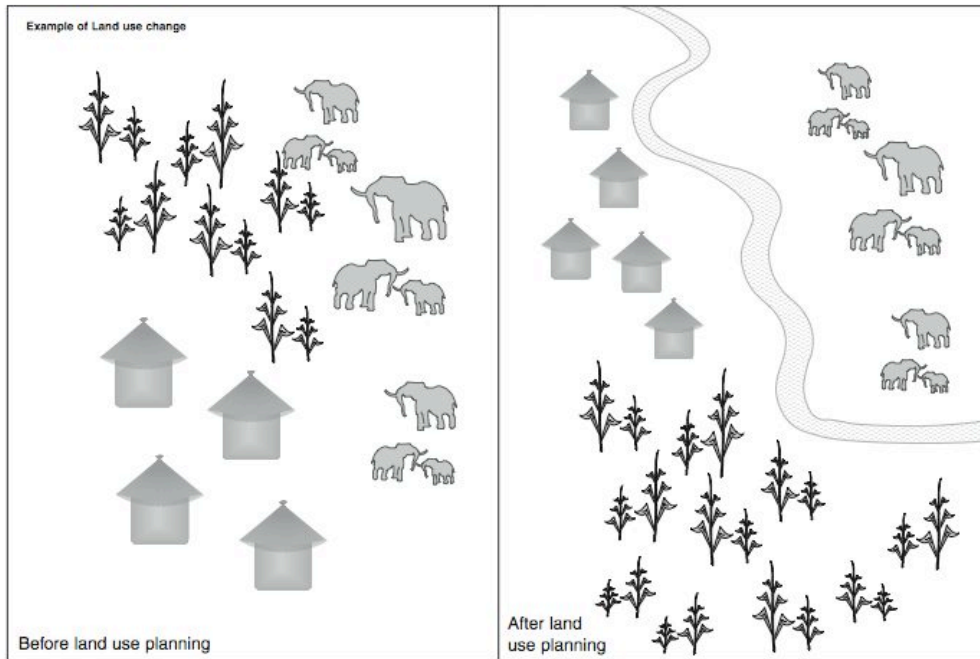
- Repositioning the boundaries of protected areas;
- Reduction in the size of crop fields;
- Changes in location of crop fields, e.g. dwellings and fields in proximity;
- Changing cropping regimes, e.g. growing crops not palatable to elephants; diversify into other types of crops; using intercropping layouts for crops; changing timing of harvests.

How can land use change be used to reduce human-wildlife conflict?

Changing farmers views of wildlife is a challenging process. The argument is that if farmers derive direct and substantial benefits from wildlife they will be more willing to tolerate the costs of living with wildlife. Farmers' demands for problem animals to be killed and for compensation was driven by the government control of wildlife. CBNRM programmes seek to return the responsibility and the rewards to communal land farmers, turning wildlife from a liability into an asset. The level of financial benefits provided by CBNRM programmes are crucial in influencing farmers' decisions. Small amounts of revenue, over which they have little control, are unlikely to change their attitude to wildlife. On the other hand, programmes that help generate large financial incentives for farmers stand a much greater chance of success.

What lessons have been learned from land use change? There are a large number of lessons that have been learned from a wide variety of programmes from across Southern Africa. These cannot be fully reviewed in this manual. Some of the key lessons learned have been:

- **Financial:** The benefits of living with wildlife must significantly exceed the costs of living with wildlife. The problem is that the costs of living with wildlife are often not evenly distributed in a community of farmers.
- **Community-based organisations:** In the communal land context, wildlife and the benefits from it need to be managed at a community level. This requires representative, skilled and well-financed community-based organisations. Historically, people in the communal lands of Southern Africa have had the least educational opportunities. As a result, the skills needed are often not available.
- **Policy and legislation:** For nearly a century wildlife management has been the responsibility of government. Experience has shown that governments and government officials are rarely prepared to give communal land farmers high levels of control over wildlife and the benefits that are earned. This makes it very difficult for farmers to view wildlife as an asset.



16

Method	Description	Lessons Learned	
Dealing with animals directly		Advantages	Disadvantages
Dispersal (scaring)	Chasing "problem" animals away from the area of conflict through the use of firearms or small explosive devices such as thunder flashes. Most often used against large herbivores.	A commonly used approach.	Has limited success. Most animals are likely to move away temporarily only, soon learning that the activity constitutes no real threat. This is called habituation, the animal becomes used to and will resist the threat and will resume its normal activities within a relatively short space of time.
Lethal (destroying)	The killing of individual "problem animals".	Can be an effective solution in the short term. Local residents can have access to meat. Is an opportunity for the community to make money by offering the kill to a professional hunter. This method is only warranted when the "problem animal" has injured or killed a person.	This can be extremely risky and should best be left to those with experience in hunting dangerous animals. If the opportunity to kill the animal is offered to a professional hunter it will take some effort to co-ordinate this with all the parties concerned. Furthermore, any action needs to be taken quickly and those affected must be confident they can identify the animal responsible. There is some evidence that killing a predator only opens the territory for others to come in.
Relocation	The trapping and moving of individual animals to new areas.	Removes the problem without killing the animal. Very specific animal(s) targeted	Very expensive. The success of such an operation is dependent on the availability of skilled personnel to capture and transport the animal concerned. It is sometimes difficult to find a new location for the animal. Very often animals return to their original territory if they are not moved sufficiently far away or become a problem at new site.
Barrier: Constructions, normally fences, that separate people from wildlife. The most common are:			
Strand wire fences	Made of steel wire and droppers strung between metal poles, occasionally with a lower section of netting to keep out smaller animals.	Can be used by individual farmers	Their effectiveness depends on the design, construction and maintenance of the fence. Are generally ineffectual against large herbivores and carnivores. Require considerable upkeep.
Post fences	Solid barriers normally built with locally available timber.	Good at separating off small areas. Good for the construction of secure "bomas" or "kraals".	Very time consuming to build. Not suitable for the large scale separation of people and wildlife.

17

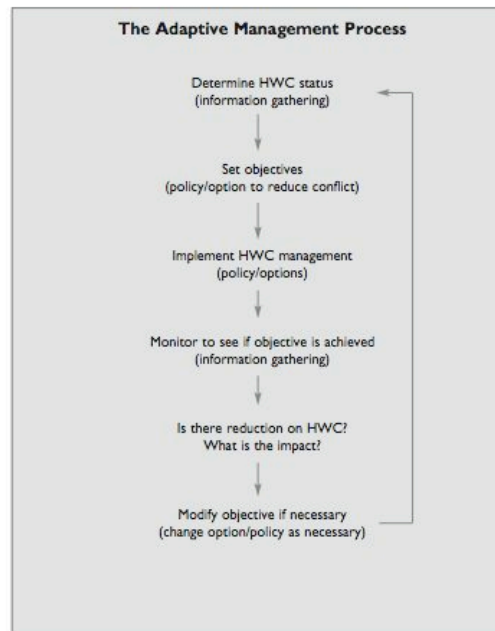
Method	Description	Lessons Learned	
		Advantages	Disadvantages
Electric fences	Similar in design to strained fences, consisting of two different sets of wires which are electrically charged. When an animal attempts to cross the fence it receives a powerful electric shock. The design of the fences must be such as to withstand the challenges posed by large mammals.	Are effective animal deterrents. Provide tangible proof of action against HWC to communities	Has limited success. Most animals are likely to move away temporarily only, soon learning that the activity constitutes no real threat. This is called habituation, the animal becomes used to and will resist the threat and will resume its normal activities within a relatively short space of time.
Other	Other options, such as trenches, rock piles and stonewalls can be used to protect water installations and other resources from large animals.	If well constructed these can be highly effective and maintenance costs are minimal.	Can be expensive and time consuming to construct.
Compensation schemes	Monetary payment for damage to crops, livestock and personal loss from human-wildlife conflict.	Results in payment for damages incurred.	Does not deal with the primary cause of the problem – the problem animal itself. Compensation schemes tend to be expensive to administer and can mean huge open-ended financial commitments for the provider of the compensation. They are also open to corruption and abuse.
Insurance schemes	Payment of insurance premiums by individuals or a community for insurance against damage to crops, loss of livestock or personal injury or death.	These have worked well in an agricultural context when, on commercial farms, farmers have insured against such things as hail damage to crops.	This method has not yet been fully tested for sufficient information to be available on its success.
Predator control	Although, most human-wildlife conflict situations are caused by large herbivores, predators can present a genuine threat to livestock. The cost of loss of livestock can be considerable for the individual farmer. There are a variety of measures that can be taken to protect livestock from wildlife. These include:		
Herder dogs	Dogs are used to accompany livestock on their daily grazing forays. The dogs must be introduced to the livestock as puppies and must grow up with the livestock.	Is a highly effective method.	Takes time to train dogs. It has not always been easy to convince farmers to adopt this option.
Bomas	Use of a protective enclosure for the night as a barrier between livestock and any predators. Dogs may be used to guard the boma. The boma can also be used to keep newly born and young livestock in during the day.	Highly effective small enclosures.	Not suitable for large areas as are expensive and time consuming to construct.
Land use change	See explanation in this chapter.		
Land use planning			

What resources are available to combat human-wildlife conflict and what are the constraints?
Dealing with human-wildlife conflict is a major challenge to facilitators of CBNRM programmes across southern Africa. There are several general problems that seem to face all the programmes, these include:

Resource	Constraints
Policy	Unclear; inadequate or non-existent
Money	Inadequate; unavailable; delayed payment
Staff	Insufficient number or insufficiently trained
Transport	Insufficient; unreliable
Terrain	Size; remoteness; inaccessibility
Field equipment	Insufficient; poor quality
Communications	Difficult; slow
Attitudes of people	Antagonistic; uncooperative
Information	Insufficient; inaccurate and exaggerated
Research facilities	Non-existent

What strategies can be adopted to help overcome resource constraints?
Such difficulties, large and overbearing as they may seem, are part of most wildlife conservation programmes. Constraints need to be recognised and dealt with in an integrated approach, often at a national level. Two strategies are important, these are:

- **Adaptive management:** Facilitators need to make test interventions with farmers with the approach that they will all learn from the outcome and be ready to implement changes as the situation and the results determine.
- **Pilot sites:** It may not be possible to address the problems of all farmers in a region or across the entire country. Facilitators must start with small, manageable pilot sites. Success can then be replicated and the pilot site used as a model of "best practice". Equally, failures should be documented and avoided in other areas.



COUNTRY-SPECIFIC AND LOCAL LEVEL PROBLEM ANIMAL CONTROL OPTIONS

The previous chapter gave details of some of the most common methods currently employed for reducing human-wildlife conflict across the region. In this chapter we will look at some of the country-specific examples of these techniques as well as consider other techniques which have been used at a more local level.

What examples are there of different approaches to human-wildlife conflict in the region?

A wide range of options to address human-wildlife conflict has been developed in the sub-region. Many have failed, and those that are successful are seldom transferable to other areas and different conditions. Successful human-wildlife conflict management strategies are generally very specific in addressing the particular circumstances and characteristic of the area and the nature of the problem. The main approaches can be grouped as follows:

- **Vigilance method:** Aimed at alerting farmers to the presence of approaching wildlife. Examples include the use of watchtowers. Constructed at half-kilometre intervals these can be used to spot approaching wildlife and raise the alarm to their presence. There needs to be co-operation between farmers to manage the watchtowers and set up duty rosters, used widely in Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Zambia.



- **Preventative methods – Passive:** Aimed at impeding the passage of potential problem animals using simple physical barriers and deterrents:
 - **Buffer zones:** The clearing of a section of woodland along the boundary of a field (about five metres). This allows the farmer to spot approaching animals and it may act as a deterrent to approaching wildlife. Only slashers and axes are required to make the clearing.

